

A Review of the Status and Trends of Exported Ornamental Fish Resources and Their Habitats in Sri Lanka



**A REVIEW OF THE STATUS AND TRENDS OF EXPORTED ORNAMENTAL FISH
RESOURCES AND THEIR HABITATS IN SRI LANKA**

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PREFACE

This document discusses the history and the current status of marine and freshwater ornamental fish species in Sri Lanka, which are exported to some 25 countries in response to demand. It contains lists of marine and freshwater species, including endangered species, and information on their population, biology, ecology and distribution. It briefly discusses the impact of the export effort on resources, and the status of information relevant for resource and habitat management.

This document, and the activities undertaken between 1994 and 1999 in Sri Lanka to support conservation and management of ornamental fish species in the island, were supported by the Bay of Bengal Programme (BOBP) as part of its management-oriented Third Phase.

The BOBP is a multi-agency regional fisheries programme that covers seven countries around the Bay of Bengal – Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Maldives, Sri Lanka, Thailand. The Programme plays a catalytic and consultative role in developing coastal fisheries management in the Bay of Bengal, thereby helping improve the conditions of small-scale fisherfolk in the member-countries.

The BOBP is sponsored by the Governments of Denmark and Japan. The executing agency is the FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations).

FOREWORD

The capture, breeding and export of ornamental fish is an important industry in Sri Lanka. It generates jobs, incomes and foreign exchange. But it also triggers concern. The collection of ornamental fish for export could have a detrimental impact on the rich but fragile ecosystems of the island, such as coral reefs, that teem with marine life.

During its management-oriented Third Phase (1994-1999), the BOBP was requested by the Government of Sri Lanka to help facilitate improved management of the ornamental fish sector.

Working with the Ministry of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources, the BOBP sought to promote consultation and negotiation among various stakeholders in ornamental fisheries. These included as many as 15 Ministries, various exporting firms, their suppliers, and the ornamental fish divers who collect and sell ornamental fish.) To aid the consultation process, two parallel streams of activities were organised. One aimed at strengthening knowledge about the ornamental fishery and about trends concerning resources and habitats, thereby giving stakeholders the best available scientific information. Another stream aimed at awareness-building on the needs, benefits and methods of management.

This report perhaps aids both streams by strengthening knowledge as well as awareness. The report has made an excellent review of the status and trends in the export trade of ornamental fish species. Key areas have been identified and prioritised for sustainable resource/habitat management. We hope the report is found useful as a source of information and reference by everyone concerned with ornamental fisheries, including planners, decision-makers, scientists and those engaged in the export trade in ornamental fish species.

Perhaps the most fruitful outcome of BOBP's work on ornamental fisheries in Sri Lanka is that many stakeholders are giving up past suspicions and antagonisms to discuss co-operation in strengthening the industry and its potential for enriching the country's economy.

We hope that this report will have the same effect, and lead to ideas and insights on conservation and management of Sri Lanka's ornamental fish industry.

6.12.2000

Y.S. Yadava
Interim IGO Coordinator

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Abbreviations Commonly Used in the Report

BOBP	Bay of Bengal Programme
CEA	Central Environmental Authority
CCD	Coast Conservation Department
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
MoF	Ministry of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources Development
NARA	National Aquatic Resources Research & Development Agency

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In Sri Lanka, I thank Mr H V C Fernando of the Ministry of Fisheries, not only for the work related to this report, but also for his dedicated commitment. With his keen interest to further Sri Lankan fisheries, I have found it a pleasure and a privilege to work with him.

I thank my patient assistants for helping me to finalise this report. To the various persons in the trade, whose knowledge and time were readily given to me, often confidentially, I owe a debt of gratitude. Many persons outside the trade, including a few students, have shared with me much time and aquatic-related knowledge over the years. Although they are too numerous to mention and I remain grateful to them, a few helpful friends such as the indefatigable Rohan Pethiyagoda, Vibu Perera, Samantha Goonesekera, Malik Fernando and Rex de Silva will not easily fade from memory. I sincerely thank colleagues and others who sent me supportive comments after the presentation of the draft of this report.

I owe a lasting debt of gratitude to my country for fostering in me a love and dedication for the rich natural resources that we possess, for it is indeed unparalleled and it behoves on Us the obligation to hold it in trust for the benefit and enjoyment of our future generations.

SUMMARY

The ornamental fish trade in Sri Lanka has come a long way over the last 75 years of its existence to develop into a valuable foreign exchange earner for Sri Lanka. Ornamental fish are exported to over 25 countries, mostly “developed”. These include USA, Japan, United Kingdom, Holland, Germany, Singapore and Hong Kong. The consignments that reach Singapore, Hong Kong and Holland are mostly re-exported to other “western” countries. Exports have shown an increasing trend over the last two to three years, particularly since prices have become more competitive. Over 25 major exporters are now involved in the trade.

The base material for this trade is the rich tropical biological diversity that Sri Lanka enjoys, which seems to be imperilled by aquarium-trade related activities and other ill-planned short-term developmental activities. The trade now seems receptive to evolving strategies for the sustainable management of the aquarium fishery.

The freshwater aquarium trade obtains specimens for export both from wild-caught and captive-bred/hatchery-reared stocks, whereas the marine trade relies solely on the natural or wild habitat to procure specimens for export, collections being done by persons employed specifically for this purpose. Collection, especially in the marine waters, involves some degree of habitat destruction and stress to the collected organism. It is therefore necessary to develop and popularise eco-friendly collecting methods. Other mortality and stress-inducing practices occur during the holding phase (until collection by the exporter) and the transport phase. Methods for mortality reduction have to be developed/popularised. Hatchery breeding that has been developed by exporters for some species of freshwater fish (such as *Puntius nigrofasciatus* and *Puntius titteya*) seems the ideal answer to the ecosystem disruptions that trade practices cause, since natural mortality as well as habitat destruction are thereby avoided.

In the freshwater ecosystems, we have some 80 species of indigenous fish of which 27 are endemic, meaning that they are found nowhere else on our planet. 59 species of these freshwater fish are presently recorded as being collected from wild populations and exported in the aquarium trade; 53 of them being regularly exported. From among the 27 endemic freshwater fish species, up to 20 species are presently being used regularly in the aquarium export trade. Among the most sought after species for exports are the endemic *Rasbora vaterifloris*, *Puntius nigrofasciatus* and *Puntius titteya* with *Puntius cumingii* and *Belontia signata* being among the other popularly exported endemics. *Monodactylus argenteus* is the single most heavily fished non-endemic species

Recent trends in the marine trade have witnessed its expansion for exports to include more species (139 species in 1985 to over 200 species at present) and to export increased numbers of fish (from about 200,000 individuals in 1985 to almost 1,000,000 individuals at present). There is also an increasing trend to import fish from other countries for value-added transshipment.

In both the marine and freshwater exports, supply from the wild seems to be coming down. This trend is sending collectors to areas which were not previously used for collections (in the case of freshwater habitats) or to deeper and further offshore areas using SCUBA gear (in the marine habitat). Although no studies have been completed “to prove that there is a reduction in gene pools, colour varieties, etc.” (NARA, 1998), collections appear to have impacted on gene pools and population characteristics of available stocks, since available sizes have changed and the desirable attractive colour varieties of freshwater species are no longer readily available. NARA (1998), however, is of the view that changes in the quality of food available for these species should not be discounted as a reason for these changes in the colours in fish. There are signs that over-collection of some species as well as over-collection of some sizes of certain species have already occurred, even though corroborating scientific studies have not been conducted.

The effects of selective over-collection are exacerbated by the habitat degradation that is taking place independently of aquarium-trade activities, but which would inevitably affect the sustainability of the aquarium industry.

Habitat destruction as well as habitat change are taking place in both freshwater and marine habitats. Clearing of shade along wet zone streams affects many endemic species, since many endemics are shade-loving species that live in shallow streams. Increased siltation, sediment load, pollution and reduction in water quantity are also disturbing trends. Another alarming trend bringing about change in our freshwaters, and which would affect the future of the aquarium trade, relates to the increase of many imported exotic and invasive aquatic species (including snails such as the Golden Apple snail, *Pomacea sp.*, and piscivorous fish, such as the Clown Knife fish, *Notopterus chitala*) in our freshwaters (Bambaradeniya et al, 1988) in our freshwaters. Such freshwater fish introductions would effectively reduce the carrying capacity of Sri Lanka's fresh waters to her indigenous fish species and may well lead to their being competitively eliminated, impacting gravely on our biological diversity and seriously narrowing the biological options that remain open for future development and expansion of our export aquarium industry.

The marine habitat is also seriously impacted by increased sediment load, pollution and habitat destruction. The unprecedented coral bleaching that has been recently experienced would bring about changes in the reef and coastal ecosystems, the destabilising nature of which we are as yet unable to predict.

Some of the freshwater endemic species require urgent measures for their protection and sustainable management. This is because their collection imposes further stresses, often severe, on their already strained populations. The stress-inducing factors include their small population, heavy collection pressure, the intense targeted collection of attractively-coloured individuals or specific size groups, (Gundekera, 1995, 1998), and population declines (due to unknown factors including environmental degradation). The species meriting such concern are *Rasbora vaterifloris*, *Puntius nigrofasciatus*, *Puntius titteya*, *Puntius cuningii*, *Puntius bimaculatus*, *Daniopathirana*, *Aplocheilus werneri*, *Sicyopus jonklaasi* and *Belontia signata*. Among marine species, extreme care should be exercised in exploiting species that are present in low numbers (such as clown fish) and species that form key linkages (such as cleaner fish) or perform key ecological functions (such as territorial damsels, algal feeding/coral cropping parrot fish and zooplanktivores).

Most endemic and sensitive species are restricted to very narrow specific habitats. Their survival, affected by physical over-exploitation for the aquarium trade, may be further hit by habitat alteration. No comprehensive studies have been carried out on the requirements of these endemic or sensitive exported species. In the absence of suitable impact studies, it is not possible to predict what impact habitat alteration will have on these species. Exporters target the more colourful varieties and since their ecological significance has not been studied, what long-term effect such selective exploitation will have on genetic diversity cannot yet be detailed.

Some species are more susceptible to poor handling and transport conditions. Exporters simply harvest larger numbers to offset attendant mortalities of such species. Inadequate space and water volume, poor oxygenation during export and excessive pre-export starvation and stress increase the mortality of exported numbers of some species.

Apart from legislation that can be effectively implemented, eco-physiological and population studies of a quantitative nature are urgently needed to advise on collection, maintenance and transport conditions that need to be followed by exporters to safeguard collected stocks from unnecessary mortality. Exporters are eager to learn and would be receptive to receiving appropriate, scientifically formulated, well-meaning practical advice. Studies should be targeted towards this end, since it seems unlikely that the export trade can at present be voluntarily modulated on the basis of conservation requirements. Such a strategy could only become feasible after an adequately robust ecological data base has been compiled, which would necessarily require time.

An effective management strategy needs to address not only aquarium-trade related matters, but also policy and other matters in an integrated approach if we are to be hopeful of sustaining the aquarium industry in the long-term.



Indonesia	9,100,000
Philippines	8,600,000
Hong Kong	7,400,000
Colombia	3,000,000
Brazil	1,800,000
Japan	1,750,000
Malaysia	1,600,000
Sri Lanka	1,200,000
Others	ca 42,550,000
Total imports:	US\$ 100,000,000

**Table 3.3 Countries competing to export tropical fish to the EEC
as indicated by import figures
(freshwater & marine, 1992; Bassleer, 1994)**

(in US\$)

<i>Country of Origin</i>	<i>Freshwaterfish</i>	<i>Marine fish</i>
Singapore	35,000,000	1,800,000
Netherlands	5,800,000	1,650,000
USA	5,350,000	1,100,000
Israel	5,300,000	1,300
Japan	4,800,000	
Czechoslovakia	4,700,000	
Indonesia	1,800,000	2,100,000
Brazil	2,850,000	
Thailand	2,200,000	
Philippines	75,000	1,300,000
Germany	2,000,000	
Colombia	1,700,000	
Sri Lanka	400,000	1,200,000
Others	10,025,000	1,850,000
Total	ca 82,000,000	ca 11,000,000
Total imports	ca US\$ 93,000,000	

SECTION 1

Scope, Objectives and Methodology

The live export trade in relation to faunal aquatic resources deals with both ornamental aquatic species and food-fish species. Some of these species are cultured while others are harvested from the wild. The trade exports freshwater, brackish as well as marine species. Whereas live animal freshwater exports are made up of fin-fish species, the live marine exports consist of both fin fish and invertebrate species.

There is thus a wide range of aquatic species that provide the base for the fishery-related live export trade. From among this diversity of species that support the live aquatic export industry, this report deals with fin fish species that are caught from their natural (or “wild”) freshwater and marine habitats and exported from Sri Lanka for ornamental purposes.

In relation to these aquarium wild-caught fin fish species from freshwater and marine habitats, the present report will review their status **and** trends, making use of existing literature as well as views expressed by key stakeholders and experts. These views were often expressed in confidence, for the export of live species often engenders much controversy and emotional debate (e.g., Marcelline, 1997). The report will present a reference list of the relevant literature and will also highlight Sri Lanka’s ornamental fish resources and habitats that are considered as vulnerable or in danger, together with identifiable causal factors. The report will identify and prioritise key areas where information is lacking for effective and sustainable resource/habitat management and suggest actions in terms of research and information collection.

This report shows that there is a severe dearth of objective scientific information in relation to Sri Lanka’s aquatic ecosystems. This situation has led to various views being expressed. This report attempts to document these diverse viewpoints, some of which are not supported by detailed scientific study. Their inclusion is meant to encourage further examination and scientific study. The Report is based on a perusal of both published information and unpublished “grey” literature, which however proved to be insufficient and inadequate, especially with reference to population and ecological studies of our aquatic organisms. Therefore, interviews and discussions with exporters, divers and collectors were used to augment the limited information contained as published or grey information, which was supplied in good faith but lacked substantiation with orthodox scientific tests. Apart from individual discussions, questionnaires were also used. Inputs were used from workshops that had been held with personnel associated with the aquarium fish industry. These workshops included a 2-day workshop held at the Lighthouse Hotel, Galle on the 5th and 6th of September 1997 for members of the Association of Live Tropical Fish Exporters of Sri Lanka and the Association of Specialised Aquarium Fish Breeders of Sri Lanka.

The wide interest in the export aquarium trade was borne out by a presentation of a draft version of this report to an interested audience. It generated considerable interest and discussion, including criticism that some of the information presented lacked scientific testing/corroboration (e.g. NARA, 1998). This is acknowledged. Such lively criticism portends well for scientific debate on the subject. It is hoped that the information presented in this report, particularly information requiring scientific validation, is subjected to in-depth scientific study, and that responsible researchers embark on well-organised programmes to fill the vast gaps that presently exist in our knowledge base on aquatic ecosystems. We will then be better equipped to deal with the diversity of issues that must be addressed so that we manage our aquatic resources in a sustainable and effective manner.

SECTION 2

Introduction

The recorded history of the ornamental fish exports from Sri Lanka can be traced to around 1920 or 1930. The trade at this time was limited to a few exporters. The vessels used for the exports were passenger and cargo steamers that called at Colombo (Jonklaas, 1985). The packing material was imported from abroad and the fish, which were predominantly freshwater species, were kept in tanks on the deck of the boat until the final destination was reached. In some cases, they were housed in specially converted cabins that served as aquarium rooms (Axelrod, 1960). The export aquarium trade expanded gradually from the 1950s as more exporters began to operate from Colombo. As air transport got more popular and less costly, live aquarium fish for export took to the skies. Initially confined to specialists meeting the needs of large aquaria, the export market expanded, with individual hobbyists enjoying the calm and tranquility of an aquarium in the comfort of one's home, joining the rank of exporters. The expansion of domestic power supply, the lowering of air transport costs in the post-war period, and the development of cost-effective aquarium accessories such as aerators and heating elements, helped the aquarium hobby boom. These developments made it easier for people in the colder temperate countries to procure and maintain the more colourful warm-water aquarium fish species that originated in tropical countries. The popularity of fish-keeping as a hobby in the developed world can best be gauged by its recognition as the second-most popular hobby in the USA (Alava and Gomes, 1989). Rarely did the hobbyist realise the complex chain of events set in motion when fish were brought from the biodiverse tropics to the home tank in cold temperate climes.

As market demand for the attractively-coloured fish grew, to brighten the interiors of wintry western temperate human abodes, the tropical habitats of the exported fish began to decline in quality. This was because the catch rates of tropical fish captured to meet the increasing demand exceeded the numbers that could be sustainably harvested. Also, catching methods became more damaging. Collectors were forced to destructively extract, from less accessible niches located further afield, declining numbers of fish. The sustainability of ecosystems got further imperilled with the mounting pollution of our aquatic systems, stemming from our misuse of natural resources and the overuse of diverse chemical agents in many land-based activities.

The disruption of ecosystem processes caused by such pollution affected many livelihoods. People were no longer able to follow practices that had until then been supported by our natural resources. The quality of life changed; fish collectors had to risk their lives by diving deeper using aqualungs, to obtain what they used to collect earlier with little risk from near-shore niches using only simple snorkeling gear. Less directly, changes to the quality of life of many more people were brought about when products that were supported by ecosystem linkages were no longer supportable because of the removal of link species or because of habitat destruction.

The expanding aquarium trade, even though not properly managed, generated much-needed foreign exchange (see next section) as well as employment benefits for a number of persons, particularly to collectors in the coastal low-income sector of the population. The right strategy would be to examine the management possibilities of this trade and to collectively adopt practices that would result in the sustainable management of the ornamental fishery.

The perception that the aquarium trade has hit ecosystems and economic life has led to diverse results. It has spurred both the exporter-collector and the conservationist to contemplate how best we can evolve mechanisms to effectively manage natural aquatic resources and to arrest further deterioration of our aquatic ecosystems. Many agree that the resource base has been impacted negatively, affecting the future of the export aquarium trade and ecosystem functions. Understandably, various stakeholders have failed to find agreement about the extent of the impact, mostly due to lack of a standardisation on field observation methodology. Even so, there is a common perception of an unfavourable impact on some species together with a positive outlook that still exists for sustainable management of the fishery. This must be utilised to evolve a management ethic among stakeholders and a consensus strategy for the sustainability of this valuable fishery.

SECTION 3

Trends Common to Freshwater and Marine Resource Management

3.1 Expansion of the Export Trade

The **common trends** associated with the export aquarium trade are by now clearly discernible, with a steady expansion witnessed overtime. Such expansion, at an annual rate of about 10% over the last 5 years, served to bring in increasing amounts of foreign exchange and job opportunities. These were necessary for a growing economy and the government therefore gave this growing industry encouragement and assistance.

The largest demand (99%) for ornamental fish is from home hobbyists, and the remaining 1% is from public aquaria and research institutes. The total annual wholesale trade value of live ornamental fish supplying this market demand was estimated at US\$ 900,000,000 and its retail value was US\$ 3,000,000,000 (Bassleer, 1995). The largest markets are in the USA, Europe (with Germany being the leading country) and Japan (see table below). The EEC was the biggest importer (by value) of tropical fish from Sri Lanka (freshwater and marine). The USA came next, then Japan.

Of the EEC's imports from Sri Lanka, US\$ 400,000 was the freshwater component, while the marine component was US\$ 1,200,000 (Bassleer, 1995). Marine organisms exported were three times as valuable as freshwater fish exports.

Table 3.1 Annual trade values (in US\$) of live ornamental organisms in relation to major importing countries and Sri Lankan share of market

<i>Country/ies</i>	<i>Global Import Value to respective country/ies</i>	<i>Export Value from Sri Lanka to respective country/ies</i>	<i>% Sri Lankan share of the country market</i>
USA	100x10 ⁶	1.2x10 ⁶	1.2
EEC	93x 10 ⁶	1.6x 10 ⁶	1.72
Japan	65 x 10 ⁶	0.48 x 10 ⁶	0.74

The monetary value of aquarium fish exports from Sri Lanka was Rs 248 million in 1994 which is a mere 0.5 to 1% slice of the global aquarium trade. The value of Sri Lankan aquarium fish exports has been increasing annually at a growth rate of 16.9%. Although prices for individual fish have fallen in absolute terms over the recent past (because of inflation), the increase in export of overall numbers has helped to generate increased income from the trade as a whole (Section 5).

The principal countries competing against Sri Lanka and vying for the lucrative aquarium products market are Singapore, Indonesia, Thailand and Philippines, as shown in the tables below;

Table 3.2 Countries competing to export tropical fish to USA as indicated by import figures (freshwater & marine) (1992; Bassleer, 1994)

<i>Country of Origin</i>	<i>Value (US\$)</i>
Singapore	12,500,000
Thailand	10,500,000

Contd

**Table 3.4 Countries competing to export tropical fish to Japan
as indicated by import figures
(freshwater & marine, 1992; Bassleer,1994)**

<i>Country of Origin</i>	<i>Value (US\$)</i>
Hong Kong	12,150,000
Singapore	10,900,000
USA	8,300,000
Thailand	5,400,000
Indonesia	4,850,000
Germany	4,750,000
Philippines	3,850,000
Brazil	3,700,000
Malaysia	2,350,000
Netherlands	2,250,000
Sri Lanka	480,000
Others	ca 6,000,000
Total imports	ca US\$ 65,000,000

Sri Lanka exports to more than 25 countries including USA, Japan, United Kingdom, Holland, Germany, Singapore, Malaysia, Bahrain, Canada, Belgium, Finland, Austria, Sweden, Finland, Portugal, Denmark, France, Italy, Spain, Israel, UAE, Maldives, India, South Africa and Argentina. The USA is our highest buying country, Hong Kong ranks next, followed by Japan. Germany is also a leading buying country. Countries such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Bahrain and Holland purchase our aquarium fish mostly for re-export. The exports to Europe have been increasing at an annual rate of 10% over the last five years.

The exports from Sri Lanka are undertaken by about 25 exporting companies.

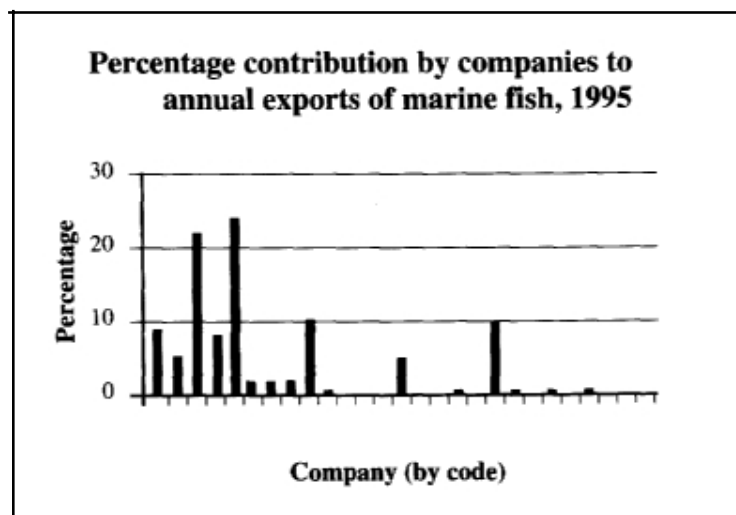


Figure 3.1 Percentage contribution by companies to annual exports of marine fish

Fifteen of these companies are registered with the Export Development Board and a single company is registered also with the Board of Investment. Among the companies engaged in the export trade, two companies command about 50% of the export volume, another 36% is shared among four other companies, while the remaining companies export very low quantities, as shown in the graph above.

Exports are carried out under the HS Code allocated for this trade practice under the number 0-300-11010 for freshwater fish exports. Exported quantities reach a peak from around September to March/May of each year, which corresponds with the colder season of the developed northern hemisphere countries. Apparently people purchase more aquarium fish over the colder, bleaker period when inclement weather confines them to their homes. Reviewing the export statistics for 1995, such an increase in exports is true for freshwater fish, but not for marine fish exports (please see graphs below), where the period June to August recorded increased exports. December to January is a brisk sale period for aquarium fish in many of the developed countries because this is the “gift season”.

