matter supply is sufficient to consume oxygen within pore waters, sulphate reduction occurs and results in metal sulphide precipitation². Dispersed grains of pyrite were found in the slope sediments off Ratnagiri and Vengurla, between water depths 200 and 400 m. Therefore it is suggested that the sulphides and organic matter from the slope region have been transported to the present site along with the sediments by slumping and debris flows. Considerable amounts of organic matter might have been destroyed while passing through oxygenated bottom waters, whereas sulphides in the form of pyrite might have been deposited unaltered, affecting the organic carbon-sulphur relationship. Due to rapid sedimentation, however, some organic matter would also be deposited which is responsible for diagenetic pyrite formation and further sulphide accumulation.

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Subrecent remains of great one-horned rhinoceros from southern West Bengal, India

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We report here subfossil remains of the great one-horned rhinoceros for the first time from southern West Bengal. The finding testifies that, like the recently extinct lesser one-horned rhinoceros (Rhinoceros sondaicus), a clan of the greater one-horned rhinoceros also thrived in the riverine grass-jungles close to the Sunderban mangrove swamps about 3000 years ago.

During May 1990, some skeletal remains of one ponderous animal were unearthed by a fisherman while

venturing to deepen a puddle in Ramchandrapur village (c. 22° 25′ 50″ N, 88° 24′ 42″ E) under Bon-Hugli Panchayat, P. S. Sonarpur in south 24-Parganas, West Bengal (Figure 1). We examined the silty pit four metre below the surface from where the bones were recovered and collected the material. On closer examination and comparison, the remains appeared to belong to some massive subadult rhino, akin to the great one-horned rhinoceros.

The description and measurements of the specimens are given below. Class, Mammalia; Order, Perissodactyla; Family, Rhinocerotidae.

Rhinoceros unicornis Linnaeus: The great one-horned rhinoceros.

Broken mandible with body, having eruptive secondary I_2 on each side, P_4 , M_1 , M_2 and embedded M_3 on the right ramus; sternal bone, three fragmentary ribs; 7th thoracic vertebra; distal end of right radius; cuneiform of right manus; right astragalus.

The specimens (Figure 2) are not fossilized and the porosities in the spongy bone are visible. Of course, these have become slightly heavier and little carbonized. The pit underlies a four-m thick stratum of sandy clay (Figure 3) and just above a layer of peaty clay. About 50 cm below the peat, a soft, little sticky and dark clay bed was encountered. A sample akin to this soft clay from 550 cm below at Bagerhat (22°24' N, 88°25' E), a closely situated site under the same geographical unit,

