

THREATENED PLANT RESOURCES: DISTRIBUTION AND ECOSYSTEM SERVICES IN THE WORLD'S HIGH ELEVATION PARK OF THE KARAKORAM RANGES

ARSHAD ALI SHEDAYI^{1,2}, MING XU^{3*}, FARRUKH HUSSAIN⁴,
SEHRISH SADIA⁵, IQNAA NASEER⁶ AND SEEMA BANO²

¹Key Laboratory of Ecosystem Research Network Observation and Modeling, Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, University of Chinese Academy of Sciences.

²Department of Biological Sciences, Karakoram International University, Gilgit, Pakistan

³Department of Ecology, Evolution and Natural Resources, School of Environmental and Biological Sciences, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, NJ, USA

⁴Department of Botany University of Peshawar, Pakistan

⁵College of Life Sciences, Beijing Normal University, Beijing, China

⁶Department of Botany, University of Agriculture Faisalabad, Pakistan

*Corresponding author email: mingxu@crssa.rutgers.edu

Abstract

This study aims to investigate diversity, distribution, status, ecosystem services and threats to the plant resources in the study area based on field survey and ethno ecological knowledge for effective conservation and sustainable ecosystem services. The present study was conducted in the world's high elevation Khunjerab National Park (KNP) of the Karakoram ranges in Pakistan bordering China. Tremendous ecosystem services are obtained from the park and considered the most important habitat for many plant biodiversity and wildlife species. Field surveys were conducted to collect plants in transect along the road side of seven valleys ranging from 3160m to 4934m altitudinal variation. The names and traditional uses were recorded from the local people of the area by semi structured questionnaires and direct interviews. The data was analyzed by excel spreadsheets, direct matrix ranking, and pair comparison tests. Asteraceae was the dominant family with 15% species followed by Chenopodiaceae 10%, Poaceae 8%, Papilionaceae and Rocaceae 7% each, Brassicaceae 6%. Plant resources contribute direct and indirect ecosystem services such as food, medicine, fuel, timber, thatching, water purification, mineral and soil retention, and most importantly as sink of global carbon stock especially in the high altitude peatlands. Herbs were the dominant species in the area with 89%. Fodder is the most common usage for plants, followed by medicine. Plants with percentages 27% and 39% found to be highly palatable and palatable respectively. Competition for food between wildlife and livestock was high recorded for 60% plants. Plants used to cure various diseases including stomachache, asthma, cancer and tuberculosis etc. Plant resources in KNP are unique and vary with climate and altitude. This floral wealth is under tremendous threats of global climate change and anthropogenic activities like overgrazing, increasing population, and a rapidly declining traditional knowledge for sustainable use. Awareness for sustainable harvesting of plants, reducing grazing pressure, equitable resource sharing, marketing of the products, effective management and policy decisions and research on ecosystem services assessment, valuation and climate change impact on wild plant resources are recommended.

Key words: Distribution, Diversity, Ethnobotany, Ethno-ecology, KNP, Medicinal plants, Palatability, Ecosystem services, Threats.

Introduction

Plant resources contribute in provisioning, regulating, cultural as well as supporting services. Plants provide food, raw materials, fresh water and medicinal resources (Anon., 2005; Wittmer, 2010). Anthropogenic and climate change effects are major causes of degradation of natural resources. "It is widely accepted that the main driver of the observed decline in biological diversity is increasing human pressure on Earth's ecosystems" (Geldmann *et al.*, 2014). The distribution and diversity of plant species in high elevation areas is very important for its obvious contribution to a sound mountain ecosystem (Shiekh *et al.*, 2002). It is observed that an increasing plant diversity increase ecosystem services (Quijas *et al.*, 2012). Altitude, latitude, slope, aspect, and climatic factors form the plant composition of an area (Ilyas *et al.*, 2012). The variation in species diversity has been found with reference to climate, productivity, biotic interaction, and habitat heterogeneity by Shaheen *et al.* (2012) in the Himalayan region. In mountainous regions altitude has a much greater effect on temperature and the rate of decrease is much more rapid in

summer, which ultimately causes the altitudinal limits of plant species (Shaheen & Shinwari, 2012). Phyto-climatic gradient of vegetation and habitat specificity was found by Khan *et al.* (2013) in the high elevation western Himalayas. The area of Khunjerab National Park (KNP) mostly consists of huge mountains with snow covered peaks, valleys and nullahs. Physical erosion, landslides and glaciers are commonly seen in different valleys of the Park. Most of the valleys are characterized by stony beds and surrounded by hill slopes of gravels and hailstones while others have hill slopes with about 50% soil particles. Four types of vegetation zones can be identified in KNP. Dry alpine scrub, Moist alpine pastures, Dry alpine plateau pastures, and Sub alpine scrub and birch forests. The area is dominated by herbs and mostly used as fodder for the animals, with medicine as the second most common use. Palatability class is determined first time in the study area. Palatability is a plant characteristic in which plants or parts of plants are consumed by grazing animals as simulated by the sensory impulse (Heath *et al.*, 1985; Hussain & Durani, 2009). Preference is the selection of plant species by animals for feed. Many factors affect palatability such as

animal, plant and climate. The animal factors are age, stage of pregnancy, general health and hunger of animal; while plant factors include seasonal availability, degree of maturity, growth stage, phenology, morphological and chemical nature, relative abundance and accessibility to the area (Nyamangara & Ndlovu 1995; Hussain & Durani, 2009). The most dominant plants species were found as *Myricaria*, *Salix* on river beds, while *Artemisia*, *Ephedra* and *Krascheninikovia* sp. were found on upper parts above the road in KNP (Qureshi *et al.*, 2011). In the beginning plant use was restricted to food, medicine and shelter but with the passage of time man explored the potential of plants for a number of other purposes. Hence, their dependency on plants increased both directly and indirectly (Ali & Qaiser, 2009). It was found in an estimation that 80% of the population in developing countries rely on traditional medicines from nature. The global market value of medicinal plants exceeds 60 billion

USD annually. Almost half of the local medicinal plants are threatened with extinction (Anon., 2005; Colfer, 2012). There are 8,000 plant species in South Asia with known medicinal use. Plant-derived materials are widely used because they are relatively safer than synthetic ones and more easily available and cheaper (Iwn *et al.*, 1999). About 6000 flowering plants have been reportedly been found in Pakistan. A very large number of drug plants are found in northern and northwestern parts of country (Ali & Qaiser, 1986). In the Himalayan region at least 70 to 80% of the population depends upon traditional medicine for health care (Pie, 1987). People living in villages have been using indigenous plants as medicine for ages because this knowledge transfers from generation to generation and is based on lifelong experiences. The villages are far away from cities and mostly lack proper health facilities; people depend on plants to fulfill their daily requirement and necessities. In the past many researchers have conducted studies on ethnobotanical, economic and medicinal uses of plant resources such as Shinwari & Khan (2000), Kazmi & Siddiqui (1953), Bukhari (1994b), Rasool (1998), Mehmood *et al.* (2004), Ibrar *et al.* (2007), Mohan *et al.* (2008), Abbas *et al.* (2013), Iqbal *et al.* (2010), Shedayi & Gulshan (2012), Shedayi *et al.* (2014). Very few studies have been conducted on plant resources in the KNP among which Qureshi *et al.* (2011) listed the plant species, Khan *et al.* (2011) documented the plant species used for medicinal purposes from KNP. No such studies have been undertaken which could depict a holistic picture of the plant wealth of this very important high altitude National Park. An understanding of the linkages among biodiversity, ecosystem functioning and the production of ecosystem services is required for planning and policy making (Kinzig *et al.*, 2012; Cardinale *et al.*, 2012). The area is rich with plant resources that have tremendous contributions in the services of human well-being, uplifting the socioeconomic condition in terms of fodder, medicine, fuel, water purification, soil retention, ecosystem maintenance, sinks for global carbon stock, trophy hunting, eco-tourism, cultural, and recreational activities. The diversity, distribution, and uniqueness of plant species with climatic and altitudinal variation in this high altitude park of the world is highly significant. Current climate change events have affected the whole area in terms of glaciers melting; land sliding, soil erosion, drought, and ecosystem

imbalance. The anthropogenic activities and misuse of natural resources, lack of effective management, lack of awareness, and insufficient staff have caused depletion of plant resources which in turn have badly affected the ecosystem services. So far no research has been undertaken to address the gaps as mentioned; comprehensive and intensive research is the prime requirement of the time. This study was conducted to document the distribution, ethno-ecological diversity and ecosystem services of plant resources as fodder, medicine and other benefits obtained from the park. The aim is to know the palatability, functional groups, habitat, seasonal, climatic and altitudinal variation, threats, indigenous knowledge, form, and part of plants used and diseases cured by medicinal plants, as well as resource sharing and competition between livestock, wildlife and people for the plant resources. This is a comprehensive study of its type on ecosystem services with especial reference to uses and benefits obtained from plant resources in the alpine mountain regions. This study will provide basic information and understanding about the plant resources for future researchers, a guideline for conservation organizations and policy makers for sustainable conservation actions. Effective Conservation can be achieved in many stages for example, characterizing the system and defining problems; identifying potential solutions; assessing the feasibility of solutions; identifying or creating opportunities; and taking advantage of opportunities (Moon *et al.*, 2014).

Materials and Methods

Study area: Khunjerab was declared as Khunjerab National Park as on 29 April 1975. Khunjerab Pass, the gateway to China via the Karakoram Highway, is at 4,934m. According to the Management Plan of KNP, the total area of the Park is 6,150 square km. It is situated in the former state of Hunza known as Gojal between the coordinates: Longitude 74° 55' E - 75° 57' E and Latitude 36° 01' N to 37° 02' N. Khunjerab National Park is one of the highest altitude parks in the world. It is Pakistan's 3rd largest National Park and is adjacent to the Taxkorgan Natural Reserve in China. It consists of 3 different valleys: Khunjerab (through which the Karakoram Highway passes), Ghujerab, and the remote Shimshal valley (WWF, Khunjerab National Park. The park includes the world's highest pass at 4,700 meters between Pakistan and China. Being alpine in nature, the area has comparatively harsh winters but mild autumns and pleasant summers, with the mean maximum temperature ascending up to 27°C in May and descending below 0°C in November and onward. Annual precipitation varies from 200 to 900mm, 90 percent in the form of snow. Location map of the study area is shown in the Fig. 1.