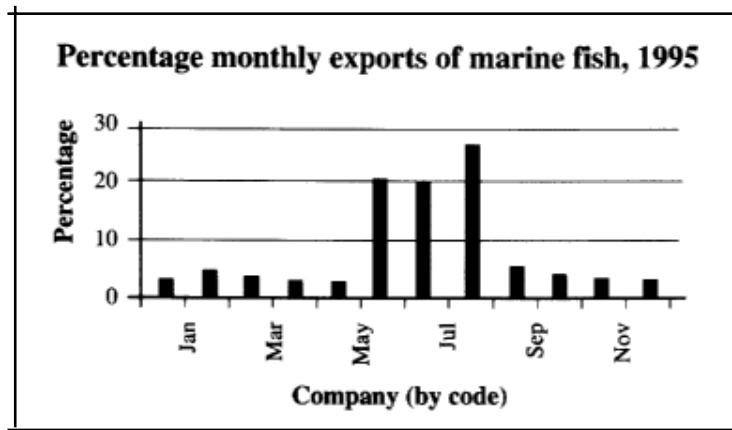


Figure 3.2 Percentage monthly export of marine fish

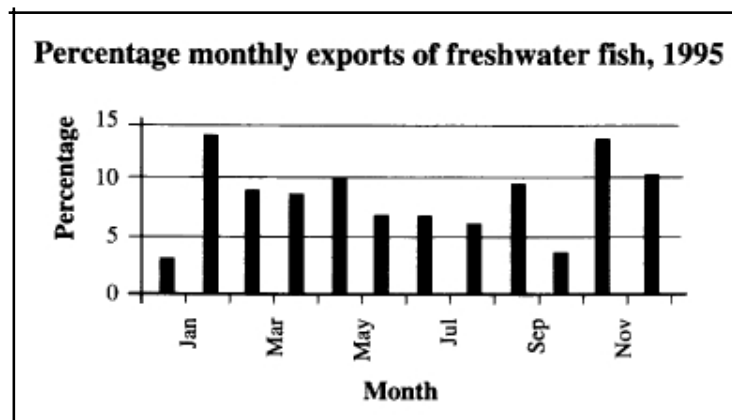


Figure 3.3 Percentage monthly exports of freshwater fish

This expansion in turn brought about the gradual over-exploitation of the more popular species of wild-caught aquarium fish. Although blame for such a trend is commonly placed solely on the aquarium trade, it is not fully justified unless it is to be accepted that individual traders harvesting a common-property natural resource generate the capacity, training and the knowhow to regulate themselves.

3.2 Advisory, research and management capacity

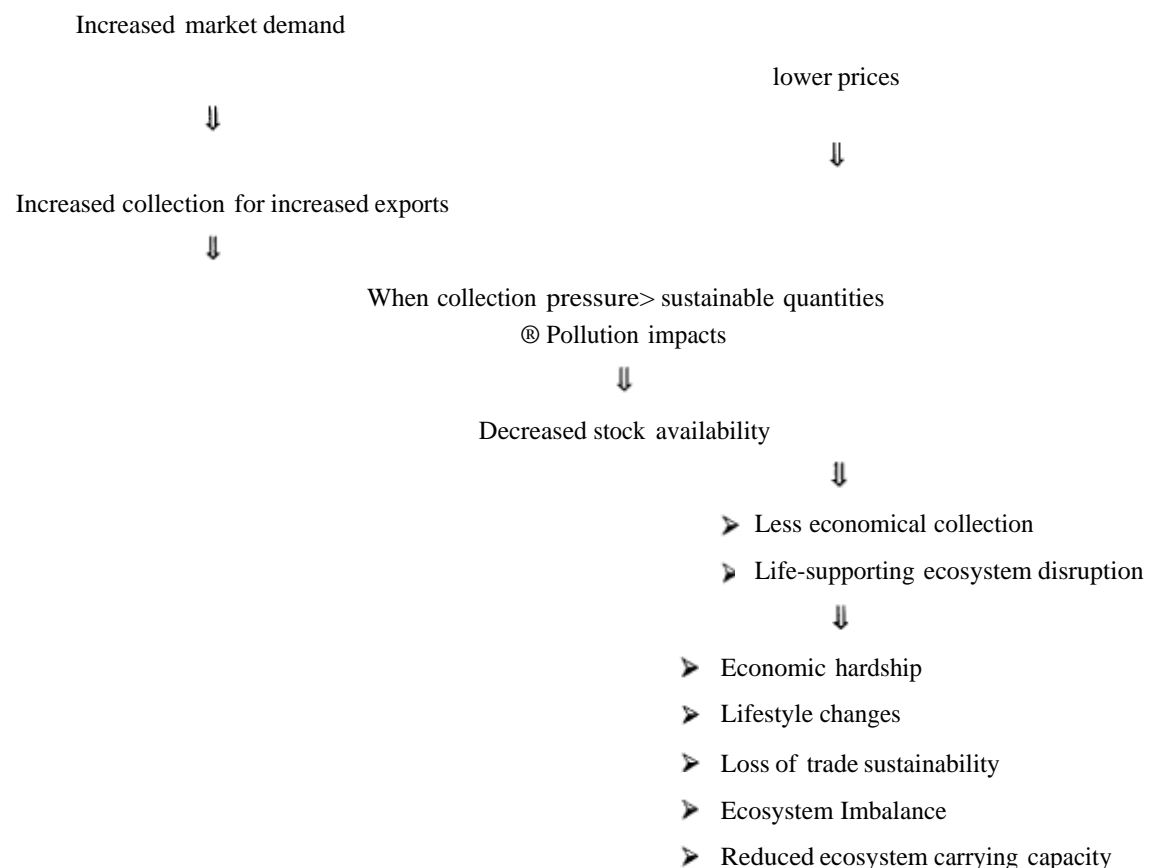
The only regular training given in the aquarium-related industry is at the National Aquatic Resources Research & Development Agency (NARA). Its training courses are geared to the breeder and grow-out farmer. These could eventually help develop proper breeding and holding methods for the indigenous and endemic species. NARA also provides advice and back-up on aquarium-related activities such as site selection, water quality, pond construction, identification of fish, etc.

The College of Ichthyology at 37/6 Terence Avenue, Mt Lavinia, conducts 2-day, 1-month and 3-month courses. The University of Kelaniya conducts an M Sc course in Aquaculture. Other universities such as the University of Colombo and Ruhuna conduct special degree courses in Fisheries Science or/and course units in aquaculture and aquatic ecology for undergraduates/post-graduates. These courses are not dedicated to aquarium fish but would contain components related to aquarium fish keeping, breeding and ecology. Graduates with such training could undergo further training, particularly for research activities in the aquatic habitats.

The national-level research conducted at present about the problems related to the export of indigenous/endemic species is inadequate. Though export of live fish has been going on for so many decades and regulations governing export of live fish have been in existence for a long time, there has been no attempt to introduce systematic research programmes concerning the resources of ornamental-fish species and to improve their management systems (Dr K. Sivasubramaniam: in comments on Draft Report, 1998).

3.3 Resource base

The general trends concerning the resource base are common to both freshwater and marine aquarium fish resources;

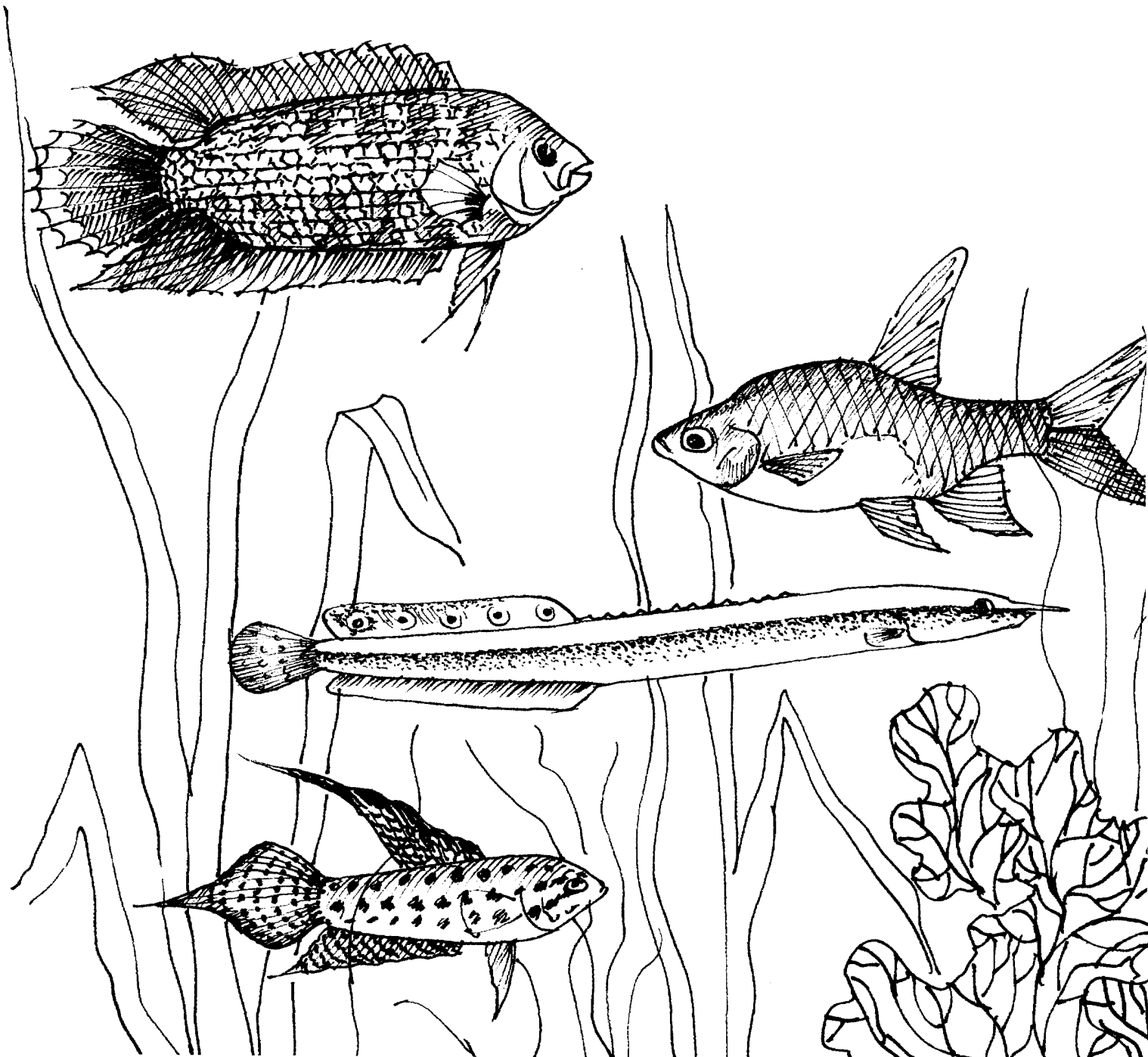


From the foregoing, it becomes apparent that increased collection pressure would affect the species for which there is higher demand and that it would lead, in the first instance, to an impact on their population.

- reduction in numbers (*i.e.*, population size),
- changes in their size characteristics (*i.e.*, population structure)

The less popular species will also be affected, indirectly, when ecosystem functions change.

It must be kept in mind that the more popular species are harvestable economically because they are available in larger numbers. **When quantities decline below a threshold number, it becomes uneconomical to collect them as a target species. Because of their numerical abundance, their contribution to ecosystem processes and functions could be significant.** Their removal (in high numbers to meet the “popular” demand) could therefore have a significant effect on the ecosystem and would, in turn, affect even the less popular species in the aquatic habitat, although it may take longer for the effect to be clearly discernible.



SECTION 4

Trends in the Freshwater Aquarium Trade

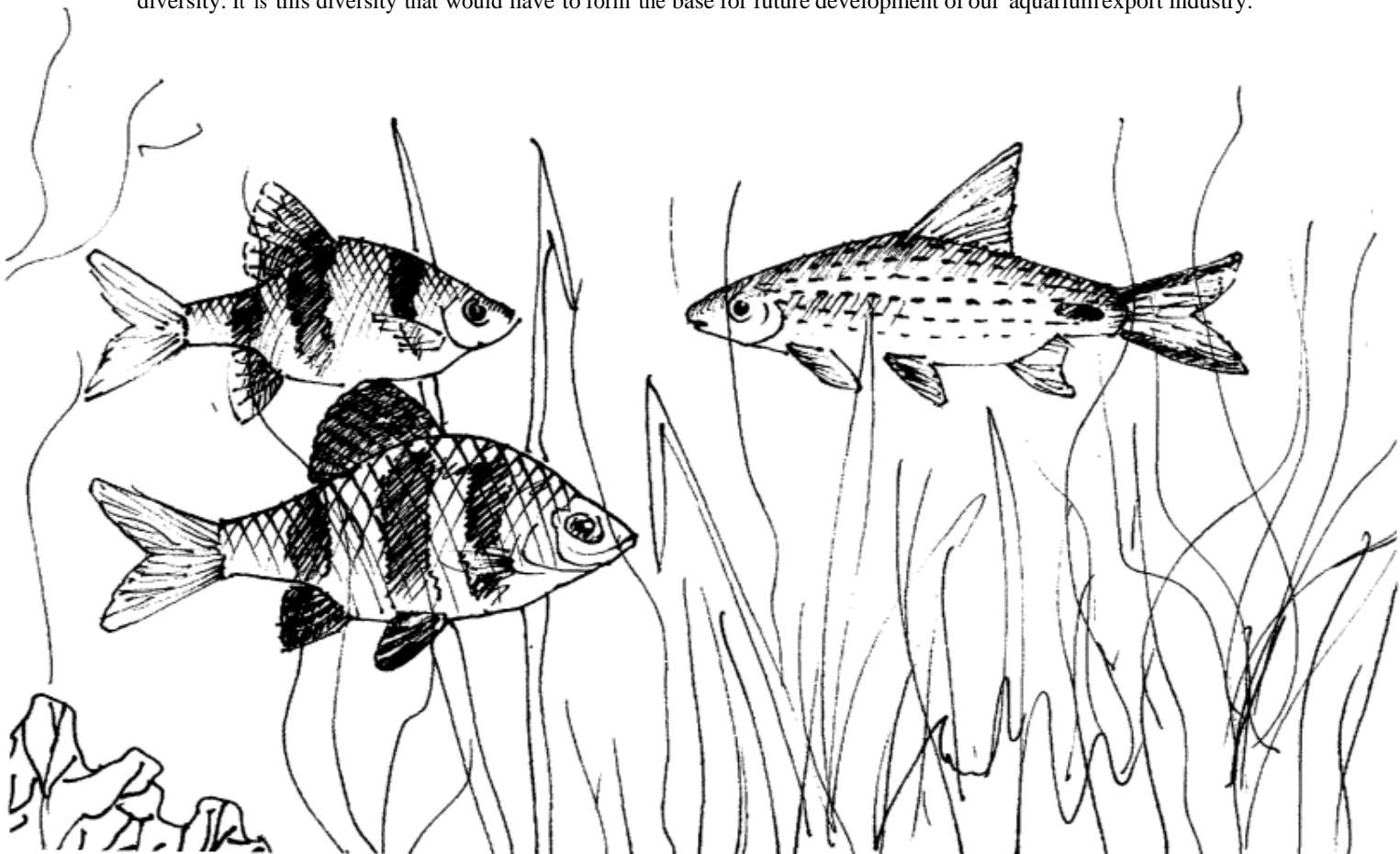
It is common practice among collectors to target the more attractive individuals, even within a species, that fetch a higher market price. Thus some of the most colourful morphs are selectively targeted for wild collection. This has led to a reduction in brightly coloured populations, such as the rust coloured and “neon” blue-finned *Belontia signala*. Other species also suffer from such selective exploitation; that can impoverish their genetic diversity.

It is noteworthy that many aquarists have embarked on programmes of captive breeding of our endemic/indigenous fish species used for the export aquarium trade (Dawes, 1998). Considerable work has also been done in this regard at the Universities of Sri Jayawardenapura and Ruhuna as well as by Mr J Chandrasoma (Chardrasoma, 1994, 1996). These trends have led to successes with several species such as *Puntius nigrofasciatus*, *P. titteya*, *P. cumunigii* while initial successes and development of breeding in other species have also been reported (e.g. Chandrarathna *et al.*, 1998).

There are signs of over-collection of some species as well as over-collection of some sizes of certain species, as reported in Section 6 of this Report.

Habitat destruction as well as habitat change are taking place in relation to freshwater habitats. Clearing of shade along wet zone streams affects many endemic fishes since most are shade-loving species that live in shallow streams. Increased siltation, sediment load and pollution and reduction in water quantity are also disturbing trends that are discussed further below.

Another alarming trend bringing about change in Sri Lanka’s freshwaters and which would affect the aquarium trade, relates to the increase of many exotic species in our freshwaters. Apart from the introduced tilapias having extensively colonised the island’s freshwaters, more numbers of species that have been brought into the country by the aquarium retail trade (which includes destructive carnivores) are increasingly finding their way into freshwater habitats and are said to be breeding therein. The resulting predation and competition would eventually affect our freshwater biological diversity. It is this diversity that would have to form the base for future development of our aquarium export industry.



SECTION 5

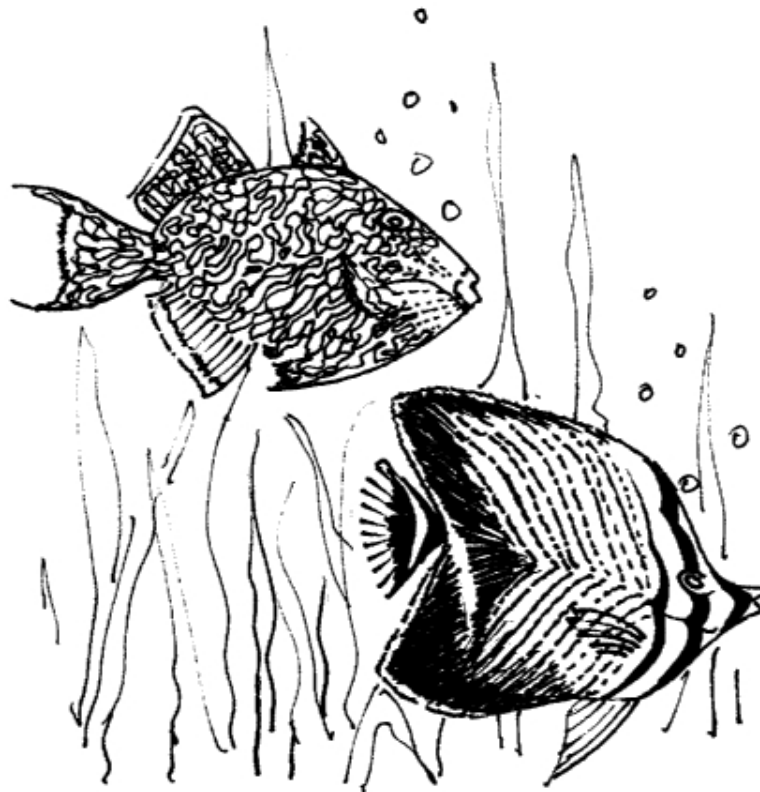
Trends in the Marine Aquarium Trade

Dwindling supplies of ornamental fish from the wild are sending collectors to areas deeper and further offshore. Thus, the use of SCUBA gear for collection is becoming commonplace though it is a dangerous trend because very few divers receive even basic training in the use of SCUBA. The unprecedented coral bleaching that has been recently experienced in Sri Lanka (Ekaratne and Jinendradasa, 1998) and much of the Indo-Pacific region would bring about changes in the reef and coastal ecosystems, the nature of which we are as yet unable to predict. Personal observations in Sri Lanka have indicated a shift in reef-associated fish and invertebrate composition since coral bleaching occurred in April 1998.

There is a clear trend towards expansion of the trade to include more species (from 139 species in 1985 to over 200 species in 1995); (sources: Wood, 1985, page 86 and Customs returns, respectively) and to export increased numbers of fish (from about 200,000 in 1985 to about 1,000,000 in 1995 (sources: Wood, 1985, p. 80 and Customs returns, respectively). Import of fish is also an increasing trend for transshipment. For example, imports of marine aquarium fish from Maldives to Sri Lanka have increased from 11,940 specimens in 1989 to 203,587 in 1994 (Adam, 1997).

Marine organisms constituted about 80% of exported live organisms in 1984-1985 (Wood, 1985, p.79). In 1995, ten years from this last recorded time, marine fish exports made up 67% of exported fish (data from Customs returns).

Sediment load, pollution and habitat destruction are increasing. These are discussed in greater detail in later Sections (Sections 8 and 9.1.1) of this Report.



SECTION 6

Status of the Freshwater Fish Resources and Habitats

6.1 Exported freshwater fish

Fifty nine species of wild-caught freshwater fish exported from Sri Lanka are presently catalogued in this Report (listed in Table 6.1; see Annex 1 for their commonly used English and Sinhala names).

This number, however, is variable, depending on the quantities that are economically harvestable. Some species will not be collected for export since an export order has to contain a certain minimum number of individuals. The exporter should be able to supply his overseas client on a regular basis. This means reliable supplies of the right quantity have to be ensured. Thus, depending on the period under consideration, statistics on the number of species exported would vary (e.g., number of exported species is 61 in Gunasekera, 1998).

In analyzing the status of exported indigenous freshwater fish, Gunasekera (1998) speaks of "the dangerous trend of uncontrolled export which would lead to the possible extinction of some of these species". Any such trend must be arrested to ensure the sustainability of the export trade.

The case of *Puntius bandula* illustrates how the long-term sustainability of the trade depends on a healthy and regenerating population. Although "large numbers (of this species) have been collected live for the aquarium fish trade since its discovery (Gunawardena, 1998), it is now a very rare, critically endangered species (Gunasekera, 1998). Some of its biological and ecological aspects, including aquarium breeding aspects, have been discussed by Gunawardena (1998). It is said that *P. bandula* is not presently exported because numbers found in the wild are low. For this species, "no collecting was reported in 1997 and upto March 1998", although "over 150 individuals have been collected on a single day in February 1995" (Gunawardena, 1998), when its collection was already prohibited (Viz., from 1993: Fauna & Flora Protection Ordinance, Amendment No. 48 of 1993) – illustrating the lack of effective monitoring against unwarranted and illegal collection.

Table 6.1 List of Sri Lankan freshwater wild-caught fish species that are exported from Sri Lanka

1. *Anguilla bicolor*
2. *Chela laubuca*
3. *Danio malabaricus*
4. *Daniopathirana*
5. *Esomus thermoicos*
6. *Garra ceylonensis*
7. *Puntius amphibius*
8. *Puntius asoka*
9. *Puntius bimaculatus*
10. *Puntius chola*
11. *Puntius cumingii*
12. *Puntius dorsalis*
13. *Puntius filamentosus*
14. *Puntius nigrofasciatus*

Contd

15. *Puntius pleurotaenia*
16. *Puntius ticto*
17. *Puntius titteya*
18. *Puntius vittatus*
19. *Rasbora daniconius*
20. *Rasbora vaterifloris*
21. *Lepidocephalichthys thermalis*
22. *Acanthocobitis urophthalmus*
23. *Schistura notostigma*
24. *Mystus gulio*
25. *Mystus keletius*
26. *Mystus vittatus*
27. *Ompok bimaculatus*
28. *Heteropneustes fossilis*
29. *Orzias melastigma*
30. *Aplocheilus dayi*
31. *Aplocheilus parvus*
32. *Aplocheilus weneri*
33. *Microphis brachyurus*
34. *Monodactylus argenteus*
35. *Toxotes chatareus*
36. *Scarophagus argus*
37. *Etroplus maculatus*
38. *Etroplus suratensis*
39. *Butis butis*
40. *Eleotrisfusca*
41. *Glossogobius giuris*
42. *Redigobius balteatops*
43. *Schismatogobius deraniyagalai*
44. *Sicyopterus griseus*
45. *Sicyopus jonklaasi*
46. *Anabas testudineus*
47. *Belontia signata*
48. *Ma/pulutta kretseri*
49. *Pseudosphromenus cupanus*
50. *Channa orientalis*

Contd

51. *Channa striata*
52. *Mastaceinbelus armarus*
53. *Tetraodon fluvialaris*

Fish species in limited demand in the aquarium trade (Pethiyagoda. 1991)

54. *Puntius sarana*
55. *Rasbora caverii*
56. *Clarias brachysoma* - **endemic**
57. *Zenarchopterus dispar*
58. *Sicyopus jonklaasi* - **endemic, rare**

Fish species that are used rarely because of low numbers

59. *Xenentodon cancila*

Although this report lists only 59 species that are exported, lists and statistics in various fishery research institutes name some other species as well. After studying a number of such lists, perusing export lists at Customs and comparing these with other literature, I have excluded some species from Table 6.1. Some of those excluded species, and the reasons for such exclusion, are cited in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Freshwater fish species not included as exports in Table 6.1

Species earlier exported in the aquarium trade but now apparently no longer exported

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|--|
| <i>Puntius bandula</i> | - | endemic, highly threatened, critically endangered |
| <i>Macrognathus aral</i> | - | has not been recorded in Sri Lanka for the past 10 years, possibly extinct now; is still rarely recorded in export lists but the exported species is probably <i>Mastacembalus armatus</i> |

Fish whose taxonomic status is unclear, but is used in aquarium trade

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Danio aequipinnatus</i> | - | this species is commonly confused with <i>Danio malabaricus</i> |
|----------------------------|---|---|

Fish species that have entered export statistics but are probably cases of mistaken identity

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Anguilla nebulosa</i> | - | probably misidentified for <i>Anguilla bicolor</i> |
| <i>Gymnothorax polvuranodon</i> | - | probably mislabelled intentionally for marine moray eel species, since this species is very rare in freshwaters |
| <i>Garra phillipsi</i> | - | probably misidentified for <i>Garra ceylonensis</i> |
| <i>Microphis ocellatus</i> | - | this is not well known since its habitat is among marginal vegetation, probably misidentified for <i>Microphis brachyurus</i> |

Some introduced species that are sometimes caught from the wild for use in the export trade

- Xiphophorus helleri*
Trichogaster pectoralis
Osphronemus goramy

6.2 Status of exported species

Of the 59 export species listed in Table 6.1, one species (*Xenentodon cancila*) is not exported on a regular basis. Another five species (*viz.*, *Puntius sarana*, *Rasbora caverii*, *Clarias brachysoma*, *Zenarchopterus dispar* and *Sicyopus jonklaasi*) are not in high demand (Pethiyagoda, 1991). That means 53 species are regularly exported and form the mainstay of this industry at present.