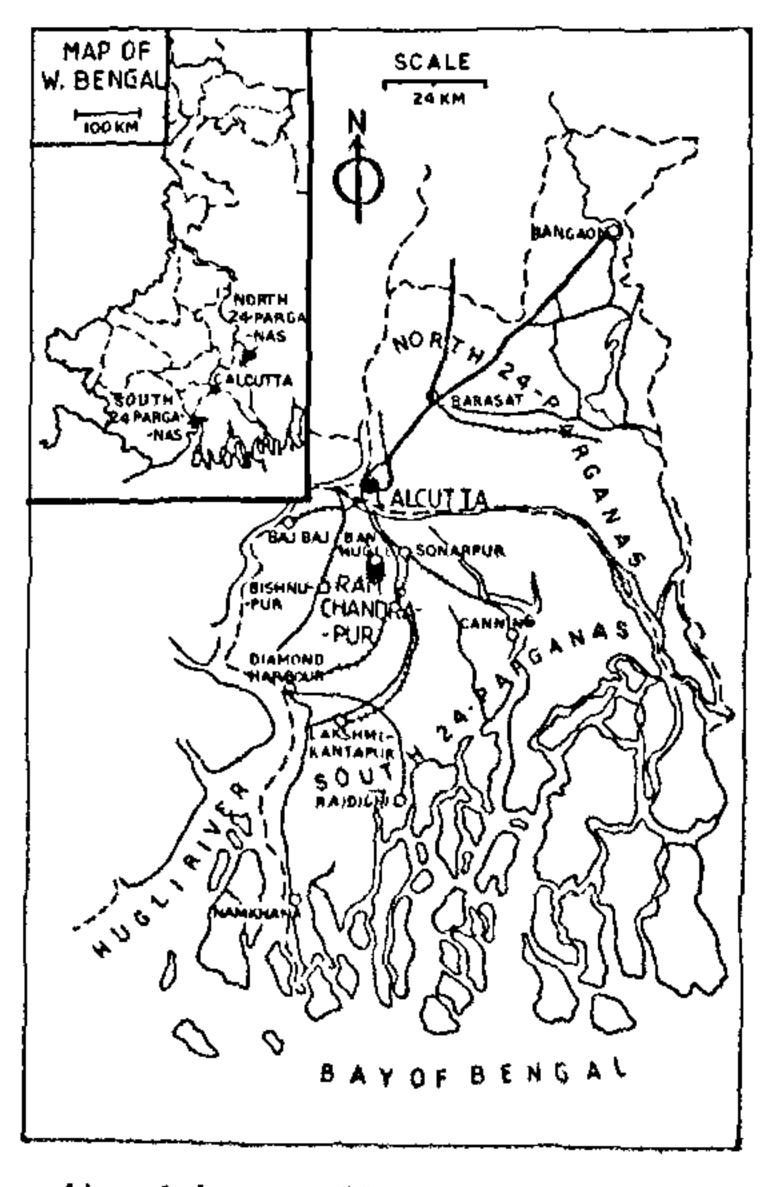
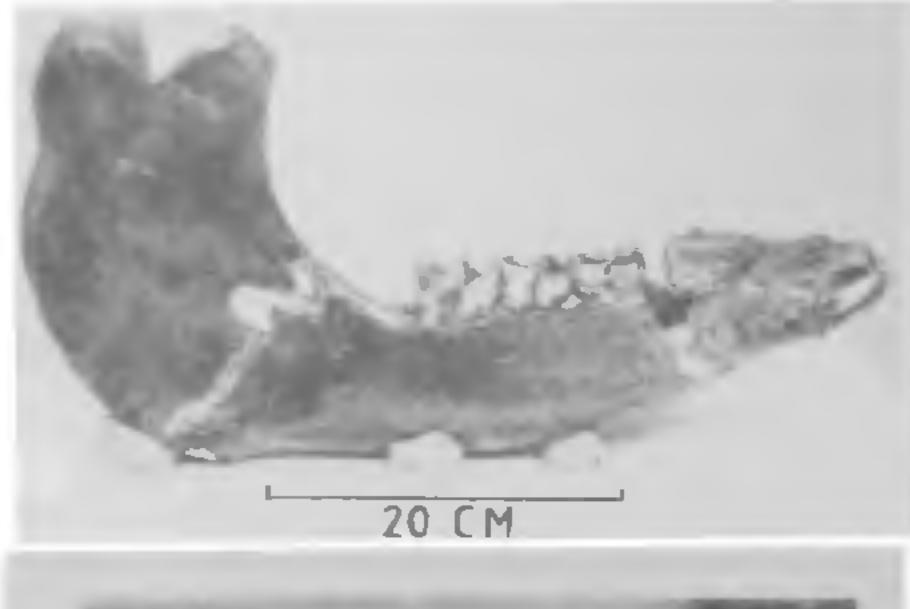
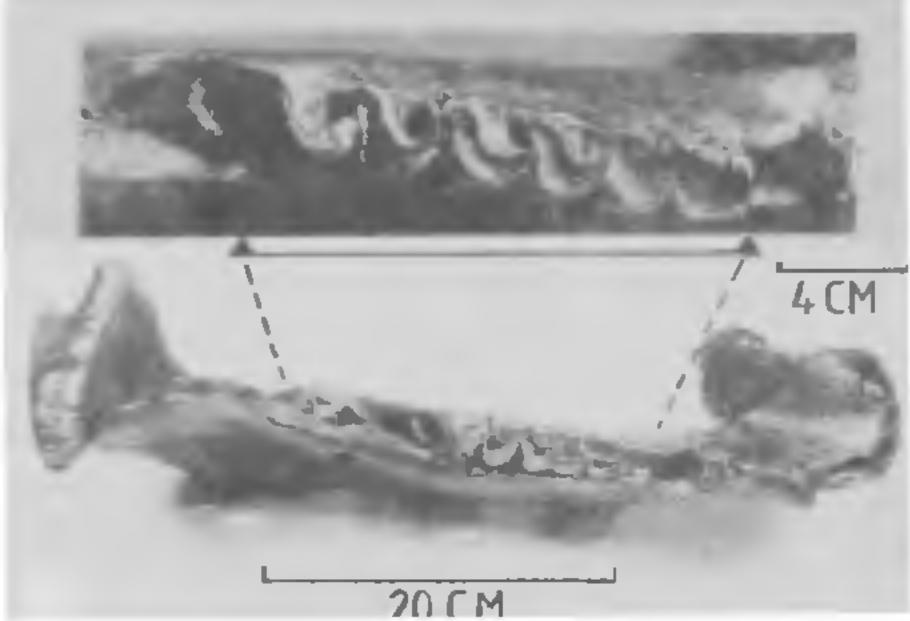