This park is famous for its unique floral and faunal diversity and provides an excellent habitat for many of the world's important plants and a number of endangered and threatened animal species such as the snow leopard, marco polo sheep, and Himalayan ibex. Both the plant and animal species in the park face tremendous climatic and anthropogenic threats due to lack of awareness, misuse, and lack of management staff. The increasing population in the area and road construction is the important factors of habitat destruction, while illegal hunting, logging, and over grazing are the other threats.

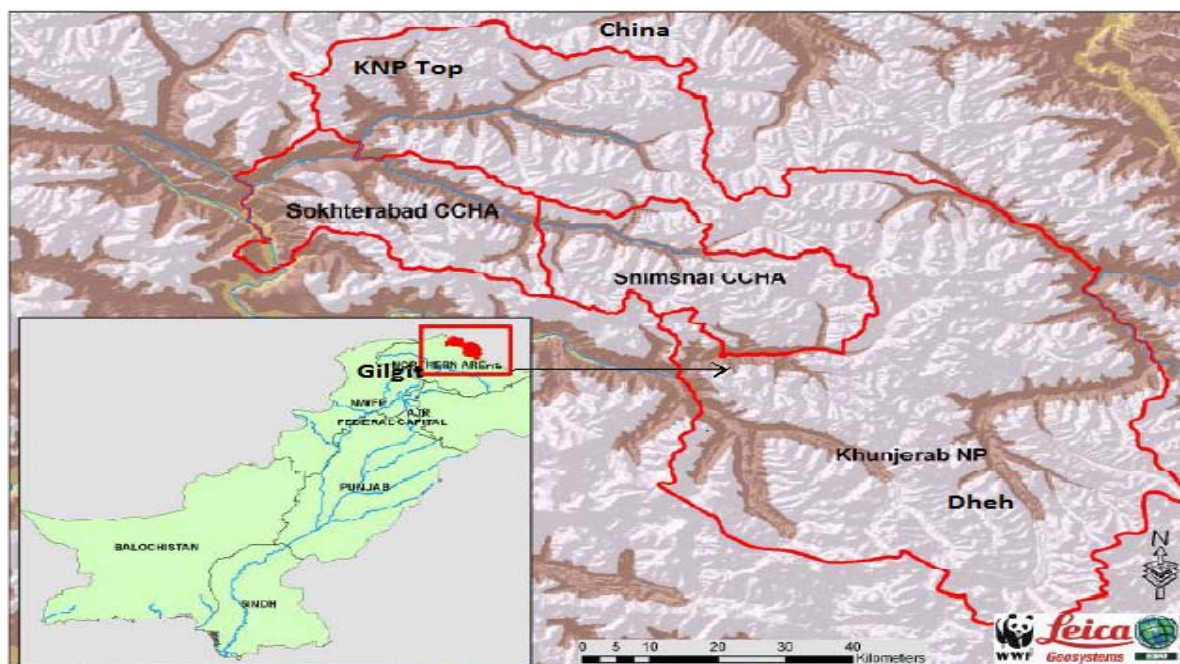


Fig. 1. Map of study area (Khunjerab National Park) Gilgit, Pakistan: Source WWF Pakistan & Qureshi *et al.* (2011).

Data collection: The present research study was undertaken to explore the indigenous flora of Khunjerab National park which has been used locally for various purposes. Three field visits were conducted in May, July, and September, 2009 in the research area to collect plant species at points along the road side 1 km deep in a transect from Dhee to KNP top. Seven points i.e Dhee, Karchani, Arbad Kook, Torqeen, Barkhun, Koksail and Top were selected for this purpose having different elevations e.g. 3160, 3272, 3690, 3400, 3499, 3918 and 4520 meters respectively. The method adopted for the documentation of the indigenous knowledge was based upon the questionnaire and semi structured interviews as mentioned by Huntington (2000) employing a checklist of questions and direct observations of photographs and specimen. Regular field trips were arranged in order to collect information from people of adjacent areas, shepherd, KNP staff and hakims 100 in total to obtain information about medicinal uses, fodder, grazing preferences of livestock and wildlife and other uses. The plants were pressed, dried, and made into voucher specimen and herbarium. Plants were identified with the help of a taxonomist in KIU herbarium and available literature and comparing it with already identified flora of Pakistan (Ali & Qaiser, 2015). The voucher specimens were kept in the herbarium of the department of Biological Sciences KIU.

Data analysis: Each species was assigned a score from 0-3, 0 for no value and 3 for most valuable according to the information collected from the beneficiaries of the park. These plant species then analyzed by paired comparison test according to Fechner (1948) and Mueller (1986) and later on was also used by Shedayi *et al.* (2014). Percentage of total score for each species was find out and then a rank was assigned as 1-19= 5, 20-39=4, 40-59=3, 60-79=2 and 80-89=1. Rank 1 having the highest score and rank 5 the lowest score. The palatability class was

made on the basis of plants used by all animals (livestock and wildlife) in all seasons as highly palatable (HP), only used by one group of plants either by wildlife or livestock, palatable (PI), only used in winter when food becomes scarce, less palatable (LP) and those which were found harmful, poisonous (Ps) or non-palatable. Paired comparison tests were also applied to the threats for the plant resources in the park; the rank scale was made as: 1-14=5, 15-29=4, 30-44=3, 45-60=2 and 60-75=1). We also used direct matrix ranking for diseases cured by plants and medicinal plants used for other purposes after Shedayi *et al.* (2014) according to the preference given by the inhabitants during the survey. For all other results, simple excel spread sheets used to find the percentage, tables and figures drawn on the bases of each findings.

Results

Plant species and families: A total of 70 plant species belonging to 31 families have been collected and investigated for their uses and palatability. The Table 1 and Fig. 2 shows that the highest number of species are found in the family Asteraceae 11 (16%), followed by Chenopodiaceae 7 (10%), Poacea 6 (9%), Papilionaceae and Rocaceae 5 (7%) each, Brasicaceae 4 (6%), Fabaceae, Labiatae, Plantigoginaceae, Primulaceae and Salicacea having 2 species (4) each, with the rest of the families containing only one species each.

Human preference of plant species: Ranking was made after obtaining percentage of the paired comparison test according to the information obtained from the users. It was found that 9, 9 plant species fall in both rank 1, 2 while 7, 25 and 20 plant species fall in the ranks 3, 4 and 5 respectively as shown in the table 1 & Fig. 3. The most and least preferred plants are shown according to their percentage after paired comparison test and assigning ranks as mentioned in the Methods.

Table 1. Plant species and services.