Of the 53 species regularly exported, 23 species are in heavy demand and are therefore exported in large numbers (Table 6.3), while 16 species and 14 species are exported in moderate (Table 6.4) and low numbers (Table 6.5), respectively.

The above categorisation of exported species into heavy, moderate and low numbers is based primarily on forms filed with the Customs authorities for 1995 and 1996, where 751,454 individual freshwater indigenous fish were recorded as having been exported. Although it is argued that these may not be accurate figures, they reflect the best estimate available from official records. Admittedly, Customs statistics (like all statistics) are only as good as the returns filed by exporters, and the accuracy with which exporters document their exports. In deciding the categories, these numbers were not the only criterion, discussions with the persons in the trade and with Customs personnel were other criteria.

Accordingly, species that were exported in numbers exceeding 5000 individuals as shown in Customs records over the two years were categorised as “heavily exported” species. Species such as *Rasbora daniconius* did not meet this criterion, but was still classified as a “heavily exported” species based on discussions – which again highlighted the drawback of using only the sheets lodged with Customs. “Moderately exported” species were those that were exported in numbers between 1,000 and 5,000 individuals over the 2-year period. “Low” exports were species that recorded exported numbers below 1,000 individuals.

Freshwater aquarium fish exports during 1995 & 1996

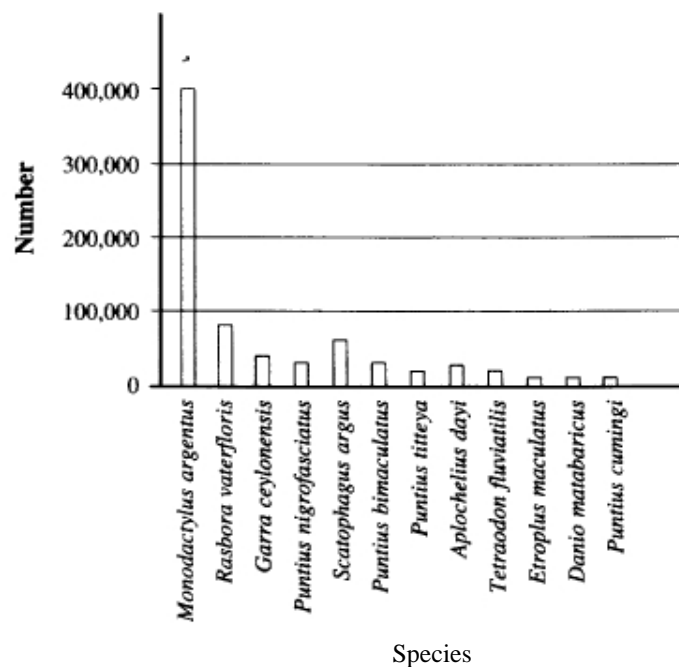


Figure 6.1 Major indigenous fish species exported in the freshwater aquarium trade

The 12 fish species, based on Customs records, that were most heavily exported in 1995 and 1996 are shown, along with exported numbers, in Figure 6.1.

Monodactylus argenteus (a brackish water species) is the single non-endemic species that is exported in the largest quantities. *Rasbora vaterifloris*, *Puntius nigrofasciatus* and *Puntius titteya* include heavily exported threatened endemics, while *Puntius binwculatus* and *Aplocheilus dayi* are among the threatened indigenous species that are heavily exported. In the case of the heavily exported *Puntius cumingii*, it may be the attractively coloured individuals that could face a threat. The export of endemic protected species is permitted for aquarium-bred individuals.

Gunasekera (1995), used Customs records to analyse indigenous fish species exported by a leading exporter from June to December 1984 and found similar trends in exports. He said the most heavily exported species included *Puntius titteya* (22%), *P. nigrofasciatus* (18%) and *Rasbora vaterifloris* (37%). The other heavily exported species at that time were *P. cumingii* (12%) and *Belontia signata* (11%).

Table 6.3 summarises the status of the heavily utilised fish. It shows that, in addition to the five species that are among the most heavily collected, *Lepidocephalichthys thermalis* is also collected in large numbers. But its populations seem to be satisfactory as of now though *P. asoka* population sizes are said to have thinned. Of the two *Aplocheilus* species, *A. dayi* is collected in larger numbers but seems to be maintaining a satisfactory population; whereas *Aplocheilus wernerii* seems to have suffered, with larger individuals becoming less abundant. Similar effects on population structure have been discernible in *Toxotes chatareus*, *Monodactylus argenteus* and *Scatophagus argus*, although scientific studies would be needed to confirm (or negate) these preliminary observations. It must be kept in mind that the two latter species are also caught in fishing gear used for edible species. The reduction in the more colourful individuals in *Belontia signata*, *Puntius bimaculatus*, *P. cumingii*, *P. nigrofasciatus* and *P. titteya* seems to indicate that population characteristics have changed as a result of the selective fish collection carried out for the export trade (S Gunasekera, pers. com.).

Table 6.3 Heavily utilised Sri Lankan wild-caught freshwater fish species, their status and notes of interest, such as distribution and indicative population condition. *Some details of geographic distribution can be found in the notes for individual species, given in Section 6.5*

1. *Chela laubuca* - a common fish that is easily bred
2. *Danjo malabaricus* - a fish of very common occurrence, very widely distributed
3. *Garra ceylonensis* - common and quite widely distributed
4. *Puntius asoka* - An endemic species that is becoming scarce, very restricted in distribution.
5. *Puntius bimaculatus* - An endemic species that is common, although the more colourful specimens that are selectively collected for export may be under intense threat.
6. *Puntius cumingii* - An endemic species that is not uncommon, but the more colourful specimens that are selectively collected for export may be under intense threat.
7. *Puntius dorsalis* - not always caught in large numbers. Only the more colourful individuals are selected for export.
8. *Puntius filamentosus* - smaller individuals are used, but it is a common widely distributed species.
9. *Puntius nigrofasciatus* - an endemic species which is very **heavily exploited** in the aquarium trade, particularly its colourful individuals. Since it is easily bred in captivity, popularisation of **breeding** methods for this species would lead eventually to cessation of wild collection of this species in large numbers.

10. *Puntius titteva* - an endemic whose colour varieties are much in demand. Although the species is quite visible, sought-after colour varieties are rapidly declining. Since breeding is not difficult, suitable breeding programmes must be established and popularised without undue delay.
11. *Rasbora daniconius* – is an extremely common widely distributed indigenous species
12. *Rasbora vaterifloris* – is heavily threatened by overfishing and by bad handling after capture. Many juveniles die after capture and some are returned to the water, only adults being selected for sale. Ecological studies, population estimates, conservation measures including better handling and transport techniques and breeding methods need to be speedily **adopted** for this species.
13. *Lepidocephala/ichthys thermalis* – is a very common indigenous species that appears to be under no apparent threat. It is, however, very heavily collected; its breeding biology is completely unknown; it merits some ecological study.
14. *Acanthobitis urophthalmus* – an endemic species that is not widely distributed. Ecological, biological and population data are lacking. It does not appear to be under immediate threat, but **compilation of a data base** for this species is desirable, because its characteristics, so far as is known together, with heavy fishing pressure, do not bode well for the species.
15. *Aplocheilichthys davi* – an endemic species that is collected in large numbers. *Aplocheilichthys* species naming in export lists may not be accurate, so that mixed species may be exported.
16. *Aplocheilichthys werneri* – an endemic fish whose population structure appears to be affected by collections for the aquarium trade. Since it is not widely distributed, it would seem appropriate to conduct population studies to assess its population status.
17. *Monodactylus argenteus* – an indigenous fish collected from estuarine habitats where the size of the exported stock has recorded a decline in recent years (to a 2cm to 5cm size), probably as a direct result of over-collection.
18. *Toxotes chatareus* – an indigenous species under heavy collection pressure, with difficulty now being experienced to find specimens larger than 15cm in size.
19. *Scatophagus argus* – a heavily fished estuarine indigenous species, whose export size seems to have decreased over the years.
20. *Etroplus maculatus* – an indigenous species that is common, though perhaps in reduced quantities. No reliable population estimates are available.
21. *Etroplus suratensis* – an indigenous common species whose smaller sizes are exported.
22. *Belonria signata* – an endemic species whose bright colour varieties have decreased greatly due to over collection and requires restriction of collection, as well as popularisation of breeding methods.
23. *Tetraodon fluviarilis* – a heavily fished indigenous puffer that is quite common and found in greater abundance in estuaries.

Table 6.4. Moderately utilised Sri Lankan wild-caught freshwater fish species

1. *Danio pathirana*
2. *Esomus thermoicos*
3. *Puntius pleurotaenia*
4. *Puntius ticto*
5. *Puntius vittatus*
6. *Schistura notostigma*

Contd

7. *Mystus vittatus*
8. *Heteropneustes fossilis*
9. *Aplocheilus parvus*
10. *Microphis brachyurus*
11. *Redigobius ba/teatops*
12. *Schismatogobius deraniyagalai*
13. *Malpulutta kretseri*
14. *Pseudosphromenus cupanus*
15. *Channa orientalis*
16. *Mastacembelus armatus*

Table 6.5 Sri Lankan wild-caught freshwater fish species that are exported in low numbers

1. *Anguilla bicolor*
2. *Puntius amphibius*
3. *Puntius chola*
4. *Mystus guio*
5. *Mystus keletius*
6. *Ompok bimaculatus*
7. *Oryzias melastigma*
8. *Butis butis*
9. *Eleotrisfusca*
10. *Glossogobius giuris*
11. *Sicyopterus grisseus*
12. *Sicyopus jonklaasi*
13. *Anabas testudineus*
14. *Channa striata*

Of the 27 endemic freshwater fish species, 20 are used in the aquarium export trade (Table 6.6)

6.3 Status of exported endemic species

Of the Ca. 80 species of indigenous freshwater fish in Sri Lanka, approximately 27 are endemic. Of the 27 endemic freshwater fish species, 20 are presently being used in the aquarium export trade (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6 summarises the status of the exploited endemic species. It is apparent that the lack of quantitative population data restricts any detailed analysis or recommendations that should be made. Even so, some of the available data allow for a broad analysis whereby starting points for future work can be identified.

With regard to some species, only small populations are present (e.g. Gunasekera, 1998 and personal observations). These species require immediate measures to be adopted for their conservation and management: *Danio pathirana*, *Puntius asoka*. In *Aplocheilus werneri* only relatively small populations have so far been discovered, so that conservation

measures are necessary here too. In other species, very low numbers are present in the wild (*Sicyopusjonklaasi*). In *Puntius asoka*, *Puntius cuningii*, *Punrius nigrofasciatus*, *Puntius titteya* and *Rasbora vaterifloris* the populations present require management/conservation measures due to the heavy collections that are ongoing. Colour varieties of *Puntius bimaculatus*, *Puntius cuningii*, *Puntius nigrofasciatus*, *Puntius titteya* and *Belontia signata* are being very heavily collected. These would lead to deleterious effects on the gene pool. The effect of size-targeted collections for export are in evidence for populations of species such as *Aplocheilus weneri* and *Malpulutra kretseri*. These could eventually lead to population decline.

Table 6.6 Status of endemic Sri Lankan freshwater fish species that are caught in the wild for utilisation in the aquarium export industry, and notes of interest such as distribution, abundance, threatened status and measures that could be adopted for their sustainable management and conservation

1. *Danio pathirana* – abundant where it occurs, but only in a single area in the Nilwala River basin. Therefore conservation and captive breeding measures and ecological studies are essential.
2. *Esomus thermoicos* – possibly an endemic species, its status is still not fully resolved. This species does not seem to be under threat at present as it is common.
3. *Garra ceylonensis* – commonly found species, especially in the wet zone, not under immediate threat.
4. *Puntius asoka* – Very restricted, heavily fished and under threat. **Requires** conservation measures and studies.
5. *Puntius bimaculatus* – Although heavily utilised in the aquarium trade, populations of this species are not presently under threat, other than for the more attractively coloured individuals that may require some protective measures..
6. *Puntius cuningii* – An endemic species that is not uncommon, but the more colourful specimens that are selectively collected for export require management.
7. *Puntius nigrofasciatus* – An endemic species which is **very heavily collected and** exported, especially its colourful individuals.
8. *Puntius pleurotaenia* – An endemic that is caught in moderate numbers for export.
9. *Puntius titteya* – An endemic whose colourful varieties are in high demand; possibly overfished.
10. *Rasbora vaterifloris* – **A much threatened** endemic species facing multiple threats from over-collection for the export trade, deforestation and declining water quality arising from pollution.
11. *Acanthocobitis urophthalmus* – a much sought-after endemic that is common locally, but hitherto has been able to stave off drastic population decline.
12. *Schistura notostigma* – a moderately sought after species that seems not to be in much danger.
13. *Aplocheilus dayi* – heavily fished, but seems able to sustain fishery pressure at present.
14. *Aplocheilus weneri* – heavily fished, populations seem to show the effects of size-specific collections for export.
15. *Schismatogobius deraniyagalai* – this endemic species is moderately fished from its only known locality. Great care must be exercised and conservation measures adopted until new populations are discovered.
16. *Sicyopusjonklaasi* – a rare gobiid exported in very low numbers.
17. *Belontia signata* – heavily collected bright colour morphs have almost disappeared and require restriction of collection and the employment of captive breeding methods.
18. *Malpulutta kretseri* – collection for the aquarium trade is hampered by the low numbers of its population which requires protection. Also, smaller sizes are now present in the wild.

19. *Channa orientalis* – it is not collected in large numbers for export, but together with habitat destruction, its populations are on the decline.
20. *Clarias brachysoma* – this endemic catfish is exported in limited numbers.

6.4 Status of threatened species

IUCN (1994) listed 19 species as threatened. In a later version of the IUCN list (1996), the number of endemic species under the “threatened” status was reduced to eight. A number of persons and organisations have questioned the validity of this reduction (e.g. Ranasinghe and Samarasinghe, 1997) and demanded that IUCN revise this reduced list (Editor’s Note in Gunasekera, 1998). It seemed therefore pertinent to consider the species in the 1994 list.

Of the 19 species contained in the 1994 IUCN list, 18 species are exported. Only one of them (*Sicyopterus grisseus*) is not an endemic species. The status of all the 18 exported threatened species is summarised in Table 6.7. The status of all, except *Sicyopterus griseus*, has been discussed further in the previous sub-section and shall therefore not be repeated here. *Sicyopterus griseus* is exported, if at all, in very low numbers since it is rare in the wild.

The status of freshwater fish species with regard to factors such as availability, distribution and populations has been succinctly reviewed in Gunasekera (1998) and Ranasinghe and Samarasinghe (1997). Although their work is not based on detailed scientific studies, I think it is more useful to take note of it than disregard it. It may induce or stimulate more scientific investigation later by some other researcher or research institution. One should point out that the universally accepted IUCN criteria for risk categorisation seems to be based on similar guiding principles in accepting practical realities needed for common property resource management (e.g., “An observed, estimated, inferred or suspected reduction) (in population)”: IUCN, 1996. NARA is theoretically correct in its stand that “proper studies” are needed for scientific analysis (NARA, 1998).

Table 6.7 Status of the 18 exported freshwater fish species that are under threat

1. *Danio pathirana* – abundant where it occurs, but is extremely localised only to a single area in the Nilwala River basin. Therefore conservation and captive breeding measures and ecological studies are essential. Is an endemic species.
2. *Garra ceylonensis* – commonly found endemic species, specially in the wet zone, not under immediate threat.
3. *Puntius asoka* – very restricted endemic, heavily fished and under threat. Requires conservation measures and studies.
4. *Puntius bimaculatus* – although this species is heavily utilised in the aquarium trade, populations of this species are not presently under threat, other than for the more attractive **colour varieties that may require some protective measures**.
6. *Puntius cumingii* – an endemic species that is not uncommon, but the more colourful specimens that are selectively collected for export may require proper management measures.
7. *Puntius nigrofasciatus* – an endemic species which is very heavily collected and exported, specially its colourful varieties.
8. *Puntius p/eurotaenia* – a possible endemic that is caught in moderate numbers for export.
9. *Puntius titteya* – an endemic whose colourful varieties are in high demand and is possibly overfished.
10. *Rasbora vaterifloris* – a much threatened endemic species facing multiple threats from over-collection for the export trade, deforestation and declining water quality arising from pollution.

11. *Acanthocobitis urophthalmus* – a much sought after endemic loach that is not common, but seemingly able to stave off drastic population decline.
12. *Schistura norostigma* – a moderately sought after endemic species which seems not to be in much danger.
13. *Aplocheilus davi* – heavily fished endemic, but seems able to sustain the fishing pressure at present.
14. *Aplocheilus weneri* – heavily fished endemic, populations seem to be beginning to show the effects of size-specific collections for export.
15. *Schismatogobius deranivagalai* – this endemic species is moderately fished from its only known locality. Great care must be exercised and conservation measures adopted until new populations are discovered.
16. *Sicyopterus griseus* – is an indigenous fish that is caught in very low numbers or hardly at all as it very rare.
17. *Belontia signata* – heavily collected bright colour morphs have almost disappeared and require restriction of collection and the employment of captive breeding methods.
18. *Channa orientalis* – it is not collected in large numbers for export, but together with habitat destruction, its populations are on the decline.

Table 6.8 Threatened freshwater fish species of Sri Lanka

(Species included in the 1994 IUCN Red List of Threatened Animals are denoted by * - The 1996 IUCN List contains fewer species, denoted by • with which some conservationists disagree. See text above for details)

Cypriniformes

*Puntius titteya**

Puntius nigrofasciatus •

P. srilankensis •

P. pleurotaenia

P. bimaculatus

*P.asoka**

P.bandula•

P.martenstyni•

Rasbora vaterifloris •

*R.wilpita**

*Labeofisheri**.

Garra ceylonensis

*G. phillpsi**

Schistura notostigma

Acanthocobitis urophthalmus

Contd

Horadandiya atukorali

*Lepidocephalichthys jonklaasi**

*Danio pathirana**

Perciformes

Sicyopus jonklaasi

*Schismatogobius deraniyagalai**

Sicyopterus grisseus

*S.halei**

*Malpulutta kretseri**

Belontia signata -

Channiformes

Channa orientalis

Cyprinodontiformes

Aplocheilus dayi

A.weneri

Siluriformes

*Heteropneustes microps** - junior synonym of *H.fossilis*

Source: IUCN (1994, 1996)

6.5 Biology, ecology, distribution and populations of exported freshwater fish

(numbers 1 to 54 in this Section refer to the 54 species for which data are presented)

1. *Anguilla bicolor*

This is one of two indigenous species belonging to the order Anguilliformes (true eels). This species grows in freshwater. When it is ready to breed, it will undergo a metamorphosis involving the build-up of adipose tissue, enlargement of eyes and loss of its dark colour (thereafter called “silver eels”). Following metamorphosis, it will migrate to the sea where it will breed, producing glassy leaf-shaped leptocephali larvae. Leptocephali will then grow and, in coastal waters, metamorphose into transparent, large-headed eel-like forms called elvers. The elvers enter estuaries and travel upriver into freshwaters.

The detailed biology of Sri Lankan eels is as yet unreported, other than for elvers having been reported in the sea off Manaar (Deraniyagala, 1952) and observed in the estuaries at Panadura, Kalutara and Rekawa (personal observations). The University of Ruhuna is conducting studies on the biology of Sri Lankan eels (R. Kumaranatunga, pers. comm.).

The eel is nocturnal and carnivorous, feeding on fish, crustaceans and molluscs. It is a pest in lagoon prawn fisheries where eels will prey heavily on prawns caught in gill nets (personal observations, Rekawa lagoon). It prefers marshy habitats. It is very common and widely distributed especially in the coastal areas.

The species and larvae are discussed by Deraniyagala (1929, 1931) and various aspects are summarised by Pethiyagoda (1991).

Only small numbers of smaller-sized specimens of *Anguilla bicolor* are used in the aquarium trade. This species is not presently under threat.

2. *chela laubuca*

Chela laubuca is an indigenous, common, widely distributed species. It is distributed almost throughout the dry zone, except perhaps the Walawe basin (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It also extends into the lowland parts of the wet zone. It occupies an upper to mid-depth position in both shallow and deeper slow to fast-flowing streams and also occurs in ponds and tanks. Commonly shoals in schools of 15 to 30 individuals.

It is a hardy species that feeds mainly on insects (Costa and Fernando, 1967) while taking also stems and leaves (Pethiyagoda, 1991). They spawn easily and mating takes place at dusk or dawn in shallow waters. The 30 or so eggs that are spawned hatch in about 24 hours.

Although wet zone specimens of this species are heavily utilised in the aquarium trade (Pethiyagoda, 1991), populations of this species are not presently under threat.

3. *Danio malabaricus*

Dania inalaharicus is a common, indigenous species that enjoys a very wide distribution from the dry and wet zone lowlands up to the central highlands. It is common in flowing waters but is found in various habitats from tanks, reservoirs and small pools in streams to torrential mountain streams. It is a fast swimmer, preferring the mid-waters.

It is a hardy fish, feeding on terrestrial insects and detritus (Moyle and Senanayake, 1984). Over 200 light orange-coloured slightly sticky eggs are spawned among marginal weeds and roots, usually after heavy rains. They hatch in one to two days and become free-swimming in about five days (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

Although heavily utilised in the aquarium trade, populations of this species are not presently under threat.

4. *Danio pathirana*

Danio pathirana is a recently described (in 1990) endemic species that has a very restricted distribution in the Nilwala River basin and is not sympatric with the very widely distributed *Danio malabaricus*. It occurs in pools and in swift-flowing areas of streams with a pebble or boulder substrate frequenting near-surface waters and swimming slowly in groups of between three to five individuals (Pethiyagoda, 1991; Kottelat and Pethiyagoda, 1990).

Its food habits are not known. Pethiyagoda (1991) has expressed the opinion that it is probably an insectivore. Its breeding biology and ecology are not well known either. It could be adversely impacted by high loads of silt.

It is said (Pethiyagoda, 1991) that aquarium fish exporters voluntarily refrained from collecting this species earlier. But it is now collected in "moderate numbers".

Since the species is found in very restricted locations, it is necessary to breed it in captivity for the aquarium trade as well as to adopt conservation measures for its protection (Pethiyagoda, 1991). Ecological studies on this species need to be carried out.

5. ***Esomus thermoicos***

This is a widely distributed fish preferring to inhabit muddy pools of the low country dry and wet zones, though it is said to be more abundant in the north eastern dry zone waters (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It is a fast swimmer and has a tendency to leap out of aquaria.

Esomus thermoicos feeds on insect larvae, small worms and crustaceans. It is bred easily and spawns about 150 light grey-coloured semi-adhesive eggs in several batches onto floating or marginal vegetation within a period of about one hour (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

The species is moderately utilised in the aquarium trade but appears to be in no danger as large populations are reported to be widely distributed.