Figure 1. Location of Ramachandrapur village.





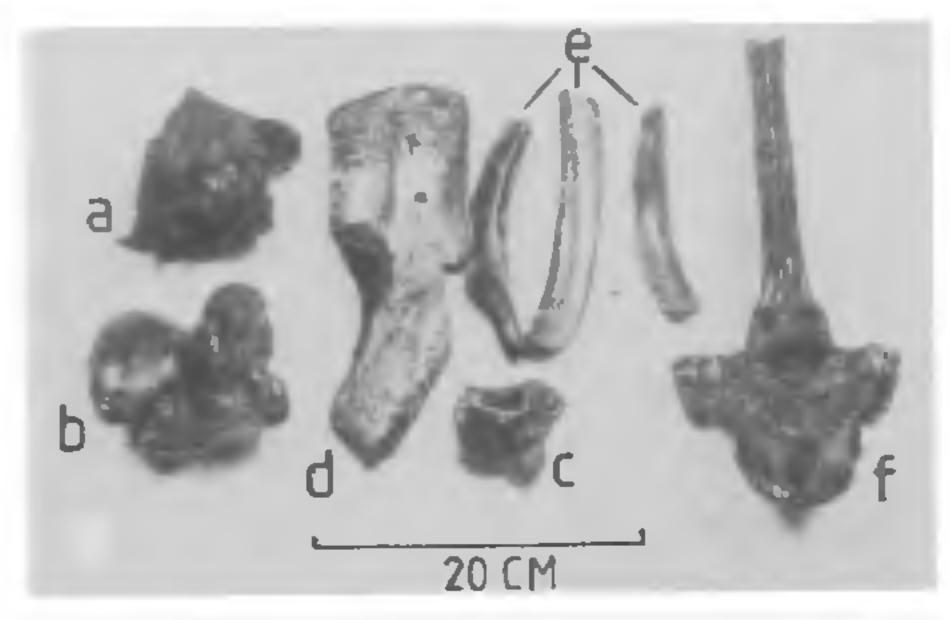
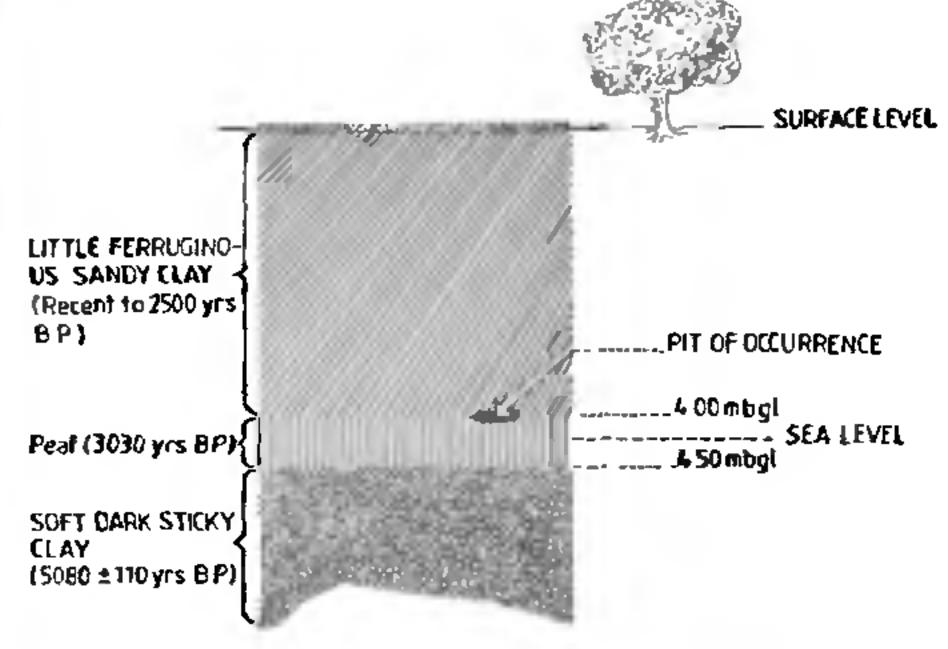