| S. No. | Family | Species | Local name | Functional group | Habitat | Parts used | Form used | Uses and palatability | | | Rank |
|--------|-----------------|--|---------------|------------------|---------|----------------|----------------------|------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|------|
| | | | | | | | | Medicinal | Fuel/timber /others | Fodder & palatability | |
| A | Alliaceae | <i>Allium carolinianum</i> Redoute | Katchpeerk | Hb | Rk | Fl, Lv | Juice | Fr, Co, As | Vg | 70 | 2 |
| B | | <i>Achiheia militifolia</i> | livshafis | Hb | Rk, Ds | Wp | Juice, direct | ED, DD | HP | 70 | 2 |
| C | | <i>Ajonia fruticososa</i> (Ledeb.) Poljakov | Sweettipisk | Hb | Rk | Lv, St | direct | | HP | 33 | 3 |
| D | | <i>Anaphalis nepalensis</i> var. <i>nepalensis</i> (C. B. Clarke) Ridley | Chez wosh | Hb | Ms | Lv, St | direct | | PI | 12 | 5 |
| E | | <i>Artemisia brevifolia</i> Wall. ex DC. | Khondapisk | Hb | Ds | Lv, Fl, St | Juice, direct | WL, SA | HP | 80 | 1 |
| F | | <i>Artemisia maritima</i> L. ex Hook. f. | Kitch | Hb | Ds | Lv | Juice, direct | SA, | PI, Vg | 80 | 1 |
| G | Asteraceae | <i>Artemisia santalinifolia</i> Turcz. ex Besser | Ravid | Hb | Rk | St, Lv, Fr | Oil, smoke, direct | MP, MIR | LP | 30 | 3 |
| H | | <i>Cirsium arvense</i> (L.) Scop. | Kril | Hb | Ds | St, Lv | Direc, juice | | PI, Vg | 11 | 5 |
| I | | <i>Crepis flexuosa</i> (DC.) Bth. s. <i>Hk. f</i> | Chesk | Hb | Rk | Lv, St | direct | | HP | 13 | 5 |
| J | | <i>Lactuca dissecta</i> D. Don | | Hb | Ds | Lv | Juice, direct | Inj, WH | PI | 23 | 4 |
| K | | <i>Lactuca tatarica</i> (L.) C.A. | | Hb | Ds | Lv, St | direct | | HP | 14 | 5 |
| L | | <i>Senectio krascheninikovii</i> Schischk | | Hb | Ds | Wp | direct | | PI | 14 | 5 |
| M | Betulaceae | <i>Betula utilis</i> D. Don | Forz | Tr | Rk | Bk, Lv, St | Direc, paste | Er, P, Rhe, WM, PM. | HP | 23 | 4 |
| N | Borraginaceae | <i>Arnebia euchroma</i> (Royle) I.M. Johnston. | Pooshk | Hb | Rk | Wp | Paste, direct | Csm, | LP | 15 | 5 |
| O | | <i>Arabidopsis himalaica</i> (Edgew.) Schulz. | Khompa | Hb | Ds | Lv | Direc, juice | | PI, Vg | 15 | 5 |
| P | | <i>Lepidium apetalum</i> Willd. | Yurk-woosh | Hb | Ds | Sd, Lv | direct | | HP | 15 | 5 |
| Q | Brassicaceae | <i>Lepidium draba</i> L. | Rookhenpeecha | Hb | Rk | Lv | direct | | HP | 14 | 5 |
| R | | <i>Lepidium sativum</i> L. | Pye sprag | Hb | Ms | Lv | direct | | PI | 20 | 4 |
| S | Capparidaceae | <i>Capparis spinosa</i> L. | kaper | Hb | Ds, Rk | Fl, Sd, Fr, Rt | Paste, juice | JP, PI, Db, As, ND, BP | | 80 | 1 |
| T | Caryophyllaceae | <i>Silene indica</i> Roxb. Ex Orth | Shelect | Hb | Ms | Lv | Direc, paste | Fr, Vit | PI | 80 | 1 |
| U | | <i>Chenopodium album</i> L. inaeus | Khurd | Hb | Ds, Ms | Lv, St | Juice, direct | SA | Vg, PI | 80 | 1 |
| V | | <i>Chenopodium bohrys</i> L. Khord | | Hb | Ds | Lv | direct | | LP | 1 | 5 |
| W | | <i>Chenopodium foliosum</i> Asch. | Sheath sprag | Hb | Ms | Lv | direct | | PI, Fd | 20 | 4 |
| X | Chenopodiaceae | <i>Halogeton glomeratus</i> (M. Bieb.) C.A. Mey. | Sheath | Hb | Ds | Lv | direct | | PI | 20 | 4 |
| Y | | <i>Krascheninikovia ceratoides</i> (L.) Gildenst. | livshafis | Hb | Rk | Wp | direct | Fu, | HP | 27 | 4 |
| Z | | <i>Salsola tragus</i> Linnaeus | Shaaf | Hb | Rk | Lv | direct | | LP | 1 | 5 |
| AA | | <i>Staeida aegyptiaca</i> (Hasselq.) Zohary | | Hb | Ds | Lv, St | Paste, direct | SA | LP, Ps | 1 | 5 |
| BB | Crassulaceae | <i>Crassulaceae Rhodiola heterodonta</i> (Hook. f. et Thoms.) A. Bor. | Mymendrich | Hb | Rk | Lv, St | direct | | LP | 1 | 5 |
| CC | Cupressaceae | <i>Juniperus excelsa</i> M. Bieb. | Yarz | Tr | Rk | Fr, Lv, St | Juice, smoke, direct | KS, UP, L.eu, TB | Fu | 60 | 2 |
| DD | Cyperaceae | <i>Carex borri</i> Nelmes | Gosh wosh | Hb | Ms | Lv | direct | | PI | 18 | 5 |
| EE | Eleagnaceae | <i>Hippophae rhamnoides</i> L. | Zakh | Sb | Ms | Wp | Paste, juice, direct | HP, Cn, SA, TA, Csm, | Fu, Fnc | 80 | 1 |
| FF | Ephedraceae | <i>Ephedra intermedia</i> Schrenk & C.A. Mey | Yanuk | Hb | Ds | Wp, Fl | paste, ash | TA | HP | 66 | 2 |
| GG | | <i>Astragalus strictus</i> Grath. ex Benth. | Zhop | Hb | Ms | Lv, Fl | direct | Vit, | HP | 40 | 3 |
| HH | Fabiaceae | <i>Sophora mollis</i> (Royle) Baker | Popshin | Sb | Ds | Lv, stem | paste | SD, AS, Ic, Pc | Ps | 17 | 5 |
| II | Fumitracae | <i>Corydalis crassifolia</i> Royle | Sackroz | Hb | Rk | -- | -- | | Ps | 8 | 5 |
| JJ | Gentianaceae | <i>Conostoma borealis</i> (Bunge) T.N. Ho. | Loop wosh | Hb | Ms | Wp | direct | | HP | 20 | 4 |
| KK | Labiatae | <i>Mentha longifolia</i> (L.) Hud | Buzlanj | Hb | Ms | Lv, Fl | Juice, powder | Fr, As, BP, Jd, | PI | 50 | 3 |
| LL | | <i>Nepeta floccosa</i> Bth. | | Hb | Ds | Lv, Fl | juice | HF, BT, WL, | | 32 | 4 |

Table 1. (Cont'd.).

| S. No. | Family | Species | Local name | Functional group | Habitat | Parts used | Form used | Uses and palatability | | Rank |
|--------|------------------|---|---------------|------------------|---------|----------------|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|------|
| | | | | | | | | Medicinal | Fuel/timber /others | |
| MM | | <i>Melilotus officinalis</i> (L.) | Selves | Hb | Ds | - | | | P's | 1 |
| NN | | <i>Oxytropis cachemiriana</i> Camb. | Zarth sprag | Hb | Ds | Lv | Juice, direct | | Pl | 21 |
| OO | Papilionaceae | <i>Oxytropis micropophylla</i> (Pall.) DC. | Chez wosh | Hb | Ds | Sl, Lv | direct | Vit. | Pl | 23 |
| PP | | <i>Oxytropis molis</i> Royle | Khazr lop | Hb | Ms | Wp, Lv, Sd, St | direct | | HP | 24 |
| QQ | | <i>Trigonella foeniculum-graecum</i> Linn. | | Hb | Rk | Lv, St | | | HP | 24 |
| RR | | <i>Plantago lanceolata</i> L. | Sip gilg | Hb | Ms | Lv, St | Paste, direct | AH, AM, BC | Pl | 40 |
| SS | | <i>Plantago major</i> L. | Sipgilg | Hb | Rk | Lv, St | direct | | HP | 22 |
| TT | Plumbaginaceae | <i>Acantholimon glumacuum</i> (Jaub. & Spach.) Boiss. | Ulkapook | Hb | Rk | Lv | direct | | LP | 1 |
| UU | | <i>deschampsia cespitosa</i> | Palm wosh | Hb | Rk | Sd, Lv, St | direct | | HP | 23 |
| VV | | <i>Elymus himalayanus</i> (Nevski) Tzvelev | Kishnisar | Hb | Ms | Lv | | | HP | 23 |
| WW | Poaceae | <i>Phragmites karka</i> (Retz.) Trin. ex Steud. | Nodth | Hb | Ms | Wp | direct | Tha, Dc, Bskt | Pl | 28 |
| XX | | <i>Poa bulbosa</i> L. | Ghos | Hb | Hb | Lv, St | direct | | HP | 24 |
| YY | | <i>Saccharum bengalensis</i> Retz. | Chagg | Hb | Ms | Wp | direct | | Pl | 40 |
| ZZ | | <i>Stipegrostis plumosa</i> (L.) Munro ex T. Anders | Shepedh | Hb | Rk | Lv, St | direct | Crpt, Cur | HP | 26 |
| AAA | | <i>Androsace baltistanica</i> Y. Nasir | Zogh jark | Hb | Ms | Lv | direct | | LP | 1 |
| BBB | Primulaceae | <i>Primula farinosa</i> L. | Gul bamafshan | Hb | Rk | Fl, Lv, St | direct | ED, HF, HC, WL | Pl | 80 |
| CCC | | <i>Aconogonon tortuosum</i> (D. Don) | Wishkwosh | Hb | Rk | Sd, Lv, St | direct | | HP | 20 |
| DDD | Polygonaceae | <i>Bistorta amplexicaulis</i> (D. Don) | Sip gilg | Hb | Ms | Lv, St | direct | Vit. | Pl | 27 |
| EEE | | <i>Rheum tibeticum</i> Maxim. ex Hook. f. | hepood | Hb | Ms | Lv, St, Tb | Direct, paste, juice | LC | Vg | 27 |
| FFF | Ranunculaceae | <i>Ranunculus arvensis</i> L. | Sip gilg wosh | Hb | Ms | Lv, St | direct | | Pl | 27 |
| GGG | | <i>Conium maculatum</i> L. | Nogradamvash | Hb | Ms | Fl | powder | ED, | LP | 1 |
| HHH | | <i>Potentilla eriocarpa</i> Wall. ex Lehm | Zard wosh | Hb | Ms | Lv, Fl, St | direct | | Pl | 28 |
| III | Rosaceae | <i>Potentilla microphylla</i> D. Don | Satvard | Hb | Rk | Lv, St | Juice, powder | WH, Vit, IC | | 60 |
| JJJ | | <i>Potentilla ochreate</i> Lindl. | Shipeen | Hb | Ms | Lv, St | direct | | Pl | 60 |
| KKK | | <i>Rosa webbiana</i> Wallich ex Royle | Chareer | Sb | Rk, Ds | Fl, Fr, Sd | Paste, direct | SA | Stk, Fnc | 24 |
| LLL | Salicaceae | <i>Populus pamtirica</i> Kom. | Tegruk | Tr | Ms | St, Lv | direct | | Pl | 60 |
| MMM | | <i>Salix alba</i> L. ssp. alba | Uonak | Tr | Ms | St, Lv | direct | | Fu, AT, Bskt, Flt | 61 |
| NNN | Saxifragaceae | <i>Saxifraga hircutis</i> var. alpina | Roklin pechan | Hb | Ms | Wp | direct | | Pl | 29 |
| OOO | Scrophulariaceae | <i>Potentilla albidula</i> Fedde | Tark | Hb | Ms | Lv | direct | | Pl | 40 |
| PPP | Tamaraceae | <i>Myricaria squamosa</i> Desvaux | Jagali zeera | Sb | Ds | St, Lv | direct | DD | Fu, Stk, Tim | 60 |
| QQQ | Umbelliferae | <i>Cuminum cyminum</i> L. | | Hb | Rk | Lv, Fr | juice | HA, DD, Dp | HT | 82 |
| RRR | Zygophyllaceae | <i>Peganum harmala</i> L. | Ispandur | Hb | Ds, Rk | Sd, Lv, Rt | Juice, smoke, | Db, JD | Sert | 82 |

Abbreviations: Functional group: Hb (herb), Sb (shrub), Tr (Tree), Habitat: Rk (Rocky), Ds (dry soil), Ms (moist soil). **Parts used:** Wp (whole plant), Lv (leaves), St (stem), Fl (flower), Rt (root), Sd (seed), Fr (fruit), Bk (bark), Tb (tuber), Medicinal: TA (toothache), ED (eye disease), DD (digestive disorder), MS (muscular disorder), MR (mosquito repellent), WL (Weight loss), SA (stomachache), Csm (cosmetics), Vit. (Vitamin), Fr. (leaves), ED (eye disease), HF (hair fall), HC (hair color), AH (anticholinergic), AM (antimicrobial), BC (blood clotting), Inj (injuries), WH (wound healing), LC (laxative for constipation), Db (diabetes), SD (skin disease), AS (antiseptic), JD (jaundice), JP (joint pain), Pl (paralysis), ND (nervous disorder), BP (brain problem), Co (Cough), HA (headache), Dp (depression), ErP (ear pain), HP (heart problem), Cn (cancer), KS (kidney stone), UP (urine problems), Leu (leucorrhoea), TB (tuberculosis), IC (insecticide), Pe (pesticide), BF (body temperature), WL (weight loss), RHe (rheumatism), Fu (fuel), Tob (tobacco), Crpt (carpets), Cur (curtains), Stk (sticks), Tha (thatching), De (decoration), Bskt (baskets), Sert (secret), HT (herbal tea), Tim (timber), WM (writing material), PM (packing material), AT (agricultural tools), Flt (flute), Fnc (fencing), **Palatability (fodder):** HP (highly palatable), Pl (palatable), LP (less palatable), Ps (poisonous).