6. ***Garra ceylonensis***

It is an endemic species that frequents the bottoms of rocky or pebble-laden pools or streams. It is widely distributed in both dry and wet zones but is common in the wet zone. It is the only species recorded from many high-elevation hill streams (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

The diet of *Garra ceylonensis* consists mainly of diatoms and detritus (Costa and Fernando, 1967) that it probably scrapes off rocks. The breeding biology of the species is not well known, other than that it ascends small rocky streams to breed and that young fish are free-swimming until they reach about 5cm in length, at which stage they become benthic (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

Garra ceylonensis is used in moderate to heavy numbers in the aquarium trade, but it is common and does not appear to be under immediate threat.

7. ***Puntius amphibius***

This indigenous species is distributed mainly in the wet zone and extends into the coastal dry zone also where it is not uncommon, though not found in large-sized populations (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It is said to tolerate salinity, occurring in coastal marshes. It occurs in streams and tanks in the dry zone and in gravel or pebble lined streams in the wet zone.

Puntius amphibius feeds on detritus, algae (Prem Kumar et al., 1987) and other vegetation. It breeds after the rains, spawning among vegetation in shallow water.

The species is sparingly used in the aquarium trade and its populations are not under threat.

8. ***Puntius asoka***

Puntius asoka is an endemic species whose numbers have declined in the recent past. It is highly restricted in distribution and occurs only in a few locations in and around the Sitawaka River and in a restricted part of the Kelani River. It is a fast swimmer. Juveniles shoal only in shallow, shaded, sand-substrate parts of the river. Adults prefer 1 to 2m depths having sandy or gravelly substrates whereas schools of juveniles comprising 30 to 100 individuals frequent very shallow water.

The diet and breeding biology of the species are not known.

Puntius asoka is popular with the aquarium fish exporters. In view of its dwindling population, it requires conservation measures and studies into its biology and ecology.

9. *Puntius bimaculatus*

Puntius bimaculatus is not considered to be an endemic species. It is common, widely distributed throughout the island but is common in the wet zone, being recorded as one of the few fish that ascends montane streams above 1,500m elevation (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It frequents all types of habitats, from tanks and rivers to hill streams.

In food habits, it is a substrate feeder, feeding on diatoms, filamentous algae, green algae and detritus (Geisler, 1967; De Silva, Kortmulder and Wijeratne, 1977; Moyle and Senanayake, 1984). It spawns several batches of about 100 eggs amongst weeds in shallow water after the onset of rains. The eggs hatch after about 48 hours, and fry are free-swimming after one or two days (De Silva et al., 1985).

The more colourful individuals are heavily used in the aquarium trade. Even though the species itself is evidently not under threat, some have expressed concern that such individuals would be lost from the gene pool if remedial measures are not speedily adopted.

10. *Punlius chola*

This indigenous species is found in streams, rivers and tanks in both dry and wet zone lowlands, though it is now common in the dry zone. It is a shallow water dweller, preferring a silty substrate and is abundantly found at dry zone tank sluices.

It is an omnivorous browser in feeding habits, preferring zoobenthos (Schiemer and Hofer, 1983) and adult insects, zooplankton, insect larvae, fish eggs and micro-benthos (Piet and Guruge, 1997). It breeds following the rains and spawns among the vegetation.

Puntius Chola is a hardy fish that is utilised in small numbers in the aquarium trade.

11. *Puntius cuningii*

Puntius cuningii is an endemic species found in the Kelani and Kalu Rivers only, preferring flowing waters, with the red-finned (Kelani) morphs occurring in slow flowing water in mud or silt substrates of marshy areas adjacent to the Kelani valley foothills. The yellow finned variety prefers flowing waters with sand to boulder substrates. It is found in the Kalu River and in more southerly areas. *Puntius cuningii* inhabits the water layer near the bottom where it is present in medium-sized shoals.

It is a hardy species, feeding on green algae, plankton and detritus (Giesler, 1967). *Puntius cuningii* matures at about a 3cm length (De Silva and Kortmulder, 1977) with yellow individuals being larger than red individuals, spawning after the rains where the spawn of 100 eggs hatch in about one day and develop into free-swimming fry after about 24 hours (De Silva et al., 1985).

The introduction of this fish, along with three other species, to the Mahaweli at Ginigathena by Moyle and Senanayake (on 4th February 1981: Evans, 1981) is highly questionable and illustrates the dangers of short sighted translocation experiments, where the long-term conservation interests of a species assemblage had not been properly addressed.

The species is caught heavily for the aquarium trade. Though it is not uncommon, the selective harvesting of the more colourful varieties, such as the red-finned varieties, imposes a threat to their gene pool.

12. *Puntius dorsalis*

This an indigenous common species which is widely distributed in the island, except in the montane area. It prefers flowing waters having pebbles where it stays close to the bottom layers. Its diet consists of algae, diatoms, detritus, higher plants, insects and zoobenthos (Fernando, 1965; Costa and Fernando, 1967; Giesler, 1967; Schiemer and Hofer, 1983; Moyle and Senanayake, 1984; Piet and Guruge, 1997). Spawning occurs after the rains when up to 700 small eggs are spawned among vegetation.

Smaller-sized more colourful varieties are collected for the aquarium trade in moderate and sometimes high numbers.

13. *Puntius filamentosus*

This indigenous *Puntius* species is widely distributed up to about 600m elevation, occurring mainly in flowing water but extending into still and brackish waters (Pethiyagoda, 1991). Its diet consist of crustaceans, diatoms and filamentous algae (Moyle and Senanayake, 1984). In breeding, 500 to 1,000 eggs are spawned around shallow-water vegetation which hatch in about 48 hours and develop into free swimming fry after two days.

Smaller specimens are heavily utilised for the export trade, but it is a common, widely distributed species not requiring stringent protective measures at present.

14. *Puntius nigrofasciatus*

Puntius nigrofasciatus is an endemic species that is not widely distributed since it is restricted to forest streams from Kelani to Nilwala basins, with a preference for hilly areas up to about 300m elevation (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It requires clear, cool shaded stream waters with sandy or gravelly bottoms and may sometimes be found in quiet pools of streams and rivers.

It feeds on filamentous algae and detritus (De Silva and Kortmulder, 1977; Moyle and Senanayake, 1984). Eggs, numbering about a hundred, are spawned onto marginal plants which hatch in one to two days, developing into free-swimming fry a day later (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It is easily bred in captivity (Axelrod, 1967).

This species is very heavily used in the export freshwater fish trade. Although its populations are still abundant in some locations, it should be considered as an endemic species facing risk, particularly with regard to the colour varieties, such as deep red and black varieties, that are collected selectively from some locations. Since *Puntius nigrofasciatus* can be bred easily, popularisation of breeding techniques should take pride of place in evolving conservation measures for this species so that the market for collection of large numbers from the wild would gradually dry up.

15. *Puntius pleurotaenia*

This too is an endemic and not uncommon species, confined to the lower south western hills within the Kelani and Nilwala catchment areas (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It prefers middle layers of the water column and requires clear, heavily shaded streams exceeding 1m in depth, where it tends to form small shoals.

The diet of *Puntius pleurotaenia* consists of filamentous algae, terrestrial insects and detritus (Moyle and Senanayake, 1977). Its breeding habits are unknown, except that maturity is reached at about 64cm (De Silva and Kortmulder, 1977).

The species is caught in moderate numbers for the aquarium trade.

16. *Puntius ticto*

Puntius ticto is indigenous and is distributed widely in tanks and smaller rivers of the northern and eastern dry zone where it frequents the still and shallow marginal areas (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It feeds on crustaceans, insects and plankton and has been bred in captivity where about 150 eggs are laid in batches of about 20. The eggs hatch in a day and develop to free-swimming fry in another day (Axelrod, 1980).

This commonly found species is exploited by the aquarium trade in moderate numbers.

17. *Puntius titteya*

This endemic species is not widely distributed and is confined to heavily shaded, shallow, slow-flowing waters with silty and leaf-debris substrates in the low country wet zone, up to about 300m in elevation (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It has an omnivorous diet consisting of detritus, algae, diatoms, dipterans and animal matter. It has been easily bred in captivity for many years (Axelrod, 1967). It is not a hardy fish. Eggs, numbering about 200, are scattered among marginal vegetation. Hatching occurs in one to two days and free-swimming fry develop two days after hatching. Fry rearing requires careful feeding (with infusoria).

Puntius titteya is very popular among exporters. Specially so are the more colourful individuals, such as the males of the red variety from Nilwala basin. Although the species itself is still not rare, certain colour forms, such as the all red individuals, are extremely difficult to find, and have become rare due to over-collection (S Ghunasekera, pers. com.). The species is rapidly being overfished. Exports therefore should ideally be confined to hatchery-reared individuals. Breeding programmes should be tested with fry food available in Sri Lanka and popularised.

18. *Puntius vittatus*

Puntius vittatus is a very common indigenous species, occurring in water bodies, including brackish waters, in wet and dry zones up to about 300m in elevation. It is an algal feeding herbivore, feeding on filamentous and blue-green algae. This fish species breeds easily and prolifically, spawning about 1,000 eggs that hatch the next day and develop into free swimming fry after one more day.

19. *Rasbora daniconius / caverii*

Rasbora daniconius is very common, widely distributed and one of the most abundant indigenous fishes, occurring mainly in sandy streams and rivers and extending to almost saline water. In distribution it occurs throughout the island at elevations below 500m. It feeds mainly on aquatic insects and detritus and small quantities of macrophytes (Fernando, 1956; Costa and Fernando, 1967; Moyle and Senanayake, 1984; Piet and Guruge, 1997). This species lays about 500 non-adhesive eggs which sink to the bottom to hatch in 36 to 48 hours, the fry becoming free-swimming about two days later (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

Rasbora daniconius is a popularly exported fish species for the aquarium trade, but it is so abundant that no threat is envisaged through aquarium exports.

20. *Rasbora vaterifloris*

Rasbora vaterifloris is an attractive endemic species with restricted distribution in streams of the Kalu River to Nilwala River basins. It requires heavy shade and shallow, cool, clear streams with leaf debris on a silty substrate, and is found in forested areas (Pethiyagoda, 1991). A quiet, retiring fish, it tends to avoid light and frequents mid-regions of the water column.

R. vaterifloris feeds on dipterans, coleopteran larvae, other insects and detritus (Giesler, 1967; Moyle and Senanayake, 1984). It is a prolific breeder, laying several batches of about 20 eggs among submerged marginal vegetation within about a 30-minute period. The eggs sink and hatch in about 36 hours, developing into free-swimming fry on the following day. The young, as are the adults, are very sensitive to water conditions.

This species has several colour varieties. The red, orange, yellow-finned colour varieties are very heavily sought after for the export aquarium trade. It is under heavy threat through over-exploitation by the export trade and requires immediate study and the adoption of conservation measures. Animals that are caught are very sensitive to stress, handling and water conditions, so much so that it is said (Pethiyagoda, 1991) that only about 10% of captured fish survive to the retailing point.

21. *Lepidocephalichthys thermalis*

This indigenous hardy loach is widely distributed in quiet, flowing, unshaded waters with sandy to muddy substrates ranging from coastal areas to elevations of around 600m. It feeds on algae, leaf debris and detritus while its breeding biology is completely unknown.

Collection of this species for the aquarium industry is heavy. But its populations are sufficiently large and widely dispersed, so pressure on the resource can be borne without any apparent signs of population stress.

22. *Acanthocobitis urophthalmus*

Acanthocobitis urophthalmus is an endemic loach that is not very common. Its distribution is restricted to shallow, flowing pebble-bottomed waters of the south western lowlands, up to an elevation of about 300m. Its diet and breeding biology are not known, but it probably feeds on detritus and invertebrates (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

Its body colouration of tiger-like stripes has made it a sought after species for the aquarium trade. Consequently, it is heavily fished. The population status of *Acanthobitis urophthalmus* is not known, though existing populations seem to support the view that it is not under serious threat right now.

23. *Schistura notostigma*

This endemic banded loach is not uncommon in its shallow flowing water habitat which is mainly in the central hills, going up to 1,500m in elevation. It ascends steep inclines and is found in high mountain streams. It is a benthic feeder, taking also trichopterans, ephemeropterans, algae, vegetable matter and detritus (Costa and Fernando, 1967; Moyle and Senanayake, 1984; Pethiyagoda, 1991). Its breeding habits are not known.

Moderately fished for the aquarium trade, the species does not seem to be in imminent danger.

24. *Mystus gulio*

Mystus gulio is an indigenous catfish that is primarily a brackishwater species, extending its range successfully into freshwater. It is found mainly on the coastal plains, up to distance of about 30km inland. It feeds on an invertebrate diet (Piet and Guruge, 1997) and spawns eggs that are attached to vegetation, beyond which its biology is unknown.

The species is collected for the aquarium trade only in small numbers.

25. *Mystus keletius*

This indigenous catfish species is widely distributed in muddy substrates of pools and tanks in the Anuradhapura-Polonnaruwa area (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It also occurs near coastal areas but does not extend into the hills. It is nocturnal and feeds on plants, insects, detritus and benthic animals (Fernando, 1965). Its breeding biology is unknown.

Mystus keletius is collected regularly for the aquarium trade, though in small numbers.

26. *Mystus vittatus*

This is an indigenous nocturnal catfish distributed widely throughout the low country, and is commonly found among marginal vegetation in lakes and swamps having a muddy substrate (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It feeds on plants, insects, detritus and benthic animals (Fernando, 1965; Piet and Guruge, 1997). Its breeding biology is unknown.

Mystus vittatus is collected for the aquarium trade in moderate to heavy numbers.

27. *Ompok bimaculatus*

Ompok bimaculatus is a common, indigenous catfish having a wide distribution in tanks and small streams of the low country having shallow, quiet muddy to sandy bottoms. It is nocturnal and feeds on vegetable matter and fish (Fernando, 1965). Its reproductive biology is hardly known.

Limited numbers of the species are caught for export.

28. *Heteropneustes fossilis*

This stinging catfish is widely distributed and indigenous. It is found throughout the low country, inhabiting swampy, turbid waters and forming schools of about 10 similar-sized individuals. It extends into brackish waters. It is omnivorous. It lays light green eggs in a muddy depression in shallow waters excavated by both parents. Eggs hatch in about two days and the young are cared for by the parents until they are about a month old. *Heteropneustes fossilis* can tolerate temperatures up to almost 40°C (Vasal and Sudara Raj, 1978) and can stay out of water for extended periods since it is able to breathe air.

There is a moderate to heavy collection of this species for the aquarium trade, but it seems able to withstand the pressure at present.

29. *Oryzias melastigma*

This is a common, quite widely distributed small-sized fish inhabiting swampy brackish waters of the coastal wet zone. They are found in shallow waters among roots and mangroves. *Oryzias melastigma* feeds on small animals such as insects, larval forms and fry. It is easily spawned in captivity where eggs of up to a dozen per batch are attached to the underside of surface vegetation by adhesive filaments. Eggs take about 10 days to hatch (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

A few of these fish are collected for export.

30. *Aplocheilichthys dayi*

Aplocheilichthys dayi is a common endemic species. Distribution is confined to the Kelani River basin and its adjacent coastal areas. They occur in shallow, heavily shaded shallow forest streams with a silt substrate, extending

into less saline parts of mangrove swamps. It feeds on small-sized prey such as insects, larval forms and fry. Spawned eggs hatch in about two weeks, and the species is easily bred in captivity.

Large numbers of *Aplocheilus dayi* are collected for export, but its population does not seem to have suffered any large-scale decline.

31. *Aplocheilus parvus*

This is an indigenous fish that is common in coastal fresh and brackishwater habitats of the low-country, including paddy fields. It is a slow swimmer, preferring to stay just under the cover of surface vegetation. It is a shoaling species inhabiting shallow to deep waters. Like the previous species, it feeds on small animals such as insects, larval forms and fry. About a hundred adhesive eggs that are deposited on submerged vegetation hatch in about 10 to 14 days.

Aplocheilus parvus is collected for the aquarium trade in moderate to heavy numbers, but continues to be a commonly available fish species.

32. *Aplocheilus weneri*

This endemic kilifish is still quite abundant within the restricted areas in which it is found. It is distributed from the Kalu River to Nilwala basins, up to about 200m in elevation where it frequents shallow, slow-flowing heavily shaded streams having a silt or clay substrate. It feeds on small insects, larvae and fry. Its breeding biology is not clearly known but would probably be similar to the previous species.

Aplocheilus weneri is intensively collected for the aquarium trade. It is reported that large-sized individuals are now hard to find (Pethiyagoda, 1991), so that collections would seem to have some impact on its population structure.

33. *Microphis brachyurus*

This is an indigenous pipefish that has a wide regional distribution, though it is not very common. It occurs in margins of estuaries of wet zone rivers among vegetation in shallow, still to slow-flowing waters (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It is believed to lay about 250 minute eggs that are carried on the ventral side of the male.

It is caught in low-to-moderate numbers for export.

34. *Monodactylus argenteus*

Monodactylus argenteus is a common indigenous estuarine fish found in coastal water bodies including coastal reef areas. It is found specially in rivers with a low flow and prefers to frequent undersides of floating vegetation. Its natural diet is not known. Eggs of the species are demersal, and are attached to stones, etc.

The species is heavily fished for the export trade using a variety of methods, including brush piles. The size for export has decreased in recent years, making the fishery more intensive. This seems to be impacting its population structure.

35. *Toxotes chatareus*

The archer fish is indigenous and is mainly recorded from estuaries of the smaller coastal basins (Pethiyagoda, 1991), particularly the Bentota River basin. It feeds predominantly on insects and is said to lay from 20,000 to 150,000 eggs.

The species is in heavy demand for export. Heavy collections may have led to the rarity of specimens larger than 15cm.

36. *Scatophagus argus*

Scatophagus argus is a moderately common indigenous species frequenting most coastal lagoons and estuaries, but sometimes extending into freshwaters. It is an omnivore whose reproduction is not recorded. One instance of its captive breeding has been recorded.

The species is fished heavily for the aquarium trade, its export size seems to have decreased over the years.

37. *Etroplus maculatus*

This is a common indigenous fish distributed throughout the low country in estuaries, tanks and small streams, though not in large rivers. It is now rare in the dry zone tanks. It is a hardy fish that frequents marginal vegetation. *Etroplus maculatus* feeds on zooplankton, fish fry and algae. It spawns about 200 eggs into a soft, shallow depression in shallow water. Though the eggs hatch in about five days under the guardianship of the parents, the fry remain attached to the eggs for a further week and are thereafter tended by the parents until they become free-swimming.

The species is collected in large numbers for the aquarium trade. Its rarity in the dry zone tanks is probably a result of competition from introduced exotic species.

38. *Etroplus suratensis*

Etroplus suratensis is also a common indigenous cichlid that is abundant throughout the lowlands in large rivers, reservoirs, lagoons and estuaries. Adults are relatively herbivorous in feeding habits and will take some insects (Fernando, 1965; Pethiyagoda, 1991). The 500 or so attached eggs are guarded by the parents and hatch in about four days. Thereafter, the parents will tend the young until they are about 3 cm in body length, feeding them during the first week on a mucus secreted by the parents.

Small individuals are utilised heavily for the export trade.

39. *Butis butis*

This is an indigenous species that is not uncommon in the brackish waters of the south western coastal region. Called the “upside down sleeper”, it is found in still water on or under submerged vegetation or a branch and would hardly move other than to catch its food. Although it was common in the Dehiwela and Wellawatta canals earlier, pollution seems to have displaced them (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It feeds on small fish and crustaceans. Its breeding biology is not recorded.

The species is caught in small quantities for export.

40. *Eleotrisfusca*

Eleotrisfusca is indigenous and is not a common species. It is distributed throughout the coastal areas of the south west, from Lunawa to Matara, particularly among mangrove roots with smaller individuals often found perched on the mangrove roots. Adults are benthic on silt or muddy bottoms having marginal vegetation. Like the earlier species, pollution has removed it from its earlier known localities. It is a carnivorous fish. The eggs are spawned onto submerged, small leaves. Eggs and newly hatched fry receive parental care.

The species is exported in small numbers (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

41. *Glossogobius giuris*

This is a common, indigenous species that is primarily an estuarine species that has extended into freshwater habitats. It is widely distributed throughout the lowland areas and is very common in the dry zone rivers and tanks, preferring sandy or muddy substrates where it leads a benthic existence (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It is a carnivore feeding on live food. Green eggs are laid that are firmly attached to a submerged substrate.

The species is fished in low to moderate numbers for export.

42. *Redigobius balteatops*

This indigenous goby is not common. Its adult numbers in freshwaters show a seasonality, with a peak in October/November. It is found in sluggish, shallow, swampy, coastal fresh and brackish waters along the south western coastal belt (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It is said to feed on algae and small worms. Its breeding biology is not known, but probably breeds after heavy rains.

The species is exported from wild collected stock in moderate-to-high numbers.

43. *Schismatogobius deraniyagalai*

This is an endemic species that was described in 1989. It is recorded only from the We River of the Kelani basin, where it is common. The habitat is shallow coarse sand or gravel wherein the goby lies buried. Its natural food is not known. It has been bred in captivity. Several hundred adherent eggs are deposited in a small nest constructed by the male. The eggs hatch in four days.

The species is exported in moderate numbers.

44. *Sicyopterus grisseus*

Sicyopterus grisseus is an indigenous goby that is known only from one locality in the Sitawaka River. It is common in marginal areas of the deep, fast-flowing waters of this river. Its natural diet or breeding biology is unknown.

The species is exported in very small quantities. It is possibly wrongly identified in some export lists.

45. *Sicyopus jonklaasi*

This endemic goby is very rare and is found in rocky hill streams with fast-flowing water. It is found only in four or five locations. Its natural diet or natural breeding is unknown.

A few numbers of the species are exported during the dry season (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

46. *Anabas testudineus*

Anabas testudineus is a very common indigenous fish that is widely distributed in Sri Lanka, except in the central hills. It is a very hardy species found in turbid and stagnant waters. It is able to live out of water for considerable periods and is able to travel short distances overland using its pelvic fins and gill covers. It is a predatory carnivore and a prolific breeder. The yellow floating eggs that are spawned at the onset of rains hatch in about a day and develop into free swimming fry by the third day, following hatching.

Small numbers are collected for export.

47. *Belontiasignata*

The endemic *Belontia signata* is common in the south west and mid-hill regions of the Mahaweli basin, up to about 800m. In the coastal belt is found the brown colour morph while the red-finned variety is found in the south west of Ratnapura. It inhabits shaded margins of shallow clear streams with pebble or sand substrates. It is carnivorous on insects and also takes detritus (Costa and Fernando, 1967; Geisler, 1967; Moyle and Senanayake, 1984). In breeding, the male builds a bubble nest under a leaf or an overhang which holds the 500 or so light pink demersal eggs that are guarded by the male. Hatching takes place in about two to three days and fry swim freely after about two days thereafter. Both parents tend the young for a few weeks.

Belontia signata is used heavily for the export trade. Though the species is still not a rarity, the brightly coloured varieties, such as rust coloured and neon blue-finned *B. signata*, have decreased greatly so that collection requires to be restricted. Since it breeds easily, captive breeding programmes should also be popularised (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

48. *Malpulutta kretseri*

This endemic species is now not at all common and is considered a rarity by some. It is restricted to slow-flowing shallow forested streams and pools having rich marginal vegetation with silt and leaf-debris-laden substrates of south western Sri Lanka within the Colombo-Galle-Ratnapura triangle. It feeds on plankton, insect larvae and fish fry. The male builds a bubble nest in which the 100 to 200 white eggs that are spawned in several batches hatch after about two days. The male parent guards the free swimming young until they are about a week old.

The species is caught for the aquarium industry but not in large numbers because of low availability.

49. *Pseudosphromenus cupanus*

Pseudosphromenus cupanus is an indigenous species that is common in shallow stagnant to slow-flowing streams, ditches and marshes having thick vegetation. It is restricted to the south western wet zone lowlands between Chilaw and Matara (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It feeds on zooplankton and insects. Breeding is as for the earlier species where the male builds and guards a bubble nest in which eggs hatch in about one day and the fry become free swimming in about a week.

This species is collected in moderate to high numbers for export.

50. *Channa orientalis*

This endemic relatively small snake-head species frequents very shallow, quiet, clear, shaded, flowing streams in forested areas of the south western wet zone, extending up to the lower south western hills. It is declining in numbers, more due to habitat destruction than over-collection. *Channa orientalis* feeds principally on insects and sometimes on fish (Senanayake and Moyle, 1984). The oily, floating eggs are mouth brooded by the male and after hatching, both male and female parents protect the fry in their oral chambers (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

This species is collected in small to moderate numbers for export.