Figure 2. Subrecent remains of great one-horned rhinoceros from southern West Bengal, India.

i.e. Inactive Estuarine Plain, had been 14 C dated 5080 ± 110 yrs BP (ref. 1). In a recent paper, Banerjee and Sen², while reporting on the succession of Holocene sediment in this part of West Bengal, the age of the grey clay (with sand), similar to that covering the specimens in question has been attributed to 2500 yrs BP to Recent and that of the peat bearing some reptilian fossils at Barrackpur, a little north of Calcutta, 3030 ± 100 yrs BP. Thus the specimens from Sonarpur appear to be within a chronological range of 2500 to 3030 yrs BP.



mbgl - metre below ground level. B P - before present

Figure 3. Litho-column showing the pit of occurrence of the specimens.

The vertical and horizontal lengths of the ramus of mandible of this subadult rhino not only approach those of the R. unicornis and exceed those of the adult R. sondaicus (Table 1), but also resemble the former in structural details. It has been observed that irrespective of the lengths of ramii, their angular measurements at the symphyseal apices (point of convergence) are conspicuously constant and distinct in the two species. It is 30 in R. unicornis and 40 in R. sondaicus (Figure 4).

The under-surface of the body of mandible is very flat. The dI₁ have fallen, leaving two closely situated roundish sockets. The permanent I₂ project forward horizontally. The under-surface of these teeth is much convex and enamel covered, but the lingual upper surface are less so and filled with dentine. The dP₄ is moderately roded, less hypsodont and with exposed cementum. The M₁ and M₂ are hypsodont. The lophids (crescentic lobes) are slightly eroded. The horns of the hypolophids (hind cusp) abut a little inferiorly near the middle of the posterior ridges of the metalophids, a character very common in the lower molars of R. unicornis. The M₃ is embedded within the incised socket.

The spatuated sternum and narrow ribs are typical of the rhinocerotids and along with the accessory limb bones showed clear resemblances to those of R. unicornis. The out-sizes of the accessory limb bones have been given in Tables 2 and 3.

It was observed³ that unless the size, proportion and other qualitative criteria are taken into consideration, it becomes difficult to distinguish the two species only on dentition or osteological measurements. This is because the Asiatic species of one-horned rhinos, extinct or extant, were monophyletic in origin. The Pleistocene fossil R. sinensis Owen very often shows characters intermediate between R. unicornis and R. sondaicus⁴.

Table 1. Comparison of mandibular bone and teeth from Sonarpur with those in known material present in the ZSI repository

| | Specimen from Sonarpur (subadult) | R. unicornis (adult, Nepal; reg. по. 10438) | R. unicornis (juvenile, Nepal; reg. no. 2736) | R. unicornis (adult female) | R. sondaicus (adult male reg. no. 2675) | R. sondaicus (adult female reg. no. 3521) |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Length of ramus | 532 | 580 | 504 | 560 | 472 | 480 |
| Vertical height | 265 | 307 | 267 | 292 | 235 | - |
| Condylar width | 120 | 130 | 112 | 135 | 120 | 125 |
| Height near M3 | 100 | 103 | 79 | 100 | 85 | <u></u> |
| Width of body | 110 | 122 | 102 | 119 | 95 | 84 |
| Diastema length | 88 | 112 | 85 | 101 | 89 | |
| Symphyseal length | 130 | 152 | 126 | 142 | 117 | 117 |
| P ₄ Length Width | 43 (milk) 27 | 41 29 | 40 (milk) 24 | | 40 27 | |
| M. Length Width | 45 27 | 37 28 | 47 24 | 38 31 | 42 29 | 39 31 |
| Length M ² Width | 49 30 | 45 32 | | 45 35 | 46 29 | 44 32 |

All measurements are in mm.