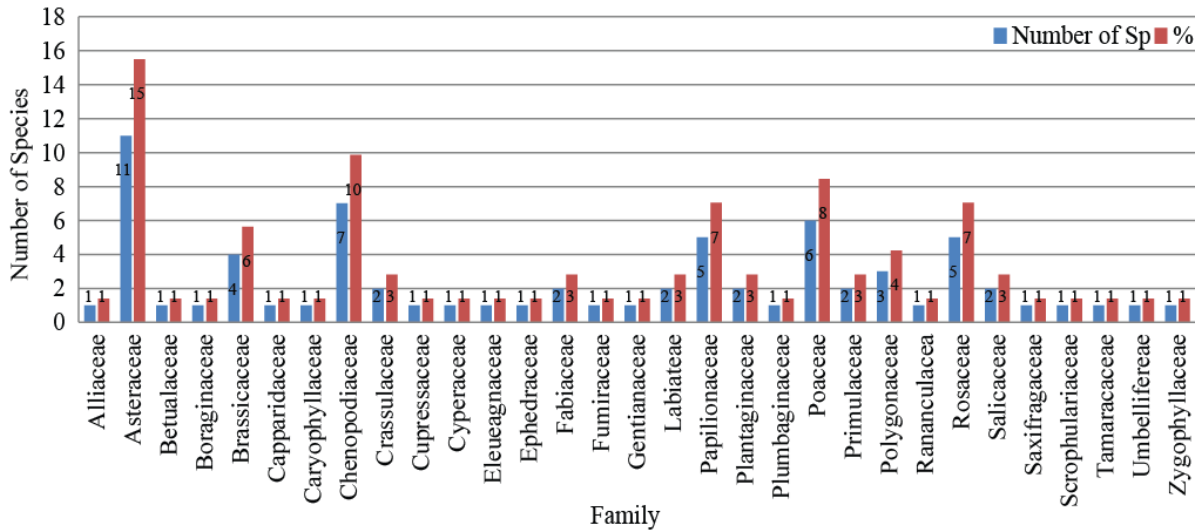


Fig. 2. Number and percentage of species in each family.

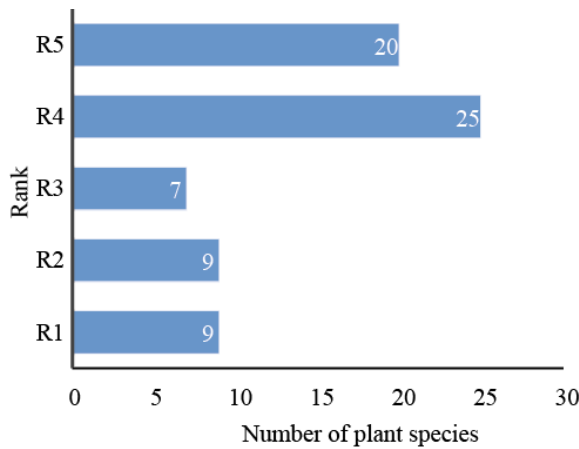


Fig. 3. Number of plant species in each rank.

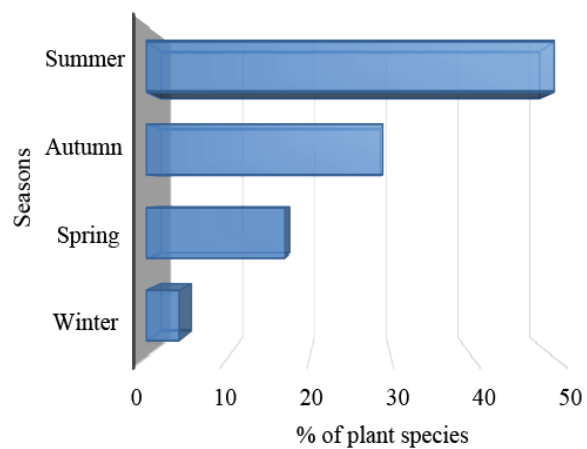


Fig. 4. Seasonal variation of Plant in KNP.

Seasonal and climatic Variation of Plants: Three field surveys were conducted in 4 seasons winter (January), spring (April), summer (July) and autumn (October). The greatest number of plants was found during summer 50% followed by autumn 29%, spring 17% and winter only 4% plants, only trees and some shrubs observed due to severe climatic condition. July and August are the full blossom months in KNP area. The result in the Fig. 4 shows the highest percentage in the summer and lowest in the winter when temperature drops to freezing.

Altitudinal variation of plants: Plant species have been collected from the lowest to the highest altitude regions in the Park in transect with altitudinal variation such as 3160, 3272, 3690, 3400, 3499, 3918 and 4520 meters from Dhee, Karchani, Arbad Kook, Torqeen, Barkhun, Koksail, and

Top respectively. In the study area it was observed that Dhee had more species richness with 31(25%) species followed by the KNP Top 25 (20%), Kosal 21(17%), Arbab Kook 15 (12%) and very less number of species was found in Barkhun 7 (6%), Turqeen 11(9%) and then Karchani with 13 (11%) species (Table 2).

Functional group and Habitat of Plants: In this study it is found plants were mostly herbs 62 (89%) with very few shrubs and trees, 5 (7%) and 3 (4%) respectively as shown in the Fig. 5. The area is Rocky and the soil is sandy. The area is divided into 3 habitats: Rocky, Dry soil, and Moist soil and the distribution of plants in these habitats found with a number and percentage 25 (33%), 24 (32%) and 26 (35%) respectively as shown in the Fig. 6.

Table 2. Altitudinal variation of plants.

| Area | Dhee | Karchanai | Turqeen | Barkhun | Arbabkok | Koksal | Top |
|-------------------------|------|-----------|---------|---------|----------|--------|------|
| Elevation (m) | 3160 | 3272 | 3690 | 3400 | 3499 | 3918 | 4520 |
| Number of plant species | 31 | 13 | 11 | 7 | 15 | 21 | 25 |
| Percentage of plants | 25% | 11% | 9% | 6% | 12% | 17% | 20% |

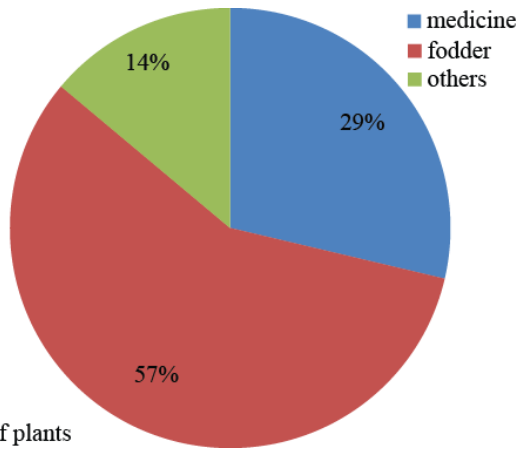


Fig. 9. Percentage use of plants.

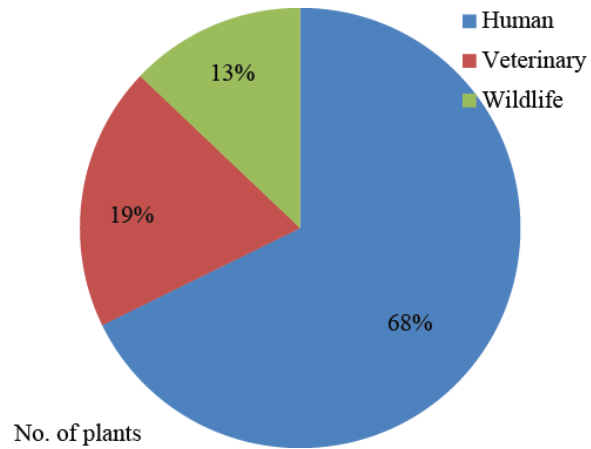


Fig. 10. Percentage use of plants treating animals.

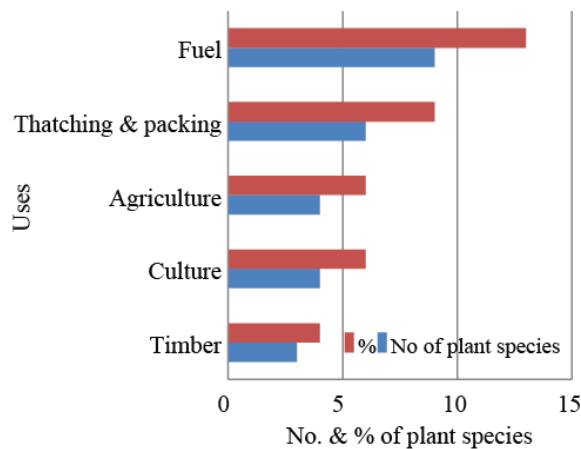


Fig. 11. Plants used for other purposes.