51. *Channa striata*

Channa striata is a common indigenous snake-head inhabiting swampy as well as relatively deep still water and river habitats of the lowlands of Sri Lanka. It also occurs in brackish water habitats so that it has a wide distribution.

It is a carnivore, preying on fish and crustaceans. For breeding, it builds a nest of weeds in which the floating eggs are laid. Hatching takes about three days and the fry soon turn bright orange, the young remaining with the mother for about a month and losing the orange colour from about the second month, but remaining under the mother's care until it is old enough to be able to hunt independently.

Small to moderate numbers are exported.

52. *Macrognathus aral*

This indigenous eel inhabits still waters having a silt or muddy substrate of tanks, ponds and slow rivers of the lowlands. Once very common, it is now rare. It feeds on insects and worms and its breeding biology is not well known, except that the pale green demersal eggs that are laid on algal masses hatch in a day or two (Pethiyagoda, 1991).

The species is not found in numbers sufficient for export.

53. *Mastacembelus armatus*

This is a common indigenous spiny eel occurring in streams and rivers having a sandy to boulder substrate. It is distributed widely from the coastal area to an elevation of about 600m. Its main diet consists of insect matter, and its breeding biology is unknown.

Smaller specimens are collected in low to moderate numbers for the export trade.

54. *Tetraodon fluviatilis*

Tetraodon fluviatilis is an indigenous puffer fish found in slow water bodies such as rivers, estuaries and backwaters and prefers shaded areas. It is recorded as being more abundant in the estuaries of the south west (Pethiyagoda, 1991). It appears to be predominantly carnivorous in food habits and may possibly take some plant matter. It is said to lay about 200 attached eggs in shallow waters and guard them until hatching or even thereafter.

The species is used in large numbers in the export trade.

6.6 Status of related freshwater habitats

The physical quantity as well as the quality of freshwater habitats that constitute the living medium of fish have been affected over the years (e.g. Costa, 1989; Pethiyagoda, 1994).

The construction of water diversion and storage schemes, including large dams and reservoirs to meet the increased need for water extraction and hydropower generation has had ecological implications on the freshwater habitat. Rivers, lakes, and wetlands, along with the life they support, have declined in health because large dams and river diversions have destroyed their vital ecological functions. The number of large dams has increased and several hundred kilometers of canals divert water from natural systems to agricultural lands and cities. The resulting ecological implications are diverse and include loss in river area and volume with attendant economic decline (Ekaratne and Jinendradasa, 1997).

Deforestation, improper use of agrochemicals, increased silt load (e.g., Gunawardena, 1998) habitat alteration and destruction, introduction of exotic species including *Oreochromis mossambicus*, infrastructure development, gemming, etc., affect species well-being and survival. Some of these are discussed by Pethiyagoda (1994). The quality of freshwater habitats is also believed to have changed, or threatened with modification, in terms of biological diversity

(Bamabardeniya et al., 1998). This is certainly so when the introduction of exotics (e.g., tilapias, Clown Knife fish, tank cleaner fish, golden apple snail) is considered for Sri Lanka (Gunawardena, 1994; Gunawardena, 1996; Bamabardeniya et al., 1998) or globally (Clout, 1995). But the widely-held assumption that such a change is also due to the collection or overcollection of freshwater fish (Hoffmann, 1990) does not yet have corroborative evidence.

The status of 25 selected freshwater and brackishwater habitats, together with management plans for some of them, is reviewed in the Site Reports and Conservation Management Plans of the CEA (e.g., CEA, 1997, 1998a, 1998b).



SECTION 7

Status of the Marine Fish Resources and Habitats

Marine habitats and their inhabitants have received considerably less attention by way of research and study than freshwater habits. Therefore, there is considerably less information available on marine aquarium fish resources than on freshwater fish resources.

7.1 Exported marine fish

Aquarium marine fish that are exported from Sri Lanka are mostly those caught from waters around our coasts. Some fish caught in seas around other countries (such as from the Maldivian Islands and the Red Sea) have found their way to Sri Lanka to be transhipped as exports from Sri Lanka. Export statistics have to be viewed with this factor in mind.

In a survey published over 10 years ago, Wood (1985) said that 139 species of marine fish were exported from Sri Lanka. This list included sharks, rays, catfishes, eels, squirrelfishes, seahorses, groupers, seabasses, cardinal fishes, snappers, grunts, remoras, goatfishes, batfishes, butterflyfishes, angelfishes, anemonefishes, damselfishes, wrasses, hawkfishes, moorish idol, surgeonfishes, blennies, lionfishes, filefishes, triggerfishes, boxfishes, puffers, porcupinefishes and anglerfish. Aquarium exporters and Customs returns indicated that present exports deal with species numbers exceeding 200. This is a significant increase over Wood's. The present-day exports appear to have expanded to include parrotfishes, flatfishes, jacks and further species from among the fish groups exported in 1985.

Recorded exports reveal that over 400 species names are included as aquarium exports from Sri Lanka. This however, would include incorrect names (e.g., mistaken identifications) and also transhipped fish species. A list of exported aquarium fish species is given in Annex 2.

7.2 Status of exported species, including threatened species

Table 7.1 indicates the diversity of taxonomic groups that are exported in the marine aquarium trade. They have been compiled from Customs returns for two years (1995 and 1996) which include transhipped species or re-exports, showing that around 55 taxonomic groups are being exported. From among these taxa, in terms of the numbers of species, some groups are exploited to a much larger extent. This is shown in Table 7.2, which arranges taxonomic families in descending order of magnitude of numbers being exploited. The arrangement in this table enables us to see the fish families that are exploited more popularly. Thus, as families of fish, wrasses, damsels, anemone fish, butterfly fishes, gobies, groupers, basslets, angel fish, trigger fish, surgeon fish, moray eels, blennies, scorpion/lion fish and tangs are the more popularly exported fish groups. Some experts contend that it is not possible to prepare a list of fish species from export lists (NARA, 1998). Since no other reasonable suggestion or corrective action has been forthcoming from those mandated to compile an export fish list, it seems counterproductive not to use available data for this purpose. Although no list can claim to be completely flawless and fully accurate, it is hoped that the physical examination of every return on export data lodged with Customs over a period as long as two years (as done for in this report) is a reasonable and progressive starting point for compiling an export list. The list can of course be modified or refined later.

Table 7.3 lists the commonly exported fish species, in order of descending preference, that are used in the export trade. It shows that Groupers, blue-streak cleaner wrasse, powder/blue surgeonfish, three-spot damsel, Seba's anemone fish, lyre-tail coral fish, sea horses, Clark's anemone or clown fish, emperor angel / imperator, pretty prawn goby, lyre tail coral fish, damsels, gobies, blennies, angelfish and butterflyfish are the popular species. It must, however, be kept in mind that groupers that head this list are exported also for the food-fish trade. Preferences are dictated by demand which would vary with the year and the season as well as, of course, on availability from the natural habitat. From among the groupers, it has been pointed out (NARA, 1998) that only a few species such as *Cephalopholis miniatus*,

C. argus, *C. formosa* are exported for the aquarium trade. The exploitation of edible fish from reef-associated habitats also impacts the marine habitat and is therefore important for our study.

Although *Chaetodon trifasciatus* is ranked quite high as a popularly exported fish in Table 7.3 of this report, NARA (1998) in commenting on the draft version of this report stated: "This is incorrect, as this is not a popular fish and only rarely exported". Such strong disagreement merited a closer look at the statistics collected from Customs returns. These confirmed that this species ranked as the 2nd and 5th most popular marine fish species to be exported from Sri Lanka in 1996 and 1995, respectively, with 14.0% and 6.8% of the Chaetodon species being made up of this species. The Customs records from 11 exporters (in 1996) and 13 exporters (in 1995) contributed to the reported high popular ranking of *Chaetodon trifasciatus* as a popularly exported species.

In the collection of fish, shallow reefs (0-6 m) are usually fished by skin divers, while deeper areas (25 or 30 m) are harvested by using SCUBA. Collection is seasonal and dependent on the monsoons which dictate the water clarity and the turbulent nature of the waters. The west and southwest coasts are fished from November to March or April, and the east and north-east from May to October.

Table 7.1 Taxonomic groups of marine fish exported from / through Sri Lanka as compiled from exporters' returns with the Customs

<i>Common Name (with numbers of recorded species)</i>	<i>Taxonomic Group (Family)</i>
Surgeon fish (15 spp.)	Acanthuridae (23 + spp.)
Unicorn fish (3+spp.)	
Tangs (5+ spp.)	
Glass fish (1 sp.)	Ambassidae (1 sp)
Frog Fish (2+ spp.)	Antennariidae (2+ spp.)
Cardinal fish (2+ spp.)	Apogonidae (2+ spp.)
Triggerfishes (16+spp.)	Balistidae (16+spp.)
Needle fishes (1 sp?)	Belonidae (1 sp?)
Blennies (10+spp.)	Blennidae (10+ spp.)
Flounders (5 spp.)	Bothidae (5 spp.)
Dragonets (1+ sp.)	Callionymidae (1+ sp.)
Trevallies (2 spp.)	Carangidae (2 spp.)
Sharks (1+ sp.)	Carcharhinidae (1+ sp)
Butterfly fishes (34+ spp.)	Chaetodontidae (34+spp.)
Hawkfishes (5 spp.)	Cirrhitidae (5 spp.)
(1 sp.)	Clinidae
(1 sp.)	Dactyloptidae
Rays (1 sp.)	Dasyatidae
Porcupinefishes (3 spp.)	Diodontidae

Contd

Bat/ Spade fishes (2 spp.)
 Cornet fishes (1 sp.)
 Mojarras (1 sp.)
 Gobies (28 +spp)
 Soap Fish (1 sp.)
 Sweetlips (8 spp.)
 (1 sp.)
 Hailbeaks (1 sp.)
 Sea Horses (2 spp)
 Squirrel/soldier fishes (9 spp.)
 Flagtails (1 sp.)
 Wrasses(/Diesel) (44+ spp.)
 Emperor fish (2 spp)
 Snappers (4 spp.)
 (1 sp.)
 File fishes (3 spp)
 Mulletts (1 sp.)
 Goat fishes (5 spp.)
 Moray Eels (1 + spp.)
 Sandperches (3 spp.)
 Snake eels (2 spp.)
 Cat sharks (1 sp.)
 Cowfish (1 sp.)
 Boxfish (3 spp.)
 Catfish (3 spp.)
 Angelfish (20+ spp.)
 Damsels, anemone fish (37 spp.)
 Dottyback fishes (4 spp.)
 Sting Rays (1 sp.)
 Parrotfishes (6 spp)
 Scats (5 spp.)
 Scorpion/lion fish (8 spp.)
 Groupers,Basslets(22+ spp.)
 Sharks(1 sp.)
 Rabbit fishes (3 spp.)
 Barracudas (2 spp)

Ehippidae/Platicidae
 Fistularidae
 Gemdae
 Gobiidae
 Grammistidae
 Haemulidae
 Haloclavidae
 Hemiramphidae
 Hippocampidae
 Holocentridae
 Kuhliidae
 Labridae
 Lethrinidae
 Lutjanidae
 Microdesmidae
 Monacanthidae
 Mugilidae
 Mullidae
 Muraemdae
 Mugiloididae / Pinguipedidae
 Ophichthidae/Muraenidae
 Orectolobidae
 Ostracidae

 Plotosidae
 Pomacanthidae
 Pomacentridae
 Pseudochromidae
 Rajidae
 Scaridae
 Scatophagidae
 Scorpaenidae
 Serranidae
 Sharks
 Siganidae
 Sphyraenidae

Contd

Pipe fish (3 spp.)	Syngnathidae/Solenostomidae
Grunters (1 sp.)	Teraponidae
Puffers (8 ÷spp.)	Tetraodontidae
Electric Rays (1 sp.)	Tropedinidae
Moorish Idol/Tobies (2 spp.)	Zanclidae

Table 7.2 Marine fish families and numbers of species that are popularly exported from / through Sri Lanka – as compiled from exporters’ returns with Customs

<i>Common Name (and numbers of recorded spp.)</i>	<i>Family Name</i>
Wrasses (44+ spp.)	Labridae
Damsels, anemone fish (37 spp.)	Pomacentridae
Butterfly fishes (34+ spp)	Chaetodontidae
Gobies (28 +spp.)	Gobiidae
Groupers, Basslets (22+ spp.)	Serranidae
Angel fish (20+ spp.)	Pomacanthidae
Trigger fish (16+ spp.)	Balistidae
Surgeon fish (15 spp.)	Acanthuridae (23 + spp)
Moray Eels (11+ spp.)	Muraenidae
Blennies (10+spp.)	Blenniidae (10+spp.)
Squirrel/soldier fishes (9 spp.)	Holocentndae
Sweetlips (8 spp.)	Haemulidae
Scorpion/lion fish (8 spp.)	Scorpaenidae
Puffers (8+ spp.)	Puffers
Parrot fishes (6 spp.)	Scaridae
Tangs (5+ spp.)	Acanthuridae
Flounders (5 spp.)	Bothidae (5 sp)
Hawkfishes (5 spp)	Cirrhitidae (5 sp)
Goat fishes (5 spp.)	Mullidae
Scats (5 spp.)	Scatophagidae
Snappers (4 spp.)	Lutjanidae
Dottyback fishes (4 spp.)	Pseudochromidae
Unicorn fish (3+spp.)	Acanthuridae
Porcupine fishes (3 spp.)	Diodontidae
File fishes (3 spp)	Monacanthidae

Contd

Sandperches (3 spp.)	Mugiloididae / Pinguipedidae
Boxfish (3 spp.)	Ostracidae
Cat fish (3 spp.)	Plotosidae
Rabbit fishes (3 spp.)	Siganidae
Pipe fish (3 spp.)	Syngnathidae/Solenostomidae
Frog Fish (2+ spp.)	Antennariidae(2+ sp)
Cardinal fish (2+ spp)	Apogonidae (2+ sp)
Trevallies (2 spp.)	Carangidae(2 sp.)
Bat / Spade fishes (2 spp.)	EphippidaePlaticidae
Sea Horses (2 spp.)	Hippocampidae
Emperor fish (2 spp.)	Lethrinidae
Snake Eels (2 spp.)	OphichthidaeMuraenidae
Barracudas (2 spp)	Sphyraenidae
Moorish Idol/Tobies (2 spp)	Zanclidae

Table 7.3 Marine fish species commonly exported from /through Sri Lanka. (Arranged in order of decreasing popularity, which may vary annually. Data were compiled from two years of exporters' returns with Customs; note that multiple names are sometimes used for the same species and that some species whose names appear in exporters' lists do not occur around Sri Lanka. Groupers, heading the list, would include specimens exported as live food fish. These and other problem areas are discussed in the text)

<i>Scientific name (or group name)</i>	<i>Common name</i>
<i>Groupers</i>	Groupers
<i>Labroides dimidiatus</i>	Blue-streak Cleaner Wrasse/Diesel
<i>Acanthurus leucosternon</i>	Powder/Blue Surgeonfish
<i>Dascyllus trimaculatus</i>	Three-spot Damsel
<i>Amphiprion sebae</i>	Seba's Anemone Fish
<i>Anthias squamipinis</i>	Lyre Tail Coral Fish
<i>Hippocampus kuda</i>	Sea Horse
<i>Amphiprion xanthurus/clarkii</i>	Clark's Anemone or Clown Fish
<i>Pomacanthus imperator</i>	Emperor Angel / Imperator
<i>Valenciana puellaris</i>	Pretty Prawn Goby
<i>Anthias squamipinis</i>	Lyre Tail Coral Fish
<i>Abudefduf saxatilis</i>	Sergeant Major
<i>Consformosa</i>	Clown Coris /Red White Wrasse

Contd

C. rafflesi
C. guttatissimus
C. semeion
C. benetti
Anthias evensi
Forcipiger flavissimus
Parachaetodon ocellatus
Hemitaenichthys zoster
H. pleurotaenia
Oxycirrhites typus
Paracirrhites arcuatus
Nemateleotris menateleotris
Plectorhynchus obscurus
Gaterin albobittatus
Labroides bico/or
L. dimidiatus
Corisformosa
Bodianus diana
Lutianus sebae
Poinacanthus annularis
P. semicirculatus
P. imperator
Centropyge eibli
Apolemichthys trimaculatus
Amphiprion clarkii
A. nigrepes
Pterois volitans
P. antennata
P. radiata
Dendrochirus zebra
D. trachypterus
D. biocellata
Epinephelus flavocaeruleus
*E. lanceolatus **
Plectropomus laevis
Variola louti

Contd

Zanclus cornutus
Oxymonocanthus longirostris
Paraluteres prianurus
Balistoides conspicillum
Pseudobalistes fuscus
Canthigaster tenneti
C. valentini
Ostracion cubicum
Lactoria cornuta
L. fornasini
Diodon hystrix
Histrion histrio
Echidna nebulosa
E. zebra
Plotosus lineatus
Hippocampus kuda *

The **population** densities of certain species are naturally low. Such fish are particularly vulnerable to adverse impact and number depletion. Anemone fish is an example. These fish are easy to capture and, being also popular, are fished in large numbers. Other species that have low population densities are similarly susceptible to depletion if high fishing pressure is exerted on their populations or if habitat change or destruction is brought about. An example of such species is the case where certain butterflyfish which were previously present in Trincomalee Bay have become rare (Lubbock and Polunin, 1975). Another example is Indian Bannerfish, around Weligama. They were discovered to be rare, and have not recovered up to 1998 (NARA, 1998). Therefore, particular care must be taken in ensuring that species with vulnerable characteristics are not subjected to heavy fishing pressure or habitat impacts.

Fish that are ecologically very important should also merit extreme care in collection. For example, some species that are among the most popular fish for export, play an important ecological role by cleaning the gills, oral cavities, etc., of many species of fish inhabiting the reef environment. The very fact that “cleaning stations” have evolved that attract large-sized fish to queue up to be cleaned by these small brightly-coloured cleanerfish demonstrates the importance of these fish within the reef ecosystem as well as the importance of this cleaning symbiotic relationship. The reef ecosystem is rich in such mutually beneficial symbiotic relationships. The removal of one partner from such an association will disrupt the ecosystem relationships and lead to often unfavourable ecosystem changes. In these interlinked reef ecosystems, the abundance of some species has been shown to be related to that of others (Bakus, 1994). Although data are lacking for Sri Lanka, some of the population and ecosystem effects brought about by reef fishing have been documented for other reefs (e.g. Jennings and Lock, 1996).

7.3 Biology, ecology, distribution and populations of exported marine fish

Unlike with freshwater fish species, there are no detailed studies that specifically deal with Sri Lankan marine fish species used in the aquarium export trade. Information presented below is based on whatever literature is available, and on interviews with divers and aquarists. The reader may, however, refer to some of the general literature listed in Section 10.

Fluctuations in population numbers are quite common with nektonic marine animals and are attributable to natural as well as man-made causes. In some reef-associated fish, their populations may be relatively unstable and may undergo considerable changes with time (Sale, 1980; Sale & Dybdahl, 1975; Russell *et al.*, 1977; Sadovy, 1996). Any population studies that address assessment of fish numbers and the effect of fish collection by the export trade must therefore take natural fluctuations into account. In the absence of any such data for Sri Lanka's marine aquarium fish, studies are first necessary to document such phenomena. Some of the environmental and biological factors that are known to affect reef fish species composition and distribution and their population densities are habitat quality and area, food supply, habitat selection, recruitment patterns and predation (Smith & Tyler, 1972; Sale, 1977, 1980; Sale, 1980b; Doherty, 1982; Williams, 1983; Shulman, 1984; Sale *et al.* 1984; Sale and Ferrel, 1988).

Although detailed studies on marine fish population numbers in Sri Lanka do not exist, fish collectors possess knowledge on available abundance, and on places and periods of high and low availability. Even though many divers in the aquarium trade did say that they were capable of assessing numbers, and argued for the collection of numerically abundant species, their stand is contested by many others. NARA (1998) said that "they (i.e. fish collectors) are unable to calculate the abundance in numbers in a population of a given species. Therefore it is incorrect to state that the collectors possess knowledge on available numbers". Such differences of opinion illustrate the uncertainties that bedevil knowledge and highlight the urgent need for numerical data to manage the aquarium trade.

Since collection is competitive, collectors are quite loathe to part with this valuable information although a few will let you have some information. For example, the young stages of some Butterfly fish and of *Heniochus* (Bannerfish) were said to be common around estuarine mouths. Some collectors said that these fish are abundant even within estuaries at specific periods.

Several examples concerning seasonal availability of fish are given by Jonklaas (1985). These are valuable though some may argue that these do not constitute scientifically validated data. But then, we are short of such data.

The lionfish, *Pterois volirans*, appears from 2 to 6cm in September, often in sheltered rocky estuaries and river mouths and boulder-strewn shores. Juvenile blue-ring Angelfish, *Pomacanthus semicirculatus*, appear in large numbers in May, off the east coast. Juvenile Emperor Angelfish, *Pomacanthus imperator*, around 2 cm long, appear off the east coast in early September. Some are collected then, before the season ends, others in March, when they have grown to over 5cm in length. In 1972 there was a sudden occurrence of the boxfish, *Diodon holacanthus*, off the west coast, with specimens about 6 to 10 cm being found all over reefs and sandy bottoms. Such an aggregated recruitment to inshore reefs has been reported as of typical occurrence for *Diodon spp.* which first spend a 4 to 5 month period in the plankton (Ogden, 1965). In 1975, unusually large concentrations of young triggerfish, *Odonus niger*, appeared off both coasts in depths of 8 m or more. This was followed in 1976 by an inexplicable sudden mass mortality. In 1981, relatively large numbers of juvenile clown triggerfish, *Balistoides niger*, appeared on reefs off the east coast at depths of 10 to 20 m. This enhanced recruitment, again inexplicable, resulted in a yield of over 500 individuals for the collectors which was about 10 times the usual collection for this time (Jonklaas, 1985).

Ornamental marine fish are distributed all round the coasts of Sri Lanka, though their specific distribution patterns have not been fully documented. The areas and locations from where fish species are collected may, however, indicate some distributional preferences of fish species, though it must be kept in mind that collection may also be influenced by accessibility and ease of fish collection at specific locations rather than by fish distribution patterns alone.

Fish for the export trade are collected from most of the inshore areas where corals occur. There are few, pure limestone reefs in Sri Lanka, but corals grow on ancient sandstone largely along the west coast, or gneiss or granite outcrops along the east coast (Salm, 1975; Wood, 1985).

In the West Coast, ornamental species are collected from reefs in the vicinity of Kalpitya to Negombo, and others to the south of Colombo, for example off Dehiwala and Beruwala (Madhu, 1996). In the South Coast, the main collection areas are around Galle, Weligama and Tangalle. Although Wood (1985) names Kirinda also as a collection area, NARA (1998) is of the view that such an identification “is completely wrong”. The Hikkaduwa Marine Reserve used to be an important collecting site, but is no longer a site for fish collection since it is now well protected, particularly by the local stakeholder community. The Basses reefs, although reputed to support large fish populations, are not popular collecting locations since they are too far offshore and are subjected to strong currents and heavy seas for much of the year (Wood, 1985).

In the East Coast, the important collection area in Sri Lanka is in the vicinity of Trincomalee. The harbour itself is a good source and the area just to its north, off Kuchaveli and Nilaveli, and around Pigeon Island, Kalmunai are also heavily utilised. There are similar collecting areas just to the south of Trincomalee, and also off Passedukah (Thannadi Bay) and Kaldukah where there are reported to be well developed reefs, though the security situation has restricted collections somewhat. In the North Coast, the Jaffna area contains relatively shallow, turbid water, but it had in the past been an important collecting area particularly for species that did not occur elsewhere in the seas around Sri Lanka.

The keeping of species in home aquaria depends on the ecology, including feeding biology, of the fish species. For example, it is impossible to maintain coral-eating species unless coral is also cultivated in aquaria – which is not possible without stringent water quality controls. Even so, the export trade does catch and export coral-eating fish such as some butterfly fish. Since it is impossible to maintain them in home aquaria for long periods, the trade itself refers to these species as ‘cut flower’ species (J Gunawardena, pers. com.). These species are shown in the table below. The export of such species should not be allowed as it only leads to habitat disturbance and destruction.