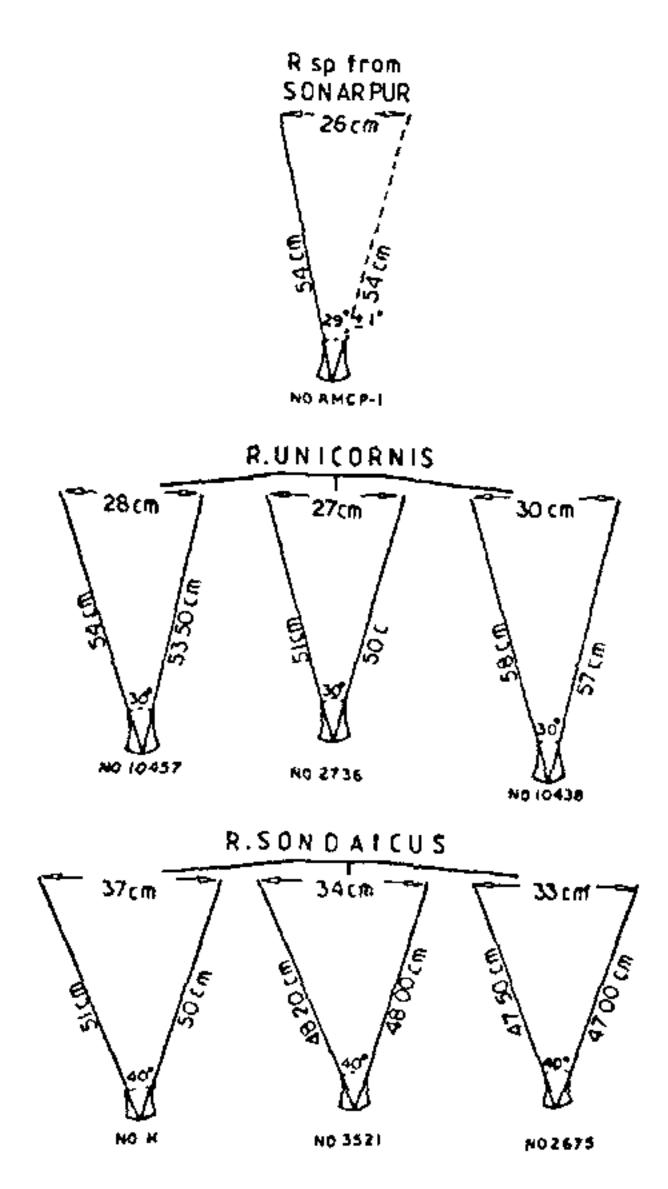


Figure 4. The angular measurements of the jaws in R, sondaicus, R, unicornis and in the specimen from Sonarpur.

Moreover, within the same population of the great onehorned rhino, both tall and slender type and stumpy type are encountered. However, from osteometric measurements and structural resemblances, the present

Table 2. Comparison of astragalus and distal end of radius from Sonarpur with those of a mounted adult female R. unicornis (reg. no. 19262) in the Indian Museum

| • | Specimen from Sonarpur | R. unicornis (reg. no. 19262) |
|------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Astragalus Length | 112 | 110 |
| Length along the condyle | 90 | 92 |
| Length across the condyle | 80 | 74 |
| Radius (distal end) Width | 94 | 80 |
| Breadth | 71 | 67 |

All measurements are in mm.