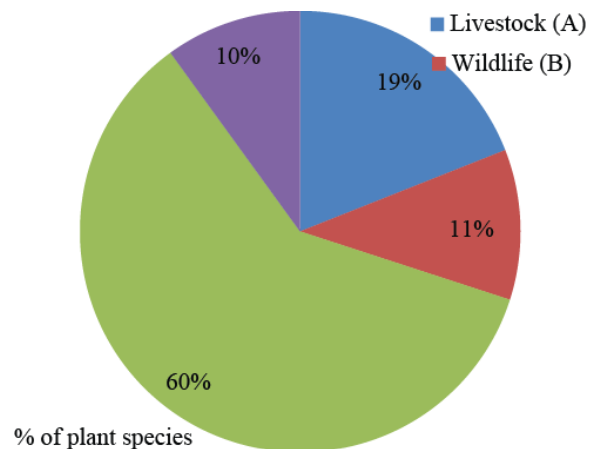


Fig. 12. Competition & resource sharing.

Competition and resource sharing: It was found that there is much competition among livestock, wildlife, and human beings for plant resources. The survey shows that most of the plant species are shared as food between livestock and wildlife with a percentage of 60% followed 19% used as food only by livestock, 11% by wildlife, and 10% by human being as vegetable and tea as shown in the Fig. 11.

Indigenous knowledge resource: Out of 100 people interviewed, the information gathered with a percentage of 40%, 5%, 30%, 15%, and 10% from people aged above 50, below 50, shepherds, KNP staff and Hakims respectively as shown in the Fig. 14.

Palatability: The palatability class was made on the basis of the usage of plants as fodder and preference of animals in all time or in the scarce time or poisonous (non-palatable). The plants preferred by all animals (wildlife and livestock) at all time is considered as Highly palatable (HP), while plant species preferred to eat by only one group of animals livestock or wildlife is considered as Palatable (Pl), those plant species which are only eaten if no other food is available, such as in winter, are considered as Less palatable (LP), and those plant species which are harmful and eating of which may cause illness or death of the animals are considered as Poisonous (Ps) (non-palatable) plants. These were ranked as 1, 2, 3 and 4 for HP, Pl, LP and Ps respectively and with percentages 32%, 46%, 15% and 7% respectively as shown in the Fig. 13.

Threats to the plants in KNP: During the survey the major threats have been identified by continuous observation and data collected from the people and unpublished data of (WWF 2005). The results show that the major threats to the biodiversity of the park were over grazing, climate change impact, natural disasters, road (KKH) construction between Pakistan and China, research exploitation, and increasing human population and intervention. Over grazing and climate change impacts are considered the most alarming threats ranking number 1 each, while natural disaster and cutting for fuel considered to be the threats both ranked 3, road construction activities ranked 4 and human population and research exploitation are considered the least threats ranked 5 in KNP as shown in Table 5. Scoring was made on the basis of the number of individuals and priorities given for each threat.

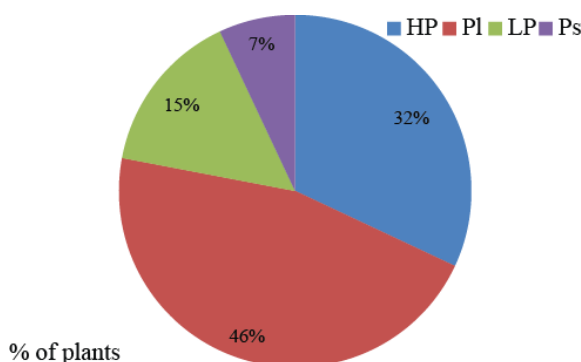


Fig. 13. Palatability of plant resources.

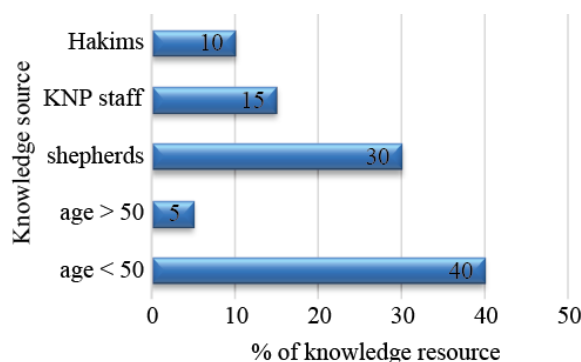


Fig. 14. Indigenous knowledge resource.

Discussion

Plant species and families: Categorization of the status of populations, species, and ecosystems underpins most conservation activities. Status is often based on how a system's current indicator value (e.g., change in abundance) relates to some threshold of conservation concern (Connors & Cooper, 2014). Asteraceae is found to be the dominating family followed by Chenopodiaceae, while majority of families having only one plant species. In an earlier study conducted by Khan *et al.* (2011) in the same area a total of 43 plant species belonging to 28 families were recorded in which Asteraceae family contributed the highest number of species (11.63%) agree with our findings, followed by Fabaceae, Lamiaceae and Rosaceae (9.30% each), Chenopodiaceae and Elaeagnaceae (4.65% each). In contrary in another study, the results show a little variation such as; 62 plant species belonging to 25 families were recorded in which Primulaceae (11.29%), followed by Asteraceae (9.68%), Boraginaceae (6.45%), Brassicaceae (6.45%), Poaceae (6.45%) and Rosaceae (6.45%); whereas, rest of the families had fewer species (Qureshi *et al.*, 2011). Earlier studies conducted by Shedayi & Gulshan (2012) Abbas *et al.* (2013) and Shedayi *et al.* (2014) show that Asteraceae is the most dominant family having highest number of plant species such as 10, 17 and 8 for the studies respectively and 9, 17 and 10 families having only one plant species each respectively while in our study 19 families comprise only one plant species. Although the park does not support a very large number of plant species due to hard climatic, topographic and climatic conditions, the diversity and distribution of unique and rare and important plant species make it significant.

Table 3. Diseases cured by plants (Number, percentage and rank).

| Diseases | SA | Vit | As | WH | Fr | WL | HP | IC | ND | JP | Db | Csm | BP | TA | Jd | UP | EP | AM | AH | Co. | Dp | PI | TB | Leu | SD | BT | BC | |
|---------------|----|-----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|----|----|----|-----|----|----|----|---|
| No. of plants | 12 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Percentage | 39 | 19 | 13 | 13 | # | 10 | 10 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Rank | 1 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |

Abbreviations: SA (stomachache), Vit (veterinary), As (Asthma), WH (wound healing), Fr (fever), WL (weight loss), HP (hair problem), IC (insecticides), ND (nerve disorder), JP (joint pain), Db (diabetes), Csm (cosmetics), BP (blood pressure), TA (toothache), Jd (jaundice), UP (urine problem), EP (ear problem), AM (antimicrobial), AH (antihelminthic), Co (cough), Dp (depression), PI (paralysis), TB (tuberculosis), Leu (leucorrhoea), SD (skin disease), BT (body temperature), BC (blood clotting)

Table 4. Medicinal plants used for other purposes (number and rank).

| Plant uses | <i>Achillea salicifolia</i> Besser | <i>Artemisia brevifolia</i> Wall. ex DC. | <i>Betula utilis</i> D. Don | <i>Hippophae rhamnoides</i> L. | <i>Ephedra intermedia</i> | <i>Primula farinosa</i> L. | <i>Myricaria squamosa</i> Desvauz | <i>Silene indica</i> Roxb. ex Oth | <i>Chenopodium album</i> Linnaeus | <i>Sophora molis</i> (Royte) Baker |
|------------|---------------------------------------|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Fodder | 3 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 0 |
| Fuel | 2 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 4 |
| Timber | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Thatching | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Total | 7 | 11 | 13 | 6 | 9 | 8 | 12 | 8 | 7 | 6 |
| Rank | 6 | 3 | 1 | 7 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Table 5. Threats to plant biodiversity in KNP. (Rank scale: 1-14=5, 15-29=4, 30-44=3, 45-60=2 and 60-75=1).

| Threats | Over grazing | Climate change | Natural disaster | Cutting for fuel | Road construction | Human population | Research exploitation |
|----------------|--------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| Score | 15 | 14 | 8 | 7 | 4 | 3 | 2 |
| Percentage (%) | 71 | 67 | 38 | 33 | 19 | 14 | 10 |
| Rank | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 |

Human preference of plant species: The preference given by the inhabitants for each plant's use, such as fodder, medicine, fuel, timber and thatching, was ranked after paired comparison tests and the number of plants fall in the ranks 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 were 9, 9, 7, 25 and 20 respectively as shown in the results. The most preferred plant species were *Artemisia brevifolia* Wall. ex DC, *Artemisia maritima* L. ex Hook.f., *Capparis spinosa* L., *Silene indica* Roxb. ex Oth, *Chenopodium album* Linnaeus, *Hippophae rhamnoides* L., *Primula farinosa* L., *Cuminum cyminum* L. and *Peganum harmala* L. which fall in the rank 1. Our results agree with the findings of Khan *et al.* (2011), Qureshi *et al.* (2011), Shedayi & Gulshan, (2012), Abbas *et al.* (2013) and Shedayi *et al.* (2014) with little variation in the species. Human preference is given to only those plants which are directly beneficial to the human being like medicine, fodder, fuel, and thatching. While the plants provide many other indirect services to human being, such as global climate change, ecosystem maintenance, soil retention are usually not considered by local people because of lack of awareness and research.

Seasonal and climatic variation: Most of the plant species found during summer followed by autumn and spring. Our study show similar findings to that of Omer *et al.* (2006) as the plants availability increases from March to July and decreases from August to November, while in winter very few evergreen plant species exist. Hussain *et al.* (2008) recorded 45 medicinal plants from Khyber Pukhtoon Khawan, out of them 17 were perennials/biannual, 20 were found in spring, while 8 species were found in autumn season. Hussain & Durani (2009) found 87 species in May, 72 in July, only 13 plant species in October in another study. The difference with our study is due to having difference in locality, altitude, and climatic factors. In the KNP most of the herbaceous plants grow and bloom during summer. This is due to late onset of the spring in the KNP and the fact that most of the plant species only have 2 to 3 months life span and then die off. However the quantity of plant species was found to be greater in autumn than in spring and very few ever green plants found in the winter. The climate of the area is continental-Mediterranean type easterly monsoon precipitation has least influence while westerly winds have an impact (Khan, 1996). The average rain fall is 140.73 mm per year, the mean maximum is 23.66mm in May and June and mean minimum is 2.26 mm in January. Temperatures are characterized by cold winters with great seasonal differences in higher altitudes and moderate summers. The average minimum monthly temperature is $\pm 4^{\circ}\text{C}$ in December and January, while $\pm 25.19^{\circ}\text{C}$ during July and August (Steinbauer & Zeidler, 2008). The temperature, direction, evapotranspiration, and wind are essential climatic parameters which determine the conditions for the vegetation type. Some plants from the area have been disappearing for the last couple of years (Khan *et al.*, 2011). As most of the plant species migrate as response of regional climate (Parmesan & Yohe, 2003).