Table 7. 5 “Cut-Flower” marine fishes currently exported from Sri Lanka

Source An overview of the ornamental aquatic sector in Sri Lanka - Jonathan K.L.Mee (1993)

<i>Species</i>	<i>Common Names</i>
<i>Chaetodon bennetti</i>	Bennett’s Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon citrinellus</i>	Lemon Butterflyfish, Citrine Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon meyeri</i>	Meyer’s Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon octofasciatus</i>	Eight-stripe Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon ornatissimus</i>	Ornate Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon plebius</i>	Blue Spot Butterflyfish, Plebius Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon triangulum</i>	Triangle Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon trifascialis</i>	Chevron Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon trifasciatus</i>	Melon Butterflyfish, Sunset Butterflyfish

74 Status of related marine habitats

The marine habitat with which marine fish collection for the export aquarium trade is most closely associated, and indeed dependent directly, is undoubtedly the reef habitat. It is recorded that most coral reefs in Sri Lanka have been degraded or destroyed by a multitude of causes including coral mining, fishing with explosives, sedimentation, pollution, removal of reef organisms, anchoring and removal of coral for the curio trade (e.g., De Bruin, 1972; Salm, 1975;

Jonklans, 1985; Ekaratne, 1989a, 1989b, 1990b, 1997c, Wood, 1985; Costa, 1989; Ohman *et al.*, 1993; Dassanayake, 1994; Rajasuriya et al., 1995; Rajasuriya and White, 1995).

Most of the known reefs, particularly readily accessible near-shore reefs, are degraded due to human-induced damage (Ekaratne, 1990b, 1997c). Reefs in better condition, with over 50% of live hermatypic cover, are present at the Bar Reef off the north west coast, at the Great and Little Basses which are located off the south east coast and a few reefs in the southern coast, including Hikkaduwa in the south-west. Reef sites at Hikkaduwa and Bar Reef constitute the only two legally protected marine sanctuaries in Sri Lanka, the former having been accorded sanctuary status in 1979, the latter in 1992 (Pernetta, 1993). Although legal enactments for reef and reef-related protection are well in place, implementation and monitoring are grossly inadequate, on account of which reef degradation practices continue. (Ekaratne, 1990b, 1997c; Nakatani *et al.*, 1994; White and Ekaratne, 1995). However NARA (1998), expressed a different viewpoint while commenting on the draft of this report. It said “It is grossly incorrect to state that lack of monitoring is one of the main reasons for the continuation of reef degradation practices”.

The reef habitat in Sri Lanka suffers from a high sediment and particulate matter load as well as pollution from land-based sources (Ekaratne, 1997c). In July 1998, coastal habitats including reefs near Colombo experienced crude-oil pollution through a severed pipeline. What effects this has had on coastal habitats has not been looked at in detail. However, oil pollution is now a realistic impact that needs to be considered. Although high sediment and particulate matter loads were said to affect reef habitats (e.g., Rajasuriya and White, 1995; Ekaratne, 1990b, 1997a), it was only in 1996 that data gathering by the University of Colombo commenced. This data, limited to Hikkaduwa Marine Reserve, demonstrated that the reef at the south-west of Sri Lanka experienced high loads of particulate matter, including sandy material, from May to November, with maximum loads of up to 3.2 kg day⁻¹ m⁻² (Ekaratne, 1997c).

In April 1998, an event of profound influence occurred in the coral reefs of Sri Lanka. This was the incidence of widespread and severe coral bleaching. It was not restricted to Sri Lanka, but occurred throughout the region, due to an exceptional increase in sea surface temperatures. This resulted in extensive coral bleaching and mortality of about 80 per cent in studied sites of the south west coast (Ekaratne and Jinendradasa, 1998).

Along with the temperature increase, symbiotic zooxanthellae were lost in over 60 scleractinian and octocoral species inhabiting the reef habitat. The highest number of species affected were of the genus *Acropora* where over 15 species were bleached including the common stag-horn coral, *Acropora formosa* and the tabulate coral *A. hyacinthus*. Other coral genera that have suffered loss of zooxanthellae and mortality included *Pocillopora*, *Porites*, *Gardineroseris*, *Galaxea*, *Fungia*, *Symphylia*, *Montastraea*, *Sinularia*, *Sarcophyton* and *Lobophyton*. Some species that showed resistance to bleaching have also been identified (Ekaratne and Jinendradasa, 1998).

The damage and changes to habitat quality brought about by the above changes will have serious effects on fish population numbers and structure as well as on species composition. Such factors have been known to bring about changes in reef structure, biodiversity, succession and ecosystem functions.

Over the years, many experienced collectors and exporters in Sri Lanka involved in the trade, as also several conservationists, referred to the changing status of reef habitats when they spoke of coral reef fish collected for the aquarium trade having become less abundant now. The lack of quantitative data, however, makes these statements non-verifiable. Whether this trend towards fish reduction is because of over-collection – either by itself or in concert with other causes such as pollution – cannot be verified because of paucity of data.

C. rafflesi
C. guttatissimus
C. semeion
C. benetti
Anthias evensi
Forcipiger flavissimus
Parachaetodon ocellatus
Hemitaurichthys zoster
H. pleurotaenia
Oxycirrhites typus
Paracirrhites arcuatus
Nemateleotris menateleotris
Plectorhynchus obscurus
Gaterin albovittatus
Labroides bico/or
L. dimidiatus
Corisformosa
Bodianus diana
Lutianus sebae
Poinacanthus annularis
P. semicirculatus
P. imperator
Centropyge eibli
Apolemichthys trimaculatus
Amphiprion clarkii
A. nigrepes
Pterois volitans
P. antennata
P. radiata
Dendrochirus zebra
D. trachypterus
D. biocellata
Epinephelus flavocaeruleus
*E. lanceolatus **
Plectropomus laevis
Variola louti

Contd

Zanclus cornutus
Oxymonocanthus longirostris
Paraluteres prianurus
Balistoides conspicillum
Pseudobalistes fuscus
Canthigaster tenneti
C. valentini
Ostracion cubicum
Lactoria cornuta
L. fornasini
Diodon hystrix
Histrion histrio
Echidna nebulosa
E. zebra
Plotosus lineatus
Hippocampus kuda *

The **population** densities of certain species are naturally low. Such fish are particularly vulnerable to adverse impact and number depletion. Anemone fish is an example. These fish are easy to capture and, being also popular, are fished in large numbers. Other species that have low population densities are similarly susceptible to depletion if high fishing pressure is exerted on their populations or if habitat change or destruction is brought about. An example of such species is the case where certain butterflyfish which were previously present in Trincomalee Bay have become rare (Lubbock and Polunin, 1975). Another example is Indian Bannerfish, around Weligama. They were discovered to be rare, and have not recovered up to 1998 (NARA, 1998). Therefore, particular care must be taken in ensuring that species with vulnerable characteristics are not subjected to heavy fishing pressure or habitat impacts.

Fish that are ecologically very important should also merit extreme care in collection. For example, some species that are among the most popular fish for export, play an important ecological role by cleaning the gills, oral cavities, etc., of many species of fish inhabiting the reef environment. The very fact that “cleaning stations” have evolved that attract large-sized fish to queue up to be cleaned by these small brightly-coloured cleanerfish demonstrates the importance of these fish within the reef ecosystem as well as the importance of this cleaning symbiotic relationship. The reef ecosystem is rich in such mutually beneficial symbiotic relationships. The removal of one partner from such an association will disrupt the ecosystem relationships and lead to often unfavourable ecosystem changes. In these interlinked reef ecosystems, the abundance of some species has been shown to be related to that of others (Bakus, 1994). Although data are lacking for Sri Lanka, some of the population and ecosystem effects brought about by reef fishing have been documented for other reefs (e.g. Jennings and Lock, 1996).

7.3 Biology, ecology, distribution and populations of exported marine fish

Unlike with freshwater fish species, there are no detailed studies that specifically deal with Sri Lankan marine fish species used in the aquarium export trade. Information presented below is based on whatever literature is available, and on interviews with divers and aquarists. The reader may, however, refer to some of the general literature listed in Section 10.

Fluctuations in population numbers are quite common with nektonic marine animals and are attributable to natural as well as man-made causes. In some reef-associated fish, their populations may be relatively unstable and may undergo considerable changes with time (Sale, 1980; Sale & Dybdahl, 1975; Russell *et al.*, 1977; Sadovy, 1996). Any population studies that address assessment of fish numbers and the effect of fish collection by the export trade must therefore take natural fluctuations into account. In the absence of any such data for Sri Lanka's marine aquarium fish, studies are first necessary to document such phenomena. Some of the environmental and biological factors that are known to affect reef fish species composition and distribution and their population densities are habitat quality and area, food supply, habitat selection, recruitment patterns and predation (Smith & Tyler, 1972; Sale, 1977, 1980; Sale, 1980b; Doherty, 1982; Williams, 1983; Shulman, 1984; Sale *et al.* 1984; Sale and Ferrel, 1988).

Although detailed studies on marine fish population numbers in Sri Lanka do not exist, fish collectors possess knowledge on available abundance, and on places and periods of high and low availability. Even though many divers in the aquarium trade did say that they were capable of assessing numbers, and argued for the collection of numerically abundant species, their stand is contested by many others. NARA (1998) said that "they (i.e. fish collectors) are unable to calculate the abundance in numbers in a population of a given species. Therefore it is incorrect to state that the collectors possess knowledge on available numbers". Such differences of opinion illustrate the uncertainties that bedevil knowledge and highlight the urgent need for numerical data to manage the aquarium trade.

Since collection is competitive, collectors are quite loathe to part with this valuable information although a few will let you have some information. For example, the young stages of some Butterfly fish and of *Heniochus* (Bannerfish) were said to be common around estuarine mouths. Some collectors said that these fish are abundant even within estuaries at specific periods.

Several examples concerning seasonal availability of fish are given by Jonklaas (1985). These are valuable though some may argue that these do not constitute scientifically validated data. But then, we are short of such data.

The lionfish, *Pterois volirans*, appears from 2 to 6cm in September, often in sheltered rocky estuaries and river mouths and boulder-strewn shores. Juvenile blue-ring Angelfish, *Pomacanthus semicirculatus*, appear in large numbers in May, off the east coast. Juvenile Emperor Angelfish, *Pomacanthus imperator*, around 2 cm long, appear off the east coast in early September. Some are collected then, before the season ends, others in March, when they have grown to over 5cm in length. In 1972 there was a sudden occurrence of the boxfish, *Diodon holacanthus*, off the west coast, with specimens about 6 to 10 cm being found all over reefs and sandy bottoms. Such an aggregated recruitment to inshore reefs has been reported as of typical occurrence for *Diodon spp.* which first spend a 4 to 5 month period in the plankton (Ogden, 1965). In 1975, unusually large concentrations of young triggerfish, *Odonus niger*, appeared off both coasts in depths of 8 m or more. This was followed in 1976 by an inexplicable sudden mass mortality. In 1981, relatively large numbers of juvenile clown triggerfish, *Balistoides niger*, appeared on reefs off the east coast at depths of 10 to 20 m. This enhanced recruitment, again inexplicable, resulted in a yield of over 500 individuals for the collectors which was about 10 times the usual collection for this time (Jonklaas, 1985).

Ornamental marine fish are distributed all round the coasts of Sri Lanka, though their specific distribution patterns have not been fully documented. The areas and locations from where fish species are collected may, however, indicate some distributional preferences of fish species, though it must be kept in mind that collection may also be influenced by accessibility and ease of fish collection at specific locations rather than by fish distribution patterns alone.

Fish for the export trade are collected from most of the inshore areas where corals occur. There are few, pure limestone reefs in Sri Lanka, but corals grow on ancient sandstone largely along the west coast, or gneiss or granite outcrops along the east coast (Salm, 1975; Wood, 1985).

In the West Coast, ornamental species are collected from reefs in the vicinity of Kalpitya to Negombo, and others to the south of Colombo, for example off Dehiwala and Beruwala (Madhu, 1996). In the South Coast, the main collection areas are around Galle, Weligama and Tangalle. Although Wood (1985) names Kirinda also as a collection area, NARA (1998) is of the view that such an identification “is completely wrong”. The Hikkaduwa Marine Reserve used to be an important collecting site, but is no longer a site for fish collection since it is now well protected, particularly by the local stakeholder community. The Basses reefs, although reputed to support large fish populations, are not popular collecting locations since they are too far offshore and are subjected to strong currents and heavy seas for much of the year (Wood, 1985).

In the East Coast, the important collection area in Sri Lanka is in the vicinity of Trincomalee. The harbour itself is a good source and the area just to its north, off Kuchaveli and Nilaveli, and around Pigeon Island, Kalmunai are also heavily utilised. There are similar collecting areas just to the south of Trincomalee, and also off Passedukah (Thannadi Bay) and Kaldukah where there are reported to be well developed reefs, though the security situation has restricted collections somewhat. In the North Coast, the Jaffna area contains relatively shallow, turbid water, but it had in the past been an important collecting area particularly for species that did not occur elsewhere in the seas around Sri Lanka.

The keeping of species in home aquaria depends on the ecology, including feeding biology, of the fish species. For example, it is impossible to maintain coral-eating species unless coral is also cultivated in aquaria – which is not possible without stringent water quality controls. Even so, the export trade does catch and export coral-eating fish such as some butterfly fish. Since it is impossible to maintain them in home aquaria for long periods, the trade itself refers to these species as ‘cut flower’ species (J Gunawardena, pers. com.). These species are shown in the table below. The export of such species should not be allowed as it only leads to habitat disturbance and destruction.

Table 7.5 “Cut-Flower” marine fishes currently exported from Sri Lanka

Source An overview of the ornamental aquatic sector in Sri Lanka - Jonathan K.L.Mee (1993)

<i>Species</i>	<i>Common Names</i>
<i>Chaetodon bennetti</i>	Bennett’s Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon citrinellus</i>	Lemon Butterflyfish, Citrine Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon meyeri</i>	Meyer’s Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon octofasciatus</i>	Eight-stripe Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon ornatissimus</i>	Ornate Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon plebius</i>	Blue Spot Butterflyfish, Plebius Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon triangulum</i>	Triangle Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon trifascialis</i>	Chevron Butterflyfish
<i>Chaetodon trifasciatus</i>	Melon Butterflyfish, Sunset Butterflyfish

74 Status of related marine habitats

The marine habitat with which marine fish collection for the export aquarium trade is most closely associated, and indeed dependent directly, is undoubtedly the reef habitat. It is recorded that most coral reefs in Sri Lanka have been degraded or destroyed by a multitude of causes including coral mining, fishing with explosives, sedimentation, pollution, removal of reef organisms, anchoring and removal of coral for the curio trade (e.g., De Bruin, 1972; Salm, 1975;

Jonklans, 1985; Ekaratne, 1989a, 1989b, 1990b, 1997c, Wood, 1985; Costa, 1989; Ohman *et al.*, 1993; Dassanayake, 1994; Rajasuriya et al., 1995; Rajasuriya and White, 1995).

Most of the known reefs, particularly readily accessible near-shore reefs, are degraded due to human-induced damage (Ekaratne, 1990b, 1997c). Reefs in better condition, with over 50% of live hermatypic cover, are present at the Bar Reef off the north west coast, at the Great and Little Basses which are located off the south east coast and a few reefs in the southern coast, including Hikkaduwa in the south-west. Reef sites at Hikkaduwa and Bar Reef constitute the only two legally protected marine sanctuaries in Sri Lanka, the former having been accorded sanctuary status in 1979, the latter in 1992 (Pernetta, 1993). Although legal enactments for reef and reef-related protection are well in place, implementation and monitoring are grossly inadequate, on account of which reef degradation practices continue. (Ekaratne, 1990b, 1997c; Nakatani *et al.*, 1994; White and Ekaratne, 1995). However NARA (1998), expressed a different viewpoint while commenting on the draft of this report. It said "It is grossly incorrect to state that lack of monitoring is one of the main reasons for the continuation of reef degradation practices".

The reef habitat in Sri Lanka suffers from a high sediment and particulate matter load as well as pollution from land-based sources (Ekaratne, 1997c). In July 1998, coastal habitats including reefs near Colombo experienced crude-oil pollution through a severed pipeline. What effects this has had on coastal habitats has not been looked at in detail. However, oil pollution is now a realistic impact that needs to be considered. Although high sediment and particulate matter loads were said to affect reef habitats (e.g., Rajasuriya and White, 1995; Ekaratne, 1990b, 1997a), it was only in 1996 that data gathering by the University of Colombo commenced. This data, limited to Hikkaduwa Marine Reserve, demonstrated that the reef at the south-west of Sri Lanka experienced high loads of particulate matter, including sandy material, from May to November, with maximum loads of up to 3.2 kg day⁻¹ m⁻² (Ekaratne, 1997c).

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The damage and changes to habitat quality brought about by the above changes will have serious effects on fish population numbers and structure as well as on species composition. Such factors have been known to bring about changes in reef structure, biodiversity, succession and ecosystem functions.

Over the years, many experienced collectors and exporters in Sri Lanka involved in the trade, as also several conservationists, referred to the changing status of reef habitats when they spoke of coral reef fish collected for the aquarium trade having become less abundant now. The lack of quantitative data, however, makes these statements non-verifiable. Whether this trend towards fish reduction is because of over-collection – either by itself or in concert with other causes such as pollution – cannot be verified because of paucity of data.

SECTION 8

Activities Affecting Species Survival, Habitat Integrity and Management

Sustainability of fish populations, as well as the continued existence of fish species, is closely linked to habitat quality and integrity. If fish harvests exceed the numbers that are recruited to the population based on the reproductive capacity of that species and the supporting capacity of the habitat, then such harvests would exceed the sustainable yield. The population would then gradually decline in the presence of continued fishing pressure. Eventually the very survival of that species would be threatened. The loss of habitat quality would accelerate population decline and species extinction through effects on recruitment, mortality, growth and other life functions. It is less difficult to relate population fluctuations of freshwater fish populations to their causal factors, compared to the situation in reef fishes. This is because the logistics of fish sampling and habitat heterogeneity make it easier to census and monitor most freshwater fish populations than reef fish populations.

Both human-induced and natural causes are known to affect freshwater and reef fish populations. Given this complexity, it becomes particularly difficult to assess the impact of outside influences, such as collection for the aquarium trade, on natural fish populations.

8.1 Export-trade related activities affecting species survival, habitat integrity and management

Improper collection, over-collection, selective collection of the more attractively coloured individuals, improper holding and transport as well as packing methods – all these directly affect species survival.

Collection by the aquarium trade seems to have some impact on fish numbers, both freshwater and marine. It cannot yet be ascertained whether fish numbers depleted for aquarium collections recover over time, such as by the following season, particularly since sea conditions do not permit continuous fishing at any one location over the entire year. Also, recruitment processes are not well understood. The depletion of fish numbers is borne out by persons in the trade itself since some state that populations and required sizes of many species get significantly depleted over the collecting season as it progresses, because specific sites are heavily exploited for up to six months at a time. Collectors also admit that they have had to gradually go further deep using SCUBA gear in their collection for fish. The tendency to capture all specimens of high value during collection would also contribute to population depletion.

Improper collection techniques damage the fish and also destroy the habitat. Fish are sometimes captured by collectors breaking off pieces of coral (especially *Acropora*) in which the fish are hiding. The “moxy net” which is used to collect fish by snorkel divers is destructive.

The umbrella-shaped moxy net is closed at the top, and is open at about 1m or more below. Small lead weights are attached along the open perimeter. The net is opened and positioned over corals or other places where fish are located and are in hiding. Thereafter, the collector bangs on the coral with an iron rod or similar object to frighten the fish out of their refuge and into the net. Most often, this process damages the coral.

Although the destructive nature of fish collection methods has been mentioned in many places, no description is found in any literature about the various collection methods used in Sri Lanka, and the advantages and disadvantages of each method used in the freshwater and marine sub-sectors. That would have provided some guidelines regarding the methods to be licensed for this fishery (Sivasubramaniam, 1998: comments on Draft Report).

The serious consequences of the shortfalls in the assessment and monitoring of the collection, aquaculture and export of aquatic animals and plants, and the difficulties faced by the Customs in Sri Lanka, were highlighted by Gunasekera

(1995), and also when Mr S Gunasekera of the Sri Lanka Customs presented a paper on “Effects of export promotion on aquatic resources conservation” (Theme seminar: conservation of aquatic resources for the 21st Century. Sri Lanka Association for Fisheries and Aquatic Resources, SLAFAR, 25 & 26 June 1997). These problems and issues which cause loss of revenue and loss of valuable species and also probably affect biodiversity, included:

- the absence of appropriate laws/ regulations requiring exporters to use accepted and correct scientific names resulting in the illegal export of protected or valuable endemic species under numerous names. This was in evidence when exporters used a variety of names to describe the same species such as Redfin or Melon or Purple Butterflyfish to describe *Chaetodon trifaciatius*. The use of names of fish in Customs returns such as *Neopomacentrus nemurus* that does “not even occur in Sri Lanka” (NARA, 1998) could similarly be the use of incorrect names
- the lack of regulations requiring exporters to declare whether exported stock was collected from the wild, from aquaculture activities or was imported for re-export. This created problems for record keeping and monitoring. Example, when a re-exported species such as *Acanthurus sohal* which is found in the Arabian Sea, Red Sea and the Persian Gulf region (NARA, 1998) is not demarcated clearly as a re-export (see Table 7.3)
- the lack of regulations with regard to conditions for export of various vertebrates, invertebrates and plants, resulting in poor handling and packaging leading to heavy mortality among the animals. For example, space and water volume in the export pack are sometimes reduced in order to decrease freight charges
- insufficient coverage of all valuable endemic species in the country
- absence of established market values and floor prices for each species, creating problems in establishing levels of punishment or penalty for offences
- difficulty in finding sufficient time for Customs officials to check every shipment for characteristics that require monitoring such as size measurements of fish or parts of the fish and the spawning conditions of the fish
- illegal shipment and under-invoicing or under-valuation of shipments

Although excessive pre-export starvation may lead to weakening and mortality of exported fish, the practice of starving the fish prior to export or transport for 1-2 days is a normal practice adopted by aquaculturists. This is done in order to reduce or minimize fecal matter which pollutes the water used for transport of fish, thus reducing ammonia and other toxic compounds produced during breakdown of fecal matter. Presence of higher levels of fecal matter results in oxygen depletion in the water in addition to the toxic effect of ammonia and other compounds during transport of fish. Hence pre-export starving of fish is beneficial for their survival during transport. Starving of fish even for much longer periods (eg. one week) will not have much impact on them provided they are properly fed after that period. (J Chandarasoma, 1998: comments on Draft Report)

Even before the fish are packed for export, improper catching, transport and holding methods take their toll on fish numbers causing heavy mortality. Therefore, in order to make up for these high mortalities, large quantities are collected from the wild, impacting wild stocks to an unnecessarily large extent.

The problem of information required for effective management of the fishery – because of secrecy about collection areas, species and quantities collected and marketed domestically and abroad, needs to be addressed. This cannot be overcome without introducing regulations concerning the use of standardised names on Customs and export declarations, and the registration and licensing of ornamental fish collectors, traders and exporters and the mandatory declaration of all relevant information for the successful renewal of their licenses (Sivasubramaniam, 1998: comments on Draft Report). Detailed formats, for data to be declared by various categories of people involved in this industry, have already been prepared by Dr. K. Sivasubramaniam.

8.2 Activities extraneous to the export trade affecting species survival, habitat integrity and management

A diversity of factors external to the export trade such as deforestation, improper use of agrochemicals, habitat alteration and destruction, water diversion schemes, introduction of exotic species, infrastructure development in areas of significance to species survival, gemming, etc., affect species survival. Some of these are discussed by Pethiyagoda (1994). All these are a result of the non-existence of a coherent policy framework for sustained and integrated development. In such a vacuum, it is counter-productive to elaborate on the above factors.

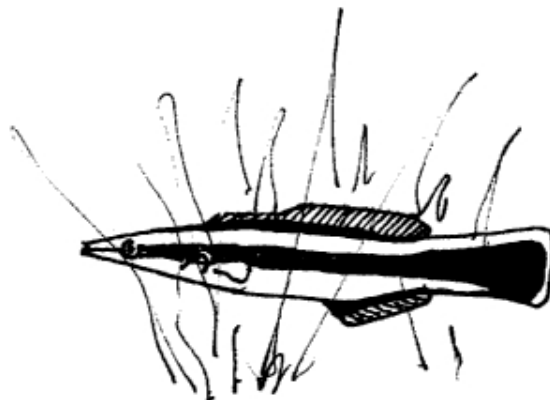
The development of an integrated policy is central to addressing these multi-disciplinary issues.

Various reef resources are extracted and utilised by coastal communities, without any practical limitations or management measures being imposed on their exploitation. Impacts resulting from land-based polluting practices further erode the resource base of the reef ecosystems, strengthening the forces that lead to reef degradation (Ekaratne, 1990b). There seems little prospect of this trend being stemmed; on the contrary, it is believed that the projected expansion of coastal communities in Sri Lanka over the next few decades (Olsen et al, 1992), and the increasing focus on locating industries along the coastal zone would further aggravate the impact on our coral reef resources. The need for sustainable management of Sri Lanka's coral reef ecosystems and their resources is therefore urgent.