Table 3. Some typical measurements (in mm) of the cuneiform from Sonarpur

| trom Sonarpur | | | | |
|--------------------|----|--|--|--|
| Anterior height | 56 | | | |
| Distal width | 42 | | | |
| Distal breadth | 45 | | | |
| Maximum horizontal | | | | |
| diameter | 63 | | | |
| Antero-posterior | | | | |
| diameter | 49 | | | |
| | | | | |

specimens appear to be that of a stumpy great one-horned rhino,

The ancestral species of Rhinocerotidae evolved during the Tertiary and flourished to a maximum in the Miocene to Early Pleistocene. But most of the species,

barring the present day Ethiopean and Oriental species, died by the middle of the Pleistocene as evidenced from the Siwalik fossils. Of late, three species were more or less happily thriving in the Indian subcontinent, viz. Rhinoceros unicornis Linnaeus, R. sondaicus Desmerest and Dicerorhinus sumatrensis (Fischer). Among them the R. unicornis was extensively distributed in the northern India⁵, but dwindled to a vulnerable position, localized in the foothills of Nepal, Assam and West Bengal.

It appears that the Great Swampy Forest of Sunderban provided ideal shelter to both the greater and lesser rhinos along with massive swamp buffalo⁶. Unfortunately, these animals were systematically killed by the hunters in the 19th century. Baker⁷, in spite of his interest in zoology, shot dead numerous rhinos in the lower Bengal, alleging that the species was multiplying too fast. Increase in predation of calves by tigers also contributed to their decline in numbers.

The fossil species from south India and Sri Lanka, excepting one unconfirmed molar of R. unicornis from Tamil Nadu⁸, were of different species, viz. R. deccanensis from the Pleistocene Krishna Valley, R. karnulensis from the Ossiferous bed of Karnool, R. sinhalensis and R. kequena from the Pleistocene Ratnapura, Sri Lanka. Jayakaran⁹ reported one partial

skull of rhinoceros from Tamil Nadu. But its taxonomic position could not be ascertained. Therefore, the present occurrence, is redolent of a more southern habitat of the great Indian rhino. This discovery may help present day planners interested in finding habitats for the species in some suitable pockets of its earlier domains.

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Influence of nitrogen status and mutation on the fatty acid profile of *Rhodotorula gracilis*

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We isolated the mutants of Rhodotorula gracilis that produce low levels of lipid. These mutants were deficient in ATP:citrate lyase, a key enzyme in lipid over-production. Additionally, these mutants were altered in the fatty acid profile, most pronounced alteration was seen in the mutant CFR-9 which produced only 25% of the lipid compared with the parent strain. In this variant a six-fold decrease in myristic, a two-fold decrease in palmitic and linolenic, but a four-fold increase in linoleic acid were seen.

Some of the yeasts, mycelial fungi and algae are referred to as oleaginous organisms by virtue of their ability to accumulate large quantities of triacyl glycerol as storage lipid, which they most often do in carbon-rich and nitrogen-poor growth media¹. This is an example of nutrition stress-induced modulation of physiology and metabolism in microorganisms, a phenomenon not so well understood so far. Besides such a quantitative change, qualitative changes in the liquid in terms of the

composition of fatty acids have also been found in the oleaginous organisms cultured at non-optimal pH or temperature conditions²⁻⁵. Non-oleaginous microorganisms have also been known to respond to environmental stress by altering the fatty acid composition of their lipids. Ingram et al.6 found that Escherichia coli grown in medium containing ethanol modifies its lipid by increasing the level of vaccenic acid (C18:1, \triangle^{11}) with corresponding decrease in palmitic acid (C16:0). Changes in fatty acid composition of lipid were also detected when E. coli was cultured at a suboptimal temperature⁷. Beaven et al.⁸ found that Saccharomyces cerevisiae exposed to high levels of ethanol produces a lipid with extensive modification, most pronounced in the increase of oleic acid (C18:1, \triangle ⁹) and decrease in palmitic acid (C16:0).

The biological significance of the modification of fatty acid profile of lipid by the organism in response to changes in environmental factors is obscure. Presumably these organisms cope with environmental changes by suitable adjustment of their lipid composition. Our interest has been focused on finding genetic and biochemical factors influencing modification of fatty acid profile of R. gracilis. This yeast accumulates large quantities (about 60% w/w) of triacyl glycerol as storage lipid. In the present studies, it was the objective to see if mutation could cause modification of fatty acid profile as this would be a first step in