The change in the temperature and precipitation affect the distribution of species (Lynch & Lande, 1993). Seasons and temperature variation has great impact on plant diversity, distribution, and availability. As the area has its own unique climate with rocky habitat, the plant species are common in most parts of the park in all seasons, but local microclimate is the cause of variation. Winter, being extremely cold, cannot support plants, although some trees can survive, while summer has pleasant weather and the climate support for lot of plants to grow, bloom, and then die off completing life cycle within 2-3 months. Climate change can put direct and indirect impact on range boundaries and species interaction both in terrestrial and fresh water ecosystems (Thomas, 2010).

Altitudinal variation: Most of the plant species were found in the lowest elevation (3160 m) followed by the highest elevation (4520), while in the rest of plots very less number of plants were found. As Dhee is at lower elevation having comparatively higher temperature, thus it supports more plant species at water banks and open vast valley. Top (at highest elevation) is open having its own unique microclimate, mixed soil and wetland support for most of the plant species at alpine region. In the top most of the plants life cycles complete within 1 to 3 months. No one can observe some of the plants in September which were present in July and August. In the top there is more rain and higher precipitation as compared to the other Rocky valleys. The rest of the valleys have very few plant species, because of the topography, less amount of water, soil, and Rocky habitat. Some plants are found in the crevices of the rocks and hills. The soil temperature decreases from lower to higher altitudes (Ghulam *et al.*, 1999). The alpine pasture had a unique climatic condition as compared to the other stands. The geological and geographic conditions from Dhee to the Koksai are comparatively similar with little variation. The area contains rugged terraces, rocks; gravels and sandy soil with less vegetation cover. The species diversity from Dhee to the Koksai was decreasing with an increasing altitude. The KNP Top having its own microclimate cannot be compared with the lower stands. It had alpine grasses with biennial and perennials Herbs. The study reveals that altitudinal variation has its effect on plant distribution and diversity, but most importantly, local microclimate has its own impact and act as the driving force for plant diversity, distribution and services.

Functional groups and habitat of plant species: As mentioned in the results most of the plant species found in KNP are herbs with few shrubs and very small quantity of trees. Trees like salix, populus, birch, and junipers were observed. As observed only a few juniper species in the park with many remnants/stumps indicating this species has been facing severe threats because of its high level cutting for timber, fuel and medicinal use. Very small patches of birch forest can be observed at high altitude

shady deep valleys. In Dhee and Karchani near river banks some Seabuckthorne and in Koksai at river bank *Myricaria* are found. While rest of the plant species are herbaceous and grasses. Earlier studies at KNP such as Khan *et al.* (2011) and Quereshi *et al.* (2011) also report highest number of herbs as compared to shrubs and trees. The area is narrow covered with rough rocks with small amount of soil. Streams at different localities provide habitat for most of the plant species. Some plants grow even on rocky habitat, while the soil is sandy in most parts of the area with little sandy loam soil at the top, which has its own microclimate. At the top and at water banks moist soil is found, which facilitate germination and growth of plants. Islam *et al.* (2006) classified 49 weed species into herbs shrubs, trees and climbers. The survival of plant species in such rocky and extreme temperatures depend on their adaptation to such environmental conditions from District Swat. These plants achieve the ability to cope with specific environmental demands in three ways a) evolutionary adaptation b) ontogenic modification or c) modulation (Korner, 2003). This study provides unique information about the habitat of plant species in the area. The shrubs and trees have been threatened due climatic and anthropogenic activities, like drought, cutting for timber and fuel and research exploitation.

Parts and form of use: Our study shows that leaves are the most commonly used parts followed by stem and whole plant while Khan *et al.* (2011) also reported that leaves (24.7%), flowers (21.9%) and whole plant and fruits (13%) used for preparation of medicine. Shedayi *et al.* (2014) and Shedayi & Gulshan (2012) also recorded leaves as the most commonly used parts in Gilgit-Baltistan. Different parts of medicinal plants used as medicine by the local traditional healers among them, the leaves were most frequently used for the treatment of diseases followed by the whole plant, fruits, stem, root, seed and flowers. Previous studies from other regions do not agree with our findings, this may be due to the differences in climatic, topographic, social and ethno-cultural diversity and differences in the life style and food habits as per regional and local conditions. According to previous studies the most frequently used form was powder, followed by paste, and juice (Luitel *et al.*, 2014), most of the herbal remedies used in the form of paste (Buragohain & Konwar, 2007), as juice and powder are mostly used parts for medicinal purpose (Shedayi *et al.*, 2014).

Services of plant resources: The plant resources in KNP are being used for fodder, medicine, fuel, timber, thatching. These play important role in the socio-economic condition and poverty eradication of the area providing services directly and indirectly. A plant in one place may be useful as food, feed, fiber and medicine while in any other it may be a weed. Pakistan is one of the few places on earth with such a unique biodiversity, comprising of different climatic zones with a wide range of plants species (Shinwari & Malik, 1989). Various medicinal plant species are also used as food along with their medicinal benefits, evaluating their metal content can help to understand the suitability of these plants species (Husain *et al.*, 2009). Among the 48 woody species that are mostly native plants have 70 uses by the residents of Haramosh and Bagrot valleys, predominantly as medicines, timber, shelter, domestic items and fuel (Khan & Khatoon,

2007). Abbass *et al.* (2013) reported 141 plant species which were recorded being used ethno botanically by the people of Naltar valley District Gilgit. People living in the mountainous areas of Pakistan use plants in many ways including medicines, timber, wood, firewood, food and fodder (Hussain & Khaliq, 1996). In hilly areas, the local plants are documented on fodder for domestic and wild animals, nutritional and vitamins supplement for people, constituents of many indigenous medicines (Goodman & Ghafoor, 1992). In the KNP most of the plants observed are being used as fodder (about 80%) because the area not only supports the wildlife but also livestock are feeding on the same plant resources. These findings agree with those of Hussain & Mustafa (1995), who reported 51 species from Hunza as fodder resources. Hussain *et al.* (2005) also reported plants that are traditionally used for curing diseases like fever, cough, asthma, respiratory problems, stomach and abdominal disorders, rheumatism and joints pain etc. Changes in their life style seem to be responsible for the decline of practice in the local use of herbs for medicinal uses. It is therefore important to record the ethnobotanical uses of these plants before the information is lost. Edible plants include 6 species, which are locally used as vegetables. Some of the species are used as condiments and flavoring agents. The inhabitants take these plants to their home and use them for different purposes. The tribal people of western Madhya Pradesh of India use 13 plants for the treatment of jaundice disease (Samvatsar & Diwanji, 2000). A similar study conducted by Shedayi & Gulshan (2012) found 35 plant species used to treat 34 different diseases. A recent study shows; 34 plant species used to treat 31 different diseases (Shedayi *et al.*, 2014). The increasing numbers from most to least preference show the similarities in both studies. Khan & Khatoon (2008) also found similar diseases such as fever, cough, asthma, respiratory problems, stomach and abdominal disorders, rheumatism, joints pain cured by medicinal herbs in Haramosh Valley. These ecosystem services of the KPN have significant impact on the socio-economic condition of the inhabitants of the area as well as their contribution to global change. Besides being used as traditional medicine, plants are widely used in the modern pharmaceutical industries as raw material and ingredient for manufacturing of medicines (Sadia *et al.*, 2013). The people are benefiting from the ecosystem services of KNP in terms of soil retention, air and water purification, food/fodder, medicine and maintenance of climate, food chain, global climate change as being the sink for global carbon stock, trophy hunting and ecotourism and cultural products.

Palatability of plant species: Depending on plant chemical composition, growth stage, and the type of plant species, animal's like or dislike due to relative preference is called palatability (Heady, 1964). Our results show that most of the plants were palatable followed highly palatable, while a very small number of plants were less palatable or poisonous (non-palatable). Our results are similar to that of Amjad *et al.* (2014) in which they found 55 percent plants species were palatable and 45 percent were non-palatable out of 110 plant species, among which 16.66% were highly palatable, 36.66% mostly palatable, 31.66% less palatable and 15% were rarely palatable species. Our results also indicate that most of the plant species in the study area are useful and have significance. Most of the plants in KNP are found in

herbaceous form with some shrub species and a very few number of trees. Animals prefer whole herbs to eat followed by leaves then seeds and fruits. While in another study in arid range land Kalat, Pakistan, Hussain & Durani (2009) found that 129 palatable species including 50.4% highly palatable, 41.1% mostly palatable, 4.65% less palatable and 3.87% rarely palatable species in the area. Our results also agree with these previous studies. There are 3 major factors that affect palatability as recorded by Marten (1978) these are 1) the animal factors 2) plant factors 3) Environmental factors. Palatability is a good indicator of the services of the plant resources and their uses as forage by animals. In this study we found that most of the plants species are palatable and used by wildlife and livestock.

Competition for plant resources: Most of the plant species are used both by livestock and wildlife. Livestock and wild life both share basic needs such as food, water, cover, and space Bailey & Brown (2011). Wild life species are selective consumers and they select plant species according to their physiological and morphological adaptation. Both wildlife and livestock are categorized by their degree of selection of food such as grass/roughage, intermediate and concentrate (Hofmann, 1989). Grass/roughage (eat most of the plant species except poisonous plants), intermediate (eat about 50% plant species) and concentrate (much selective and prefer to eat very few plant species). This competition for food has put a pressure and cause declination or migration of plant resources. The most vulnerable among all are plants followed by wildlife. As plants are directly eaten by most of the wildlife such as marmot, ibex, marco polo sheep and blue sheep and sometimes by bear. Most of the herbivores are food for the carnivores such as snow leopard, brown bear, wolf and wild dog. Cutting of plants and overgrazing by livestock are the major causes of making the ecosystem food chain imbalance. Because of the misuse of these plant resources, the food chain of the ecosystem is disturbed, which may cause migration or extinction of some of the unique and important plants and animals.