Among the foremost destructive practices that impact directly on the physical structure of the reef are the removal of coral for conversion into wall plastering material, the removal of reef organisms for the export aquarium industry, fishing practices that employ explosives and the indiscriminate use of fishing nets. Various pollutants – sediment arising from unsound land-use practices, agro-chemicals derived from agricultural overuse, and wastes draining into reefs from sewage and industry lead to reef degradation and loss of reef biodiversity (Herath, 1990; Ekaratne, 1990a, 1990b; White and Ekaratne, 1995; Ohman *et al.*, 1993; Costa, 1989; Dassanayake, 1994).

Reports say that the Crown-of-thorns starfish, *Acanthaster planci*, has increased periodically to form large populations in reefs on the east and north-west coasts (De Bruin, 1972; Rajasuriya and Rathnapriya, 1994). Following in the wake of anthropogenic disturbances, organisms such as didemnids, corallivorous gastropods, sponges and algal species like *Halimeda* and *Ulva* (Ekaratne, 1997c) have invaded Sri Lankan coral reefs.

Physical removal of reef organisms, whether as a target species (such as in the aquarium trade) or as a non-target species (such as in the dynamite fishery or in set-nets laid on the reef to catch spiny lobsters) will also exert pressure directly on species of interest to the aquarium trade. Adults and semi-adults of various ornamental species, including *Heniochus acuminatus*, *Chaetodon falcata*, *C. auriga*, *Acanthurus leucosternon*, and *Zanclus canescens* are said to be caught in traps and beach-seines. Some fisheries are said to account for many fish of little food value but of considerable importance for the live export trade, such as *Tetrasoma gibbosus*, *Lactoria cornuta* and *Diodon holocanthus*. These are generally thrown away, whether alive or dead (Wood, 1985, Jonklaas, 1985). Specific ornamental species, including *Anthias* spp and *Dascyllus*, are known to be fished deliberately as bait for the tuna and skipjack fishery (Jonklaas, 1985; Anderson, 1997). Other factors which may have led to the decline in numbers of ornamental fish include reef degradation and the food fishery (Wood, 1985).



SECTION 9

The Status of Relevant Information for Resource and Habitat Management

Marine habitats and their inhabitants have attracted far less research and study than terrestrial habitats or freshwaters. Therefore, much less information is available for management of marine aquarium fish resources than for freshwater fish resources.

The sustainability of all aquatic resources depends on the extraction pressure or rate of extraction. Where an aquatic resource such as a fish resource is renewable, its sustainability will depend on its regenerating capacity, linked to its reproduction and growth characteristics. For effective management of natural populations, therefore, it is necessary to get the relevant biological and ecological data in order to ensure that the resource is not over-exploited and that the habitat is not adversely impacted. This data is also required for information dissemination to interested personnel and stakeholders.

The other important data needed relates to extraction pressure – numbers of collectors, quantities collected and exported, etc. It is expected that the licensing scheme of the Ministry of Fisheries, which is under way, will generate this data.

9.1 Information required for sustainable management

The concept of sustainability has been around for a long time, although it has entered popular culture only relatively recently. Its recent interpretation views sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WECD, 1987). This concept interlinks the conservation and sustainable use aspects and leads us to the concept of sustainable management of our natural resources, including our rich heritage of biological diversity.

9.1.1 Status of information Available for Sustainable Management

The programme started recently by the Ministry of Fisheries to license fish collectors will yield information on fish collection. Together with customs data on exports, it should be possible to generate some information about extraction pressure on the natural resource base. Such an information base is not fully developed as yet.

Some qualitative data on the ecological/biological aspects of the freshwater aquarium fish resource is available, particularly through the work of Pethiyagoda (1991) and Senanayake (1980). This and other available data for freshwater fish are summarised above, in Section 6.

As regards the marine aquarium resource, extremely little information is available. Detailed quantitative data on reefs, reef processes and data on the diversity of the reef biota are lacking for Sri Lankan reefs (Ekaratne, 1997c). As for the species base of our reef ecosystems, species diversity and richness are known with some degree of comprehensiveness only for the scleractinian coral and fish fauna. Data on the status and condition of a few Sri Lanka reefs is available from a few reef surveys carried out so far by the National Aquatic Resources Agency (NARA). It is essential for NARA to expand its surveys to include other reef areas. NARA is well equipped to do such surveys and some of the reefs have been surveyed qualitatively for fish and scleractinian coral cover, but not for other organisms, while the extensive reef formations in the north and east have not been surveyed due to security reasons.

NARA's survey programme has revealed the existence of 183 species of stony corals in 68 genera, and over 300 species of fish in 62 families, including 35 species of Butterflyfish, as also the occurrence of spiny lobsters, dolphins, whale sharks and five species of sea turtles. Another three species of stony corals new to Sri Lanka

and two species new to science were discovered early this year (Ekaratne *et al.*, in prep.). The common reef-building corals belong to the families of Acroporidae, Agariciidae, Faviidae, Caryophyllidae, Merulinidae, Mussidae, Oculinidae, Pocilloporidae and Poritidae. Common octocorals include *Sarcophyton*, *Sinularia* and dendronephthids. (Mergner and Scheer, 1974; Rajasuriya, 1994; Rajasuriya and de Silva 1988; Ekaratne, 1997c).

In relation to the smaller animals (mostly invertebrates) that contribute and maintain the complex inter-relationships of reef ecosystems, we know almost nothing or very little. To fill these gaps, a start has been made only now, as for example with the Biodiversity Skills Enhancement Project implemented by March for Conservation (MfC), Sri Lanka. This organisation provides taxonomic training, particularly with regard to reef invertebrates, and a data base is being compiled for these organisms (e.g., Ekaratne *et al.*, 1997b).

Mergner and Scheer (1974) provide the only documentation on zonation of a reef habitat in Sri Lanka, indicating the paucity of knowledge on such important issues. Quantitative data on reefs are lacking, and studies on reef ecological processes have commenced only recently at Colombo University. It has been found that, at Hikkaduwa Sanctuary, coral recruitment extended almost throughout the year, and was maximum from May to August. In south-west reefs, the linear growth of *Acropora formosa* ranged from 5.0 to 18.7 mm month⁻¹, with maximum growth in February/March and a lesser peak in September/October. *A. formosa* weight increments were high from March to July and peaked in June/July, in phase with pre-recruitment periods. Plankton studies of reef lagoons are likewise lacking and are limited to a study by Colombo University where annual cycles of plankton availability are being documented (Ekaratne, 1997c, Samaraweera and Ekaratne, 1996; Abeysirigunawardena and Ekaratne, 1998).

Data on physico-chemical factors associated with reefs are also lacking and are limited to a few studies, including that of Colombo University. It is surprising that though sediment and particulate matter have been widely identified as one of the major impacting agents on reef ecosystems (e.g., Rajasunya and White, 1995; Ekaratne, 1990b, 1997a), no related documentary data existed up to last year. A Colombo University study undertaken last year showed that south-west reefs experienced high loads of particulate matter, including sandy material, from May to November, with maximum loads of up to 3.2 kg day⁻¹m². Such studies are urgently needed for other reef locations over acceptable time scales.

The removal of coral ("coral mining") for conversion into wall plastering material is well documented by the Coast Conservation Department (CCD), while reef organism removal for the export aquarium industry was the focus of a study by Wood (1985). The status of marine aquarium fish is being studied under the leadership of Dr Elizabeth Wood (by the Marine Conservation Society jointly with NARA, on a Darwin Initiative funding programme). This would form a very good data base on completion. Colombo University is cataloguing the exports in the aquarium export trade. Together with the above-mentioned Darwin Initiative study, the results would form a robust data base on this trade practice. The Crown-of-thorns starfish, *Acanthaster planci*, merits further study. So do the effects of other organisms (such as didemnids, corallivorous gastropods, sponges and algal species like *Halimeda* and *Ulva*) on reef ecosystems bioerosion studies; some of which are being presently carried out by Colombo University.

Developing in situ methods suited for sustainable management is an accepted priority area in resource management. Some preliminary work carried out by the University of Colombo at Hikkaduwa Marine Sanctuary, using *Acropora* species, indicates the feasibility of re-establishment, restoration and rehabilitation of degraded reef areas. These methods require field testing on a broader scale and constitute another important area meriting future research focus, particularly in view of the coral bleaching and mortality that is being experienced over a wide geographic scale.

Reef-associated habitats which have a high biodiversity and nursery value also require identification for effective reef management and for planning the design of a Protected Area Network. Such habitats have been identified

by Colombo University. These include *Halimeda* mats that harbour a rich diversity of organisms (polychaetes, amphipods, shrimps, crabs, molluscs, bryozoans, ascidians, foraminiferans, nemerteans, pycnogonids and platyhelminths). During periods of strong wave force, *Halimeda* clumps also served as a protective nursery habitat for a number of reef-associated organisms, including pipe fish, gobies, ophiuroids, holothuroids, echinoids, crabs, olives and other molluscs (Ekaratne, 1997c).

Identification of niche types that are associated with reef ecosystems have been carried out to a limited extent by Colombo University, where six niche types have been identified at the Hikkaduwa Marine Sanctuary (Abeyasingunawardena and Ekaratne, 1996). Studies on food and feeding of a few reef-dwelling fish species have been carried out at Colombo University (Janz, Ekaratne and Perera, 1996). Such studies would also assist in designing protected areas by identifying types and threshold levels of various interacting species that are required to maintain the desired fish species biodiversity and richness within a defined reef area.

9.1.2 Information & Training Required for Sustainable Management

Applying sound comprehensive scientific information to the development of a national fishery policy can reduce or eliminate much of the uncertainty that is impeding protection of freshwater and marine fisheries today. Implementation of science-based fishery management plans will help resolve the problems facing some fisheries, such as overfishing and the loss of spawning and nursery habitat, including fragile freshwater and coastal habitats. But improved management and correction of overfishing alone will not be enough to overcome the decline in fish stocks. Protection and restoration of aquatic ecosystems and proper care of watersheds and riparian habitats are critically important. New policies need to be initiated and existing ones continued and enhanced to eliminate, mitigate, and prevent activities that degrade habitats.

There is little reef expertise in the country, with not more than a handful of people engaged in established reef research programmes. This lack of suitably qualified and trained personnel is identified as the main impediment to the collection of research data enabling effective conservation and sustainable management of Sri Lankan reefs.

A basic requirement for sustainable management of a natural resource is to know our species base (species diversity and species richness) and get acquainted with the interacting ecological processes that sustain this species base, in turn requiring that the biological diversity be understood.

The sustainable utilisation of a natural resource, such as an exploitable fish species, requires that we have data with regard to the quantities that we can harvest without impairing its potential to maintain a population size with which the species can perpetuate itself in the long term. For estimating such quantities, we need to know the following;

- population sizes
- population-influencing processes, such as growth, reproduction, interactions, environmental impacts, etc.
- the influence that harvestable quantities would have on the population
- measures that could be adopted for stock regeneration whenever it becomes necessary to do so

The training of more researchers in reef ecology would be pivotal for understanding the ecological processes that need to be incorporated into appropriate reef management strategies in Sri Lanka. Personnel who have high quality university degrees, and thus the academic background to understand ecosystem processes, need to be trained with a view to developing a good ecological research perspective.

Conservation, by itself and for its own sake, would mean keeping the natural resource without subjecting it to anthropogenic change through its utilisation and would be possible only within legally protected areas, such as marine reserves.

Such conservation would require that we identify areas which would characterise representative reefecosystems that, in our opinion, merit their being preserved outside the influence of human intervention. For this purpose of identifying areas for conservation, it is necessary for us to have a sufficiently robust data base that would yield information as to the variety, richness and spatial functions of the habitats within reef ecosystems. Research to collect the data for such an information base is therefore important if we are to delimit conservation areas or zones and accord them legally protected status.

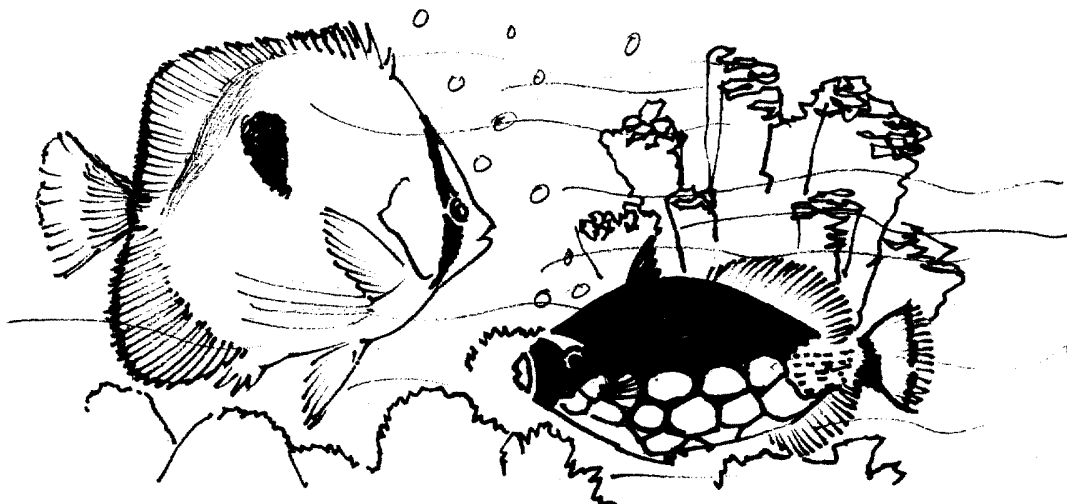
Conservation could also mean the conservation of a given species or a number of species. This however, would become meaningful for coral reef conservation only if such species conservation was carried out as part of a functioning ecosystem (as *in situ* conservation), rather than in isolation or away from its normal habitat (= *ex situ* conservation). The advantage of *in situ* conservation is that it would conserve not only the species in question, but other interacting species and, of course, the ecosystem as a functional entity.

As against conservation, sustainable management requires a far greater input of time, effort, personnel and other resources as well as a more detailed information data base that needs to be updated continuously and related to the management strategy that is being applied. Sustainable management also requires that the user community be educated about the advantages of using a resource sustainably as against using it as a “common property” natural resource where every user would exploit the resource maximally without being accountable for its long-term upkeep or sustainability.

Sustainable management depends on a cohesive holistic approach. Ecological data is only one of its necessary components. Data relating to socio-economics, education, community empowerment, policy and institutional reform and major land-use methods should be used both separately and in combination to establish an integrated practical strategy over a period of time.

9.2 A Final Word

The multitude of exploitative and resource-degrading practices carried on at present in Sri Lanka together with the paucity of knowledge on reef and freshwater ecology, dictate that a precautionary approach be speedily adopted for sustainable management of Sri Lanka’s aquatic ecosystems. This is essential so that these ecosystems can continue to sustain the capacity of the aquarium export trade to generate jobs and earn foreign exchange, as well as meet the requirements of future generations. It is their natural resources which we hold in trust.



SECTION 10

Literature of relevance to management of aquarium fish and their habitats

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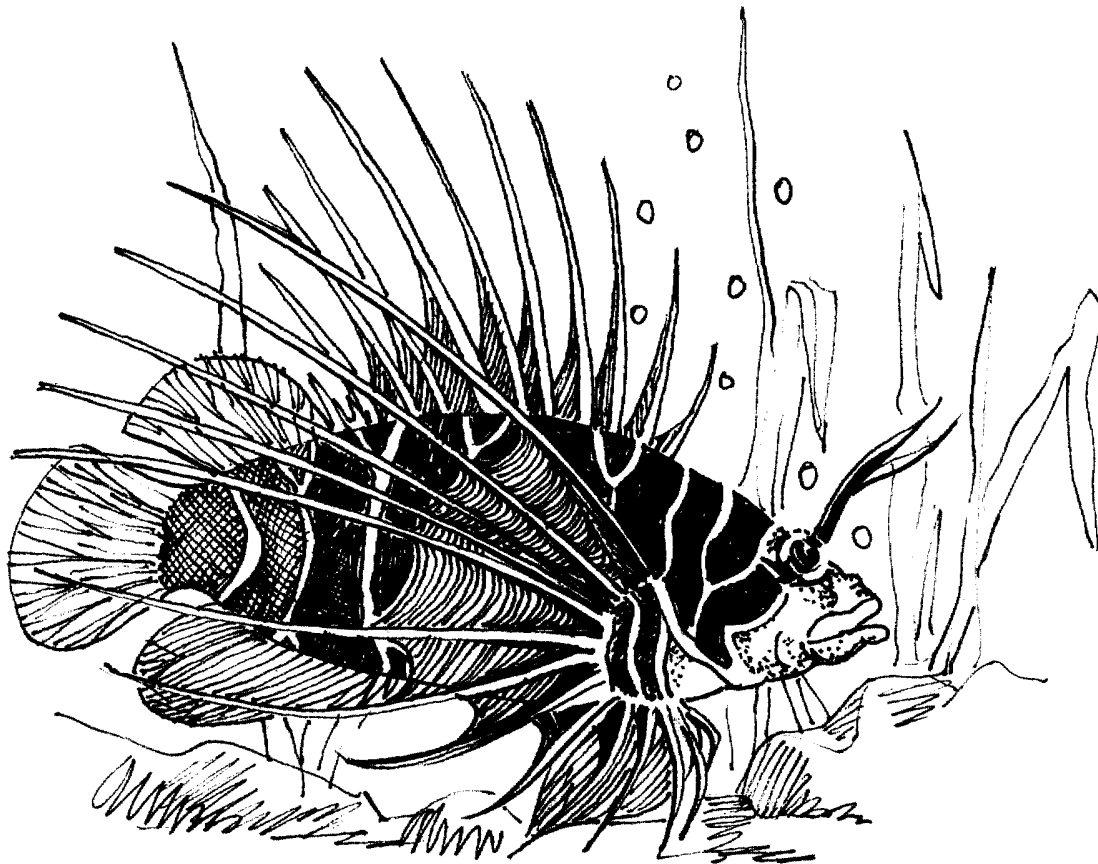
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SECTION 11

Annexes

Annex 1. Commonly used vernacular names of exported freshwater aquarium fish

<i>Zoological name</i>	<i>English name</i>	<i>Sinhala name</i>
1. <i>Anguilla bicolor</i>	Level-finned eel	<i>Kalu aandha</i>
2. <i>Chela laubuca</i>	Blue laubuca	<i>Tatu dandiya</i>
3. <i>Danio malabaricus</i>	Giant danio	<i>Ruth kailaya</i>
4. <i>Daniopathirana</i>	Barred danio	
5. <i>Esomus thermoicos</i>	Flying barb	<i>Ravul dandiva</i>
6. <i>Garra ceylonensis</i>	Stone sucker	<i>Gal pandi</i>
7. <i>Puntius amphibius</i>	Scarlet-banded barb	<i>Mada ipila</i>
8. <i>Puntius asoka</i>	Asoka barb	<i>Asoka pethiya</i>
9. <i>Puntius bimaculatus</i>	Redside barb	<i>ipili kadaya</i>
10. <i>Puntius chola</i>	Swamp barb	<i>Kota ipilla</i>
11. <i>Puntius cumingii</i>	Cuming's barb	<i>Pothaya</i>
12. <i>Puntius dorsalis</i>	Long-snouted barb	<i>Katu kureya</i>
13. <i>Puntiusf/ainentosus</i>	Filamented barb	<i>Pethiva</i>
14. <i>Puntius nigrofasciatus</i>	Black ruby barb	<i>Bulath hapaya</i>
15. <i>Puntius pleurotaenia</i>	Black-lined barb	<i>Hitha messa</i>
16. <i>Puntius ticto</i>	Tic-tac-toe barb	<i>Thith pethiya</i>
17. <i>Puntius titteya</i>	Cherry barb	<i>Lay thiththeya</i>
18. <i>Puntius vittatus</i>	Silver barb	<i>Podipethiya</i>
19. <i>Rasbora daniconius</i>	Striped rasbora	<i>Dandiya</i>
20. <i>Rasbora vaterifloris</i>	Golden rasbora	<i>Hal mal dandiya</i>
21. <i>Lepidocephalichthys thermalis</i>	Common spiny loach	<i>Ehirava</i>
22. <i>Acanthobitis urophthalmus</i>	Tiger loach	<i>Vairan ehirava</i>
23. <i>Schistura notostigma</i>	Banded mountain loach	<i>Kandu ehirava</i>
24. <i>Mystus gulio</i>	Long-whiskered catfish	<i>Anguluwa</i>
25. <i>Mystus keletius</i>	Yellow catfish	<i>Path ankutta</i>
26. <i>Mystus vittatus</i>	Striped dwarf catfish	<i>lri ankutta</i>
27. <i>Ompok bimaculatus</i>	Butter catfish	<i>Walapoththa</i>
28. <i>Heteropneustes fossilis</i>	Stinging catfish	<i>Hunga</i>

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29. <i>Oryzias melastigma</i>	Blue eye	<i>Hande titteya</i>
30. <i>Aplocheilus dayi</i>	Day's killifish	<i>Uda handeya</i>
31. <i>Aplocheilus parvus</i>	Dwarf panchax	<i>Udda</i>
32. <i>Aplocheilus weneri</i>	Werner's killifish	<i>fri handeya</i>
33. <i>Microphis brachyurus</i>	Short-tailed pipefish	
34. <i>Monodactylus argenteus</i>	Mono	<i>Kapuwa</i>
35. <i>Toxotes charareus</i>	Archer fish	<i>Dhimitta</i>
36. <i>Scatophagus argus</i>	Scat	<i>Ilatthiya</i>
37. <i>Etroplus maculatus</i>	Orange chromide	<i>Kaha koraliya</i>
38. <i>Etroplus suratensis</i>	Pearl spot	<i>Koraliya</i>
39. <i>Butis butis</i>	Upside down sleeper	<i>Vaneya</i>
40. <i>Eleotrisfusca</i>	Brown gudgeon	<i>Puwak badilla</i>
41. <i>Glossogobius giuris</i>	Bar eyed goby	<i>Weligowwa</i>
42. <i>Redigobius bairearops</i>	Rhino-horn goby	
43. <i>Schismatogobius deraniyagalai</i>	Red-neck goby	
44. <i>Sicyopterus grisseus</i>	Gara	
45. <i>Sicyopus jonklaasi</i>	Lipstick goby	
46. <i>Anabas testudineus</i>	Climbing perch	<i>Kavaiya</i>
47. <i>Belontia signata</i>	Combtail	<i>Thalkossa</i>
48. <i>Malpulurra kretseri</i>	Ornate paradisefish	<i>Malpulutta</i>
49. <i>Pseudosphromenus cupanus</i>	Spike-tailed paradisefish	<i>Pulutta</i>
50. <i>Channa orienralis</i>	Smooth-breasted snakehead	<i>Kola kanaya</i>
51. <i>Channa striata</i>	Murrel	<i>Loolla</i>
52. <i>Macrognathus aral</i>	Lesser spiny eel	<i>Bata kola theliya</i>
53. <i>Mastacembelus armatus</i>	Marbled spiny eel	<i>Gan theliya</i>
54. <i>Tetraodonfluviatilis</i>	Common puffer	<i>Paeththaya</i>

**Annex 2. Names under which marine fish are exported from / through Sri Lanka
as recorded in Customs returns from exporters (note that a single fish species
is sometimes referred to by multiple names)**

<i>Group</i>	<i>Family</i>	<i>Scientific name</i>
Surgeon fish (15 spp.)	Acanthuridae (23 + spp.)	<i>Acanthurus bariene</i>
		<i>Acanthurus blochii</i>
		<i>Acanthurus ibelie</i>
		<i>Acanthurus leucosternon</i>
		<i>Acanthurus lineatus</i>
		<i>Acanthurus nigricans</i>
		<i>Acanthurus pyroferus</i>
		<i>Acanthurus sohal</i>
		<i>Acanthurus tennentii</i>
		<i>Acanthurus trioglossus/triostegus</i>
		<i>Acanthurus xanthopterus</i>
		<i>Acanthurus nigroris</i>
		<i>Ctenochaetus marginatus</i>
		<i>Ctenochaetus striatus</i>
		<i>Ctenochaetus strigosus</i>
<i>Paracanthurus hepatus</i>		
Unicorn fish (3+spp.)	Acanthuridae	<i>Naso brevirostris</i>
		<i>Naso lituratus</i>
		<i>Naso viamingi</i>
		<i>Naso sp.</i>
Tangs (5+ spp.)	Acanthuridae	<i>Zebrosoma desjardini</i>
		<i>Zebrosoma scopas</i>
		<i>Zebraasoma veliferum</i>
		<i>Naso lituratus</i>
		<i>Zebrosoma xanthurus</i>
		<i>Zebrosoma sp.</i>
Glass fish (1 sp)	Ambassidae (1 sp)	<i>Ambassis sp.</i>
Frog Fish (2+ spp.)	Antennariidae (2+ spp.)	<i>Antennarius hispidus</i>
		<i>Antennarius biocellatus</i>

Contd

Cardinal fish (2+ spp.)	Apogonidae (2+ spp.)	<i>Antennarius</i> sp. <i>Histrion histrio</i> <i>Apogon angustatus</i> <i>Apogon</i> sp. (<i>A. cyanosoma</i> , <i>A. Endeketaenia</i>) <i>Sphaeramia nematoptera</i> <i>aculeatus</i> = <i>Rhinecanthus aculeatus</i> <i>Balistoides conspicillum</i> <i>Balistapus undulatus</i> <i>Balistoides viridescence</i> <i>Monocanthus parda/is</i> <i>Melichthys indicus</i> <i>Odonus niger</i> <i>Oxymonocanthus longiristris</i> <i>Pseudobalistes fuscus</i> <i>Pseudobalistes flavimarginatus</i> <i>Rhinecanthus assasi</i> <i>Rhinecanthus acu/eatus</i> <i>Rhinecanthus rectangulus</i> <i>Rhinecanthus verrucosus</i> <i>Sufflamen bursa</i> <i>Sufflamen chrysopterus</i> <i>Balistes rectangulus</i> <i>Balistes aculiatius</i>
Trigger fish (16+spp.)	Balistidae (16+spp.)	<i>Blennies</i> <i>Strongylura ancisa</i> <i>Ecsenius pulcher</i> <i>Ecsenius bicolor</i> <i>Ecsenius lineatus</i> <i>Ecsenius midas</i> <i>Ecsenius naucrates</i> <i>Ecsenius frontalis</i> <i>Ecsenius species</i> <i>Me/acanthus smithii</i> <i>Malacanthus brevirostris</i>
Needle fishes (1 spp.)	Belonidae (1 spp.)	
Blennies (10+spp.)	Blennidae (10+spp.)	