Indigenous knowledge resource: Gilgit-Baltistan is an ecologically sensitive and fragile area that the knowledge system of the native people is sporadic and incomplete (Khan *et al.*, 2011). The declining indigenous knowledge is also a threat and it was found that only the old aged people in the valley know the local names, uses, grazing preference and site effects of the plants. Similar results were also recorded by Shiekh *et al.* (2002), Khan *et al.* (2011), Shedayi & Gulshan (2012), Abbas *et al.* (2013) and Shedayi *et al.* (2014). The reason of the declination of the traditional knowledge about plant uses is because of communication gap between old age people and youngsters. Modern technological advancements have also contribution in making youngsters busy all the time and widening the gap. Only some herbalists, hakims and elders know the uses of these plants. It is predicted that the older folk will die with lot of traditional knowledge un-transferred. Until now, all the studies on ethnobotany and ethnoecology have revealed that the traditional knowledge is confined to only the old age people. The unique uses of plants in the area for the human welfare are in its edge because of lack of awareness and lack of facility for knowledge transfer.

Threats to the plants in KNP: The results show that the major threats to the biodiversity of the park were over grazing, climate change impact, natural disasters, construction activity, research exploitation, and increasing human population and intervention. The managed ecosystem have comparatively high species diversity and also associated with traditional extensive livestock grazing (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2014). The people of the adjacent valleys have large numbers of livestock which graze in the pastures of the KNP throughout the year. This has exerted lot of pressure on the plants resources. Livestock grazing has more impacts on land use affecting ecosystems. Grazing impacts depends on the number of stocks and elevation of the land (Bradley & Osullivan, 2011). Secondly, there is competition between livestock and wildlife as both shares the largest number 60% of plants to graze. Climate change impact is the next threat for biodiversity in the region. It is predicted that in the future this threat will exert the most severe impact on biodiversity by altering the weather conditions and increasing natural disasters. Earth's natural biodiversity and landscape is altered by global climate changes fostered by human induced impacts (Neilson *et al.*, 1992). Dry regions face severe consequences of climate change as many endemic species migrate or extinct while the increasing demand of drought tolerant species may result the introduction of new species (Bradley *et al.*, 2010; Diez *et al.*, 2012) which may increase competition between the invasive and endemic plants. Human intervention by road construction has put pressure on most of the plant species and wildlife. Many people visit the area and smuggle the precious medicinal plants in huge amounts for medicinal and pharmaceutical purposes. Smuggling, exploitations and natural disasters are the major threats for the Plants in Naltar valley Gilgit (Sheikh *et al.*, 2002). Although cutting of plants from KNP is prohibited, some people living around KNP, due to lack of basic facilities such as electricity, gas and coal depend mostly on plants for fuel. Fuel wood is the major source of household energy. It has become a threat for the vegetation of this area. Threats to the medicinal plants in Pakistan are reported as unawareness about their importance, mismanagement of habitat, language problems, ignorance, over cutting for fuel, wood consumption, careless uprooting of medicinal plants, and heavy grazing (Qureshi & Ahmad, 1996); Malik & Hussain, 2007). Qureshi *et al.* (2011), Khan *et al.* (2011) and Abbas *et al.* (2013), Shedayi & Gulshan, (2012) and Shedayi *et al.* (2014) also have reported threats similar to our findings. These threats will exert serious consequences on the ecosystem services if not addressed by urgent based efforts and effective management.

Acknowledgement

The authors are thankful to WWF, Gilgit and Dr. Babar Khan for providing the logistic support during the study. We are also thankful to the taxonomists at Pakistan Museum of Natural History, Dr. Sher Wali Khan of Biological Sciences, KIU, Dr. Jan Alam of department of Botany, Hazara University.

References

- Abbas, Q., R. Qureshi, A.U.N. Naqvi, S.W. Khan and I. Hussain. 2013. Floristic inventory and ethnobotanical study of the Naltar valley (Karakoram Range), Gilgit, Pakistan. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 45: 269-277.
- Ali, H. and M. Qaiser. 2009. The ethnobotany of Chitral valley, Pakistan with particular reference to medicinal plants. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 41(4): 2009-2041.
- Ali, S. I. and M. Qaiser. 2015. *Flora of Pakistan. Department of Botany, University of Karachi* (1995).
- Ali, S.I. and M. Qaiser. 1986. A phytogeographical analysis of the phanerogams of Pakistan and Kashmir. In: *Proc. Royal Soc. Edinburgh. B* (Vol. 89, pp. 89-101).
- Amjad, M.S., M. Arshad, S. Fatima and N. Mumtaz. 2014. Palatability and Animal Preferences of Plants in Tehsil Nikyal, District Kotli, Azad Jammu and Kashmir Pakistan. *Annual Research & Review in Biology*, 4(6): p. 953.
- Anonymous. 2005. Millennium Ecosystem Assessment synthesis report on Biodiversity and human health, Washington, DC: Island press, 2005.
- Bailey, D.W. and J.R. Brown. 2011. Rotational grazing systems and livestock grazing behavior in shrub-dominated semi-arid and arid rangelands. *Rangeland Ecology & Management*, 64(1): 1-9.
- Bradley, B.A., M. Oppenheimer and D.S. Wilcove. 2010. Climate Change Increases Risk of Plant Invasion in the Eastern United States. *Biol. Invasions*, 12(6): 1855-1872.
- Bradley, B.A. and M.T. O'Sullivan. 2011. Assessing the short-term impacts of changing grazing regime at the landscape scale with remote sensing, *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 32(20): 5797-5813.
- Buragohain, J. and B.K. Konwar. 2007. Ethnomedicinal plants used in Skin diseases by some Indo-Mongoloid communities of Assam. *Asian. J. Exp. Sci.*, 21(2): 281- 288.
- Bukhari, A.H. 1994. *Ethnobotanical survey and vegetation analysis of Machyara National Park Azad Kashmir, Pakistan* (Doctoral dissertation, M.Sc. Thesis, University of Azad Kashmir).
- Diez, J.M., C.M. D'Antonio, J.S. Dukes, E.D. Grosholz, J.D. Olden, C.J.B. Sorte, D.M. Blumenthal, B.A. Bradley, R. Early, I. Ibanez, S. Jones, J.J. Lawler and L.P. Miller. 2012. Will extreme climatic events facilitate biological invasions? *Front. Ecol. Environ.*, 10(5): 249-257.
- Cardinale, B.J., J.E. Duffy, A. Gonzalez, D.U. Hooper, C. Perrings, P. Venail, A. Narwani, G.M. Mace, D. Tilman, D.A. Wardle and A.P. Kinzig. 2012. Biodiversity loss and its impact on N humanity. *Nature*, 486(7401), pp. 59-67.
- Colfer, C.J.P. (Ed.). 2012. *Human health and forests: a global overview of issues, practice and policy*. Routledge.
- Connors, B.M. and A.B. Cooper. 2014. Determining decision thresholds and evaluating indicators when conservation status is measured as a continuum. *Conserv. Biol.*, 28(6): 1626-1635.
- Fechner, G.T. 1948. Elements of psychophysics, 1860.
- Geldmann, J., L. Joppa and N.D. Burgess. 2014. Mapping change in human pressure globally on land and within protected areas. *Conserv. Biol.*, 28(6): 1604-1616.
- Ghulam, D., I. Haq and Z.H. Malik. 1999. Phyto sociology of Mai Dhani Near Muzaffarabad, Azad Kashmir. *Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences*, 2(1): 185-191.
- Goodman, S.M. and A. Ghafoor. 1992. The ethnobotany of southern Balochistan, Pakistan, with particular reference to medicinal plants. *Fieldiana: New series*, 31, 1, V-11. 84.
- Heady, H.F. 1964. Palatability of herbage and animal preference. *Journal of Range Management*, 76-82.
- Heath, M.E., R.F. Barnes and D.S. Metcalfe. 1985. Forages: The Science of Grassland Agriculture. Iowa State University, Iowa, Ames.
- Hofmann, R.R. 1989. Evolutionary steps of ecophysiological adaptation and diversification of ruminants: a comparative view of their digestive system. *Oecologia*, 78(4): 443-457.
- Huntington, H.P. 2000. Using traditional ecological knowledge in science: methods and applications. *Ecol. Appl.*, 10(5): 1270-1274.
- Hussain, F. and A. Khaliq. 1996. Ethnobotanical studies on some plants of Dabargai Hills, Swat. Pp. 207-215 in Proceedings of First Training Workshop on Ethnobotany and its Application to Conservation. NARC, Islamabad.
- Hussain, F. and G. Mustafa. 1995. Ecological studies on some pasture plants in relation to animals use found in Nasirabad valley, Hunza. *Pak. J. Pl. Sci.*, 1: 263-264.
- Hussain, F., H. Sher, M. Ibrar and M.J. Durrani. 2005. Ethno-medicinal uses of plants of District Swat, Pakistan. *Pak. J. Pl. Sci.*, 11(2): 137-158.
- Hussain, F. and M. J. Durrani. 2009. Seasonal availability, palatability and animal preferences of forage plants in Harboi arid range land, Kalat, Pakistan. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 41(2): 539-554.
- Hussain, K., S. Amir and Z.H. Syed. 2008. An ethnobotanical survey of important wild medicinal plants of Hattar district Haripur, Pakistan. Shakarganj Sugar Research Institute, Toba Road Jhang (Punjab), Pakistan. Ethnobotanical Leaflets. <http://www.siu.edu/~ehi/phyto.htm>
- Hussain, K., A. Shahazad and S. Zia-ul-Hussain. 2008. An ethnobotanical survey of important wild medicinal plants of Hattar district Haripur, Pakistan. *Ethnobotanical Leaflets*, 2008(1): 5.
- Hussain, S., T. Siddique, M. Arshad and M. Saleem. 2009. Bioremediation and phytoremediation of pesticides: Recent advances. *Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology*, 39(10): 843-907.
- Ibrar, M., F. Hussain and A. Sultan. 2007. Ethnobotanical studies on plants of Ranyal hills, Distic Shangla. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 39: 329-337.
- Ilyas, M., Z.K. Shinwari and R. Qureshi. 2012. Vegetation composition and threats to the montane temperate forest ecosystem of Qalagai hills, Swat, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 44: 113-122.
- Iqbal, Z. 2010. Ethnobotanical studies of Dirkot, Azad Jammu Kashmir. 2nd International conference on Medicinal plants. Department of chemistry organic section HEC-BCJ Help-II. Lahore College for Women University.
- Islam, M., A. Habib, R. Abdu, A. Naveed and K. Ikramullah. 2006. Weeds and Medicinal Plants of Shawar Valley, District Swat. *Pak. J. Weed Sci. Res.*, 12(1-2): 83-88.
- Iwn, M.M., A.R. Ducan and C.O. Okunji. 1999. New antimicrobiols of plaant origion. In: J. Janick (Ed). Prospective of new use. ASHS press, Alexandria VA, pp. 457- 462.
- Kazmi, M.A. and I.A. Siddiqui. 1953. Medicinal plants of Astore and upper Gurraiz valley. *Pak. J. Plant Sci.*, 1: 217-223.
- Khan, A.A. 1996. Management Plan for Khunjerab National Pak. WWF-Pakistan, Ferozepur road, Lahore, Pakistan.
- Khan, B, A. Abdukadir, R. Qureshi and G. Mustafa. 2011. Medicinal Uses of Plants by the Inhabitants of Khunjerab National Park , Gilgit , Pakistan. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 43(5): 2301-2310.
- Khan, B., S. Iqbal, M.S. Ahmad, M. Abid and A. Yaqub. 2011. First report on the Biodiversity of Khunjerab National Park , Pakistan. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 43(2): 849-861.
- Khan, S.W. and S. Khatoon. 2007. Ethno botanical studies on useful trees and shrubs of Haramosh and Bugrote valleys In Gilgit Notheren areas of Pakistan. *Pak J. Bot.*, 39(3): 699-710.

- Khan, S.W. and S. Khatoon. 2008. Ethnobotanical studies on some useful herbs of Haramosh and Bugrote valleys in Gilgit, northern areas of Pakistan. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 40(1): 43.
- Khan, S.M., S. Page, H. Ahmad, Zahidullah, H. Shaheen, M. Ahamd and D. Harpe. 2013. Phyto-climatic gradient of vegetation and habitat specificity in the high elevation Western Himalayas. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 45(SI): 223-230.
- Kinzig, A.P., C. Perrings, S.S. Chapin, S. Polasky, V.K. Smith, D. Tilman and B.L. Turner. 2012. Response-ecosystem services: Free Lunch No. More. *Science*, 335: 656-657.
- Korner, C. 2003. Plant ecology at high elevations. *Alpine Plant Life: Functional Plant Ecology of High Mountain Ecosystem*; XI. 349 P, Hardcover. ISBN 978-3-540-00347-2.
- Lynch, M. and R. Lande. 1993. Evolution and extinction in response to environmental change. In: *Biotic Interactions and Global Chang.* (Eds.): Kareiva, P.M. and J. Kingsolver. Sinauer Associates Inc., Sunderland, USA, pp. 234- 250.
- Luitel, D.R., M.B. Rokaya, B.Timsina and Z. Münzbergová. 2014. Medicinal plants used by the Tamang community in the Makawanpur district of central Nepal. *J. Ethnobiol. Ethnomed.*, 10(1): 5.
- Malik, R.N. and S.Z. Hussain. 2007. *Broussonetia papyrifera* (L.) L'Her ex Vent. Anenvironmental constraint on the Himalayan foothills vegetation. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 39: 1045-1053.
- Marten, G.C. 1978. The Animal-Plant Complex in Forage Palatability Phenomena. *J. Anim. Sci.*, 46: 1470-1477.
- Mehmood, S.W., A.A. Dasti and J. Shah. 2004. Common medicinal plants of Chapursan valley, Gojal II, Gilgit – Pakistan. *Journal of Research (Science)*, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan, 15(1): 41-43.
- Mohan, V.R., A. Rajesh, T. Athiperumalsami and S. Sutha. 2008. Ethnomedicinal plants of the Tirunelveli district, Tamil Nadu, India. *Ethnobotanical Leaflets*, 12: pp.79-95.
- Moon, K., V.M. Adams, S.R. Januchowski-Hartley, M. Polyakov, M. Mills, D. Biggs, A.T. Knight, E.T. Game and C.M. Raymond. 2014. A multidisciplinary conceptualization of conservation opportunity. *Conserv. Biol.*, 28(6): 1484-1496.
- Mueller, D.J. 1986. *Measuring social attitudes: A handbook for researchers and practitioners*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Neilson, R.P, G.A. King, R.L. DeVelice and J.M. Lenihan. 1992. Regional and local vegetation patterns: the responses of vegetation diversity to sub continental air masses. In: *Landscape Boundaries*. (Eds.): Hansen, A.J. and F. Di Castri. pp. 129-149.
- Nyamangara, M.E. and L.R. Ndlovu. 1995. Feeding behavior, feed intake, chemicals and botanical composition of the diet of indigenous goats raised on natural vegetation in a semi- arid region of Zimbabwe. *J. Agri. Sci.*, 124: 455-461.
- Omer, R.M., A.J. Hester, I.J. Gordon, M.D. Swaine and S.M. Raffique. 2006. Seasonal Changes in Pasture Biomass, Production and Offtake under the Transhumance System in Northern.
- Pei, S. 1992. Mountain Culture and Forest Resource Management of Himalaya. In: *Himalayan Ecosystem*. (Ed.): Tewari, D.W. Intel Book Distribution, Dehra Dun, India. pp. 114-120.
- Quijas, S., L.E. Jackson, M. Maass, B. Schmid, D. Raffaelli and P. Balvanera. 2012. Plant diversity and generation of ecosystem services at the landscape scale: expert knowledge assessment. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 49(4): 929-940.
- Qureshi, H.M. and S. Ahmad. 1996. Supply and Regeneration of Medicinal plants in Pakistan, In: *Proceeding of the First Training Workshop on Ethnobotany and its Application to Conservation*. (Eds.): Shinwari, Z.K., B.A. Khan and A.A. Khan, National Herbarium, PARC, Islamabad.
- Qureshi, R.A., W.A. Khan, G.R. Bhatti, B. Khan, S. Iqbal, M.S. Ahmad, M. Abid and A. Yaqub. 2011. First report on the biodiversity of Khunjerab National Park, Pakistan. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 43(2): 849-861.
- Parnesan, C. and G. Yohe. 2003. A globally fingerprint of climate change impacts across natural systems. *Nature*, 421: 37-42.
- Pie, S.J. 1987. Medicinal plants in tropical areas of China. Proc of the symposium of the 14th International Congress Berlin, PODUC waeringen Netherlands. pp 5-35.
- Rasool, G. 1998. Medicinal plants of Northern areas of Pakistan; saving the plants that save us: 92 pp.
- Ribeiro, S., J.P. Fernandes and M.D. Espírito-Santo. 2014. Diversity and floristic patterns of mediterranean grasslands: the relative influence of environmental and land management factors. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 23(12): 2903-2921.
- Sadia, S, S. Khalid, R. Qureshi and A.A. Bajwa. 2013. *Tagetes minuta* L., A useful underutilized plant of Family Asteracea: A Review. *Pak. J. Weed Sci. Res.*, 19(2): 179-189.
- Samvatsar, S. and V.B. Diwanji. 2000. Plant sources for the treatment of jaundice in the tribal's of Westren Madhya Pradesh. *Ind. J. Ethnopharmacol.*, 73: 313-316.
- Shaheen, H. and Z.K. Shinwari. 2012. Phyto diversity and Endemic richness of Karambar Lake Vegetation from Chitral, Hindukush- Himalayas. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 44(1): 17-21.
- Shaheen, H., Z.K. Shinwari, A.R. Qureshi and Z. Ullah. 2012. Indigenous plant resources and their utilization practices in village populations of Kashmir Himalayas. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 44(2): 739-745.
- Shedayi, A.A. and B. Gulshan. 2012. Ethnomedicinal uses of plant resources in Gilgit-Baltistan of Pakistan. *J. M. P. R.*, 6(29): 4540-4549.
- Shedayi, A.A., M. Xu and B. Gulshan. 2014. Traditional medicinal uses of plants in Gilgit-Baltistan, Pakistan. *J. M. P. R.*, 8(30): 992- 1004.
- Sheikh, K., T. Ahmad and M.A. Khan. 2002. Use, exploitation and prospects for conservation: people and plant biodiversity of Naltar Valley, northwestern Karakorums, Pakistan. *Biodiversity & Conservation*, 11(4): 715-742.
- Shinwari, M.I. and M.A. Khan. 2000. Folk uses of medicinal herbs of Margalla Hills National Park, Islamabad, Pakistan. *J. Ethnopharmacol.*, 69: 45-56.
- Shinwari, Z.K. and S. Malik. 1989. Plant wealth of Dera Bugti area. *Progressive farming*, 9: 39-42.
- Steinbauer, M.J. and J. Zeidler. 2008. Climate change in Northern Areas Pakistan—impacts on glaciers, livelihoods and ecosystems. WWF Pakistan.
- Thomas, C.D. 2010. Climate, climate change and rangeboundaries. *Diversity and Distributions*, 16: 488-495.
- Wittmer, H., C. Schröter-Schlaack, C. Nesshöver, J. Bishop, P. ten Brink, H. Gundimeda, P. Kumar and B. Simmons. 2010. *The economics of ecosystems and biodiversity: mainstreaming the economics of nature: a synthesis of the approach, conclusions and recommendations of TEEB*. TEEB.