Contd

Flounders (5 spp.)	Bothidae (5 spp.)	<i>Plagiotremus sp.</i> <i>Scorpion blenny</i> <i>Bothus mancus??</i> <i>Bothus ocellatus</i> <i>Pseudorhombus jenvnsii</i> <i>Pseudorhombus sp.</i> <i>Scopthalmus aquosus</i> <i>Synchiropus marmoratus</i> <i>Synchiropus sp.</i> <i>Xceinus sp.</i> <i>Caranx sem</i> <i>Gnathanodon speciosus</i> <i>Carcharhinus melanopterus</i> <i>Cheiloscylidium taeniourus</i> <i>Chaetodon auriga</i> <i>Chaetodon chrysurus/xanthurus</i> <i>Chaetodon citrinellus</i> <i>Chaetodon co//are</i> <i>Chaetodon decussatus Ipectus</i> <i>Chaetodonfalcula</i> <i>Chaetodon guttatissimus</i> <i>Chaetodon klenii</i> <i>Chaetodon larvatus</i> <i>Chaetodon lineolatus</i> <i>Chaetodon lunula</i> <i>Chaetodon madagascariensis</i> <i>Chaetodon megaprurorodon</i> <i>Chaetodon melannotus</i> <i>Chaetodon meyeri</i> <i>Chaetodon mesoleucos</i> <i>Chaetodon mitratus</i> <i>Chaetodon oxyfasciatus</i> <i>Chaetodonplebeius</i> <i>Chaetodon rafflesi</i>
Dragonets (1+ sp.)	Callionymidae (1+ sp.)	
Trevallies (2 spp.)	Carangidae (2 spp.)	
Sharks (1+ sp.)	Carcharhinidae (1+ sp)	
Bamboo sharks (1 sp.)		
Butterfly fishes (34+ spp.)	Chaetodontidae (34+spp.)	

Contd...

		<i>Chuetodon semilarvatus</i>
		<i>Chaetodon tennetti</i>
		<i>Chaetodon trafacialis</i>
		<i>Chaetodon train gulum</i>
		<i>Chaetodon trifaciatu</i>
		<i>Chaetodon unimaculatus</i>
		<i>Chaetodon vagabundus</i>
		<i>Chaetodon xanthocephalus</i>
		<i>Forcipiger longirostris</i>
		<i>Hemitaurichthys zoster</i>
		<i>Heniochus permutatus</i>
		<i>Heniochus sp.</i>
		<i>Heniochus pleurotaenia</i>
		<i>Heniochus acuminatus</i>
		<i>Heniochus singlarias</i>
Hawkfishes (5 spp.)	Cirrhitidae (5 spp.)	<i>Cirrhithichthys oxycephelus</i>
		<i>Cirrhithichthys aureus</i>
		<i>Cirrhithichthys griseum</i>
		<i>Oxycirrhites zypus</i>
		<i>Paracirrhitesforsteri</i>
(1 sp.)	Clinidae	<i>Cristiceps aurantiacus</i>
(1 sp.)	Dactyloptidae	<i>Dactyloptera orientalis</i>
Rays (1 sp.)	Dasyatidae	<i>Taeniura lymma</i>
Porcupine fishes (3 spp.)	Diodontidae	<i>Diodon sp.</i>
		<i>Diodon histrix</i>
		<i>Diodon liturosus</i>
Bat /Spade fishes (2 spp.)	Ephippidae/Platicidae	<i>Platax orbicuraris</i>
		<i>Platax teira</i>
Cornet fishes (1 sp.)	Fistularidae	<i>Fistularia commersonii</i>
Mojarras (1 sp.)	Gerridae	<i>Gerres argyreus</i>
Gobies (28 +spp.)	Gobidae	<i>Amblygobius albimacula</i>
		<i>Amblyeleotris guttata</i>
		<i>Amblyeliotris steinitzi</i>
		<i>Amblyeleotris callopareia</i>

Contd

Soap Fish (1 sp.)
Sweetlips (8 spp.)

Grammistidae
Haemulidae

Amblyeleotris sp.
Cryptocentrus cinctus
Fusigobius sp.
Gobiodon citrinus
Gobiodon sp.
Istigobius sp.
Istigobius rigillius
Priolepis cincta
Priolepis cinctus
Ptereleotris evides
Prereleotris zebra
Valencianea puellaris
Anthlygobius species
Gobionellus stigmaticus
Amblyliotris diagonalis
Amblyliotris maculata
valenciennea helsdingenii
Valencinnea sexguttata
Valencianna strigata
Valenciennea longipinnis
Valenciennea wardi
Vajenciennea sp.
Ptereleotris heteropterus
Ptereleotris microlepis
Nemateleotris decora
Nemateleotris magnifica
Gobius viamosa
Amblygobious niger
Gobious niger
Goby species
Grammistes sexlineatus
Gaterin diagrammus
Gaterin lineatus
Gaterin orientalis

Contd...

		<i>Gaterin pictus</i>
		<i>Gaterin sp.</i>
		<i>Plectorhinchus albovittatus</i>
		<i>Plectorhinchus diagrammus</i>
		<i>Plectorhinchus lineatus</i>
		<i>Plectorhynchus orientalis</i>
(1 sp.)	Haloclauidae	<i>Haloc/avidae sp.</i>
Halfbeaks (1 sp.)	Hemiramphidae	<i>Hemiramphus sp.</i>
Sea Horses (2 spp.)	Hippocampidae	<i>Hippocampus kuda</i>
		<i>Hippocampus hippocampus</i>
Squirrel/soldier fishes (9 spp.)	Holocentridae	<i>Myripristis berndti</i>
		<i>Myripristis murdjan</i>
		<i>Neoniphon sammara</i>
		<i>Sargocentron caudimaculatum</i>
		<i>Sargocentron diadema</i>
		<i>Sargocentron spiniferum</i>
		<i>Holocentrus sp.</i>
		<i>Holocentrus diadema</i>
		<i>Holocentrus rubrum</i>
		<i>Holocentrus sargocentron diadema</i>
Flagtails (1 sp.)	Kuhliidae	<i>Kuhlia nwriginata</i>
Wrasses(/Diesel) (42+ spp.)	Labridae	<i>Anampses lineatus</i>
		<i>Anampses melanurus</i>
		<i>Bodianus axillaris</i>
		<i>Bodianus diana</i>
		<i>Bodianus bilunulatus</i>
		<i>Bodianus bicolor</i>
		<i>Cheilinus chiorurus</i>
		<i>Consformosa</i>
		<i>Fissilabrus labroides</i>
		<i>Cons sp.</i>
		<i>Gomphosus greeni</i> G. <i>caeruleus</i>
		<i>Ginogisus varius</i>
		<i>Gomphosus varius</i>

Contd

Halichoenes argus
Halichoenes centriquadrus
Halichoeres marginatus
Halichoeres scapularis
Halichoeres trispilus
Halichoenes zeylonicus
Halichoeres nebulosus
Halichoeres sp.
Hemigymnus fasciatus
Hemigymnus melapterus
Labroides bicolor
Labroides dimidiatus
Labnoides phthirophagus
Macropharyngodon bipartitus
Macropharyngodon geoffroyi
Macropharyngodon ornatus
Novaculichthys taeniorus
Pseudocheilinus hexataenia
Red rare wrasse
Thallasoma hardwicki
Thallasoma lunare
Thallasoma quinqaivirrata
Cons gaimard
Cons gaimard africana
Larabicus quadnilineatus
Gomphosus caeruleus
Cinilahinis sp.
Cirrhylabrus/Cinilahiris rubriventralis
Halichoeres leucoxanthus
Stethojulis trilineata
Halichoenes hortulanus
Cirrhilabrus sp.
Anampses meleagrides
Paracheilinus filamentosus

Contd...

		<i>Halichoeres flavescens</i>
		Wrasses
		<i>Thalassoma lutescens</i>
Emperor fish (2 spp.)	Lethnidae	<i>Lethrinus harak</i>
		<i>Lethrinus ornatus</i>
Snappers (4 spp.)	Lutjanidae	<i>Lutianus sebae</i>
		<i>Lutjanus decussatus</i>
		<i>Lutjanus fulviflamma</i>
		<i>Lutjanus kasmira</i>
(1 sp.)	Microdesmidae	<i>Macolar niger</i>
File fishes (3 spp.)	Monocanthidae	<i>Alutera scripta</i>
		<i>Amanses scopas</i>
		<i>Pervagor melanocephalus</i>
Mullets (1 sp.)	Mugilidae	<i>Mugil sp.</i>
Goat fishes (5 spp.)	Mullidae	<i>Parupeneus barberinus</i>
		<i>Panupeneus bifasciatus</i>
		<i>Parupeneus cyclostomus</i>
		<i>Parupeneus fiavolineatus</i>
		<i>Parupeneus indicus</i>
		<i>Parupeneus sp.</i>
Moray Eels (11+ spp.)	Muraenidae	<i>Echidna zebra</i>
		<i>Echidna nebulosa</i>
		<i>Eel nebulosa</i>
		<i>Gymnorhorax javanicus</i>
		<i>Gymnothonax favagieneus</i>
		<i>Gymnothorax pnasinus</i>
		<i>Gymnothorax funebris</i>
		<i>Gymnothorax tessalata</i>
		<i>Gymnothorax sp.</i>
		<i>Rhinomuraena quaesita</i>
		<i>Siderea grisea</i>
		<i>Gymnomuraena zebra</i>
		<i>Muraehana zebra</i>
		<i>Muraehana brown</i>

Contd...

		<i>Gymnothorax mordax</i>
		<i>Gymnothorax nub i/is</i>
		<i>Muraena tessellata</i>
Sandperches (3 spp.)	Mugiloididae / Pinguipedidae	<i>Mirolabrichthys dispar</i>
		<i>Parapercis clathrata</i>
		<i>Parapercis schuinslands</i>
		<i>Parapercis sp.</i>
Snake Eels (2 spp.)	Ophichthidae/Muraenidae	<i>Myrichthys maculosus</i>
		<i>Myrichthys colubrinus</i>
Cat sharks (1 sp.)	Orectolobidae	<i>Chiloscyllium plagiosum</i>
		<i>Chiloscyllium confusum</i>
Cowfish (1 sp.)		<i>Lactoria cornuta</i>
Boxfish (3 spp.)		<i>Ostracion cubicus</i>
		<i>Ostracion melegris</i>
		<i>Tetrasomus gibbosus</i>
Cat fish (3 spp.)	Plotosidae	<i>Thysanophrys sp.</i>
		<i>Plotosus angularis</i>
		Angels
		<i>Plotosus lineatus</i>
Angel fish (20+ spp.)	Pomacanthidae	<i>Apolemichthys trimaculatus</i>
		<i>Apolemichthys xanthurus</i>
		<i>Apolemichthys armira gei</i>
		<i>Centropyge argi</i>
		<i>Centropyge argus</i>
		<i>Centropyge eibli</i>
		<i>Centropyge multispinis</i>
		<i>Centropyge bluefin</i>
		<i>Centropyge sp.</i>
		<i>Neopomacanthus nemurus</i>
		<i>Pomacanthus annularis</i>
		<i>Pomacanthus asfur</i>
		<i>Pomacanthus imperator</i>
		<i>Pomacanthus semicirculatus</i>
		<i>Pomacanthus sp.</i>

Contd

Damsels, anemone fish (37 spp.) Pomacentridae

Pygoplites diacanthus
Centropyge flavopectoralis
Centropyge acanthops
Pomacanthus maculosus
Holocanthus xanthurus
Holocanthus sp.
Abudefduf saxatilis
Damsels
Abudefduf septemfasciatus
Abudefduf sordidus
Abudefduf vaigiensis
Amphiprion sp.
Amphiprion sebae
Amphiprion nigripes
Amphiprion melanopus
Amphiprion xanthurus
Amphiprion callopareta
Blue damsel
Chromis dimidiata
Chromis ternatensis
Chromis viridis
Chrysiptera biocellata
Chrysiptera glauca
Chrysiptera leucopoma
Chrysiptera unimaculata
Chrysurus chrysurus
Dascyllus aruanus
Dascyllus trimaculatus
Green damsel
Neopomacentrus azysron
Neopomacentrus bonang
Neopomacentrus filamentosus
Neopomacentrus nemurus
Plectroglyphidodon dickii

Contd

		<i>Plectroglyphidodon lacrymatus</i>
		<i>Plectroglyphidodon leucozona</i>
		<i>Pomacentrus amboinensis</i>
		<i>Pomacentrus caeruleus</i>
		<i>Pomacentrus chrysurus</i>
		<i>Pomacentrus species</i>
		<i>Pomacentrus filamentosus</i>
		<i>Pomacentrus melanochir</i>
		<i>Stegastes sp.</i>
		<i>Multispined Damsel</i>
		<i>Paraglyphidodon polycanthus</i>
		<i>Pomacentrus philippinus</i>
		<i>Amblyglyphidodon flavilatus</i>
		<i>Stegastes nigricans</i>
		<i>Stegastes lividus</i>
		<i>Chromis multilineata</i>
		<i>Chromis sp.</i>
		<i>Dascyllus carneus</i>
		<i>Pomacentrus leucostictus</i>
Dottyback fishes (4 spp.)	Pseudochromidae	<i>Pseudochromis wilsoni</i>
		<i>Pseudochromis cupanus</i>
		<i>Pseudochromis flavivertex</i>
		<i>Pseudochromis fridmani</i>
Sting Rays (1 sp.)	Rajidae	<i>Urolophus lobatus</i>
Parrot fishes (6 spp.)	Scaridae	<i>Cetoscarus bicolor</i>
		<i>Scarus dimidiatus</i>
		<i>Scarus fraenatus</i>
		<i>Scarus gibbus</i>
		<i>Scarus rubroviolaceus</i>
		<i>Scarus sordidus</i>
Scats (5 spp.)	Scatophagidae	<i>Scatophagus argus</i>
		<i>Scatophagus bifrons</i>
		<i>Scatophagus rubrifrons</i>
		<i>Scatophagus tetracanthus</i>

Contd

Scorpion/lion fish (8 spp.)	Scorpaenidae	<i>Scatophagus greeni</i> <i>Dendrochirus zebra</i> <i>Dendrochirus biocellatus</i> <i>Dendrochirus brachypterus</i> <i>Inimicus filamentosus</i> <i>Pterois antennata</i> <i>Pterois miles / melas</i> <i>Pterois radiata</i>
Groupers, Basslets (22+ spp.)	Serranidae	<i>Groupers</i> <i>Pterois volitans</i> <i>Cephalopholis argus</i> <i>Cephalopholis boenack</i> <i>Cephalopholis leopardus / leoardus</i> <i>Epinephelus flavocoeruleus</i> <i>Epinephelus hexagonatus</i> <i>Epinephelus lanciolatus</i> <i>Epinephelus merra</i> <i>Mirolabrichthys evansi</i> <i>Nemanthias carberryi</i> <i>Variola louti</i> <i>Cephalopholis miniata</i> <i>Pogonoperca punctata</i> <i>Cephalopholis polleri</i> <i>Anthias squamipinis</i> <i>Anthias kashiva</i> <i>Anthias evansi</i> <i>Anthias fuicherumus</i> <i>Anthias binwculatus</i> <i>Anthias despar</i> <i>Anthias parverastria</i> <i>Anthias squamipinnis</i> <i>Anthias species</i> <i>Anthias luzonensis</i> <i>Carcharinus melanopterus</i>
Sharks (1 sp.)	Sharks	

Contd

Rabbit fishes (3 spp.)	Siganidae	<i>Siganus canaliculatus</i> <i>Siganus javus</i> <i>Siganus lineatus</i>
Barracudas (2 spp.)	Sphyraenidae	<i>Sphynaena jello</i> <i>Corythoichthys paxtoni</i>
Pipe fish (3 spp.)	Syngnathidae/Solenostomidae	<i>Solenostomus sp.</i> <i>Stenopodidae sp.</i> <i>Syngnathus sp./corea</i>
Grunters (1 sp.)	Teraponidae	<i>Terapon jabua</i>
Puffers (8+ spp.)	Puffers	<i>Arothnon hispidus</i> <i>Arothron melagris</i> <i>Arothron nigropunctatus</i> <i>Arothron sp.</i> <i>Canthigasten reticularis</i> <i>Canthigaster margaritara</i> <i>Canthigasterjactator</i> <i>Canthigaster solandri</i> <i>Canthigaster valentini</i>
Electric Rays (1 sp.)	Tropedinidae	<i>Narcine brunneus</i>
Moorish Idol/Tobies (2 spp.)	Zanclidae	<i>Zanclus canescens</i> <i>Zanclus cornutus</i>

**Annex 3, Fish species that have been afforded legal protection
by the Fauna and Flora Protection (Amendment) Act, No 49 of 1993**

Marine Fish (seven species)

<i>Centropyge bispinosus</i>	Two spined angelfish
<i>Pygoplites diacanthus</i>	Regal angelfish
<i>Cons aygula</i>	Clown coris
<i>Labroides bicolor</i>	Bicolor wrasse
<i>Pterois radiata</i>	Lionfish
<i>Platax pinnarus</i>	Batfish
<i>Chaetodon semeion</i>	Golden buttedlytish

Freshwater Fish (12 species)

<i>Labeo fisheri</i>	Green labeo
<i>Labeo porcellus</i>	Orange-fin labeo
<i>Puntius asoka</i>	Asoka barb
<i>Puntius martenstyni</i>	Martenstyn's barb
<i>Puntius srilankensis</i>	Blotched filamented barb
<i>Puntius bandula</i>	Bandula barb
<i>Rasbora wilpita</i>	Wilpita Rasbora
<i>Schismatogobius deraniyagalai</i>	Red-neck Goby
<i>Sicyopterus halei</i>	Red-tailed Goby
<i>Sicyopterus jonklaasi</i>	Lipstick goby
<i>Channa orientalis</i>	Smooth-breasted snakehead
<i>Lepidocephalichthys jonklaasi</i>	Jonklaa's Loach

Annex 4. Marine fish species that have been afforded legal protection by the Fisheries and Aquatic Resources Act, No 2 of 1996

(published on 16.7.1998)

Species prohibited from export in live form (as the first schedule)

(12 species)

<i>Chaetodon semeion</i>	Golden /Dotted butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Centropyge bispinosus</i>	Two-spined angelfish (Pomacanthidae)
<i>Pygoplites diacanthus</i>	Regal angelfish (Pomacanthidae)
<i>Coris aygula</i>	Clown coris (Labridae)
<i>Labroides bicolor</i>	Bicolor wrasse(Labridae)
<i>Pterois radiata</i>	Lionfish (Scorpaenidae)
<i>Platax pinnarus</i>	Batfish (Ephippidae)
<i>Epinephalus lanceolatus</i>	Giant grouper (Serranidae)
<i>Epinephalus flavocaeruleus</i>	Blue and yellow grouper (Serranidae)
<i>Plectorhynchus obscurum</i>	(Haemulidae)
<i>Plectrohynchus albovittatus</i>	Giant sweetlips (Haemulidae)
<i>Chrysiptera kuiteri</i>	Pomacentridae

Species restricted from export - exportable under a permit (as the second schedule)

(17 species)

<i>Chaetodon octofasciatus</i>	butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Chaetodon ornatissimus</i>	Ornate butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Chaetodonfalcula</i>	Saddleback butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Chaetodon xanthocephalus</i>	Yellowhead butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Chaetodon ephippium</i>	Saddled butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Chaetodon unimaculatus</i>	Teardrop butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Chaetodon madagascariensis</i>	butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Chaetodon bennetti</i> 's	butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Chaetodon meyeri</i>	Meyers butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)

<i>Chaetodon trianguluin</i>	Triangular butterflyfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Henjochus monoceros</i>	Masked bannerfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Heniochus pleuroraenia</i>	Phantom bannerfish (Chaetodontidae)
<i>Centropyge flavipectoralis</i>	Yellowfin anglefish (Pomacanthidae)
<i>Balistoides conspicillum</i>	Clown triggerfish (Balistidae)
<i>Pseudobaistes fuscus</i>	Blue/rippled triggerfish (Balistidae)
<i>Variola louti</i>	Lyretail grouper (Serranidae)
<i>Variola aihimarginata</i>	Whitemargin Lyretail grouper (Serranidae)

**Annex 5. Freshwater fish species that have been afforded legal protection
by the Fisheries and Aquatic Resources Act, No.2 of 1996**

(Published on 16.7.1998)

Species prohibited from export in live form (as the first schedule)

(12 species)

<i>Labeofisheri</i>	Green labeo (Cyprinidae)
<i>Labeo porcellus</i>	Orange-fin labeo (Cyprinidae)
<i>Puntius asoka</i>	Asoka barb (Cyprinidae)
<i>Puntius martenstni</i>	Martenstyn's barb (Cyprinidae)
<i>Puntius srilankensis</i>	Blotched filamented barb (Cyprinidae)
<i>Rasbora wilpita</i>	Wilpita Rasbora (Cyprinidae)
<i>Malpulutta knetseri</i>	Ornate Paradisefish (Belontiidae)
<i>Schismatogobius deraniyaga/i</i>	Red-neck Goby (Gobiidae)
<i>Sicyopterus halei</i>	Red-tailed Goby (Gobiidae)
<i>Sicvopus jonklaasi</i>	Lipstick goby (Gobiidae)
<i>Channa orientalis</i>	Smooth-breasted snakehead (Channidae)
<i>Lepidocephalichthys jonklaasi</i>	Jonklaas's Loach (Cobitidae)

Species restricted from export - exportable under a permit (as the second schedule)

(8 species)

<i>Danio pathirana</i>	Barred danio (Cyprinidae)
<i>Puntius cumingii</i>	Cuming's barb (Cyprinidae)
<i>Puntius nigrofasciatus</i>	Black ruby barb ((Cyprinidae)
<i>Puntius titteya</i>	Cherry barb (Cyprinidae)
<i>Rasbora vaterifloris</i>	Golden rasbora (Cyprinidae)
<i>Claritas brachysorna</i>	Walking cafish (Claridae)
<i>Belonia signata</i>	Combtail (Belontiidae)
<i>Macrognaathus aral</i>	Lesser spiny eel (Mastacembelidae)



Identification cards for ornamental fish in Sri Lanka printed by BOBP

