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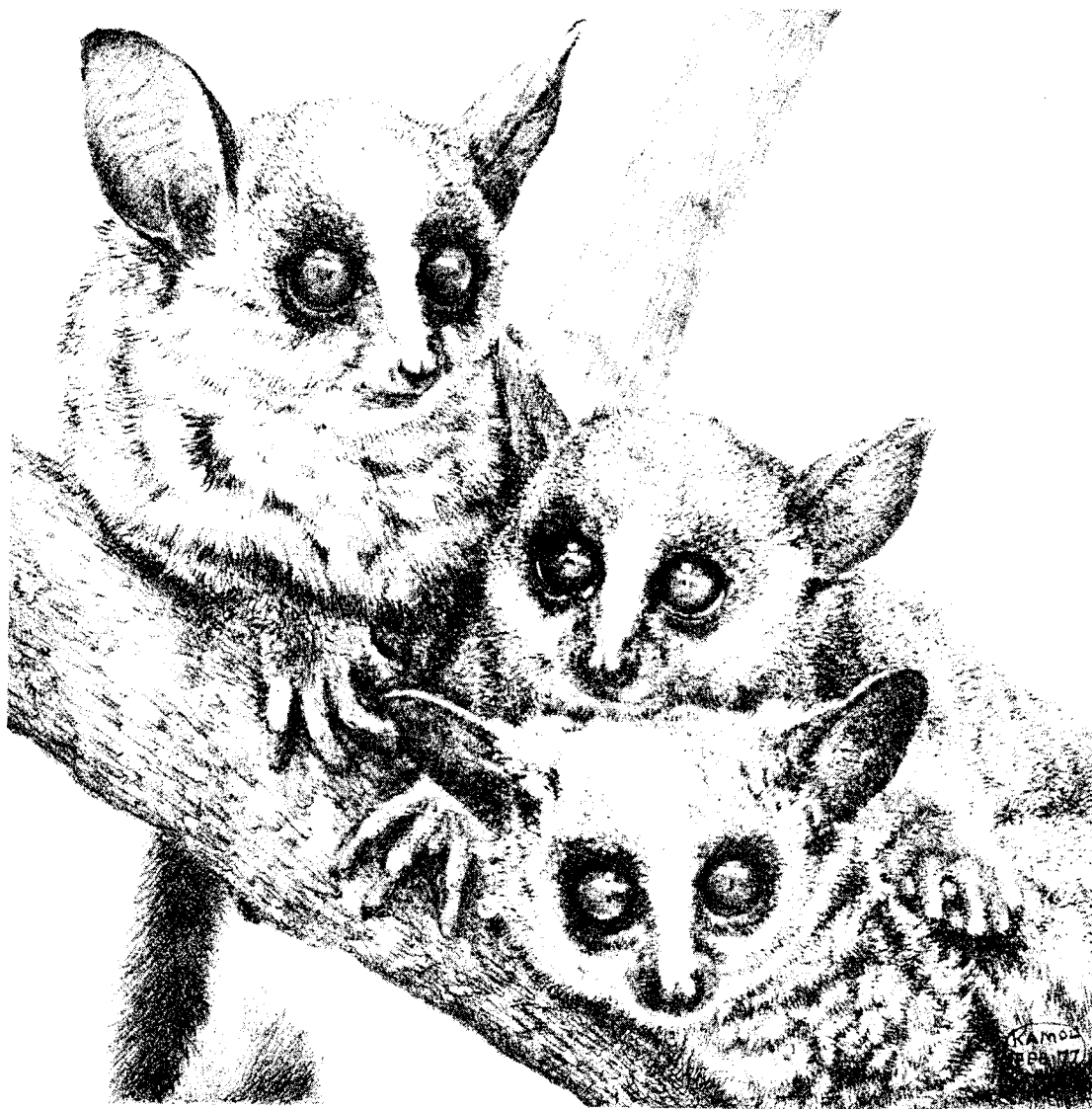
NEWSLETTER



INTERNATIONAL
PRIMATE
PROTECTION
LEAGUE

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Bushbabies by Kamol Komoiphalin

Sept 1977
~~Dec 1976~~

IPPL OBTAINS MIAMI IMPORT DECLARATIONS

by Shirley McGreal

The United States has published no statistics on wildlife importation for the years subsequent to 1972. Currently import declarations are being held at the Port of Entry, and copies of these documents are not being sent to Washington for systematic review for the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, as was the practice previously.

Organizations such as IPPL which are interested in monitoring the wildlife traffic for possible violations of United States and International laws are severely hampered by this lack of review. By the time that violations are uncovered, so much time may have elapsed since they were perpetrated that the offenders are unlikely to be prosecuted.

In an effort to obtain up-to-date information on wildlife importation, IPPL submitted a request under the Freedom of Information Act for all import declarations which are known as Form 3-177, for primates filed in 1976. Miami is the only major Port of Entry which provided the forms in time for detailed analysis in the current newsletter.

During 1976, a total of 3,043 primates entered the United States through Miami of which 28 originated in Africa and the remaining 3,015 in South America. During 1972, the most recent year for which United States government figures are available, a total of 44,971 primates were imported into the United States from South America. The figures do not state what proportion of these animals passed through Miami.

Table 1. South American monkeys (*Cebidae* and *Callithricidae*) imported into the United States through Miami in 1976

Country of origin											
SPECIES	BOLIVIA	BRAZIL	ECUADOR	EL SALVADOR	GUYANA	HONDURAS	NICARAGUA	PANAMA	PARAGUAY	PERU	TOTAL
Red uakari (<i>Cacajou rubicundus</i>)					1						1
Squirrel monkey (<i>Saimiri sciureus</i>)	739				652						1391
White-fronted Capuchin (<i>Cebus albifrons</i>)	2				15	1	2	6			26
Weeper capuchin (<i>Cebus apella</i>)	37				7						44
Owl monkey (<i>Aotus trivirgatus</i>)			1	11				165	128		305
Spider monkey (<i>Ateles paniscus</i>)						11	47				58
Cottontop marmoset (<i>Saguinus oedipus</i>)								94	685		779
White-moustached tamarin (<i>Saguinus mystax</i>)		106								250	356
Species unclear									55		55
Total	778	106	1	11	675	12	49	265	868	250	3015

For comparison with the 1976 importations through Miami, total importations into the United States of the same or comparable species during 1972 are presented below.

Owl monkeys:	2522
Spider monkeys:	2070
Capuchins (all species):	6063
Squirrel monkeys:	25,297
Cottontop marmosets:	2419
White-moustached tamarins:	1064

Part of the drop in numbers may be attributed to the U.S. Public Health Service ban on the importation of primates for the pet trade which took effect in 1975. However, this ban was preceded by, and was precipitated by, the Brazilian ban on primate exports (1971) and the Colombian and Peruvian bans (1974).

Although definitive conclusions about primate imports cannot be drawn until declarations are obtained from all ports of entry, several statements can be made about importations of South American primates.

1) Restrictions imposed by South American countries on the export of primates may have led to major reductions in importations into the United States. In addition to Colombia, Brazil, and Peru, Guyana has also initiated an export ban on primates, which took effect in late 1976.

2) No primates from Colombia were imported to the United States through Miami in 1976. Although there is a possibility that some Colombian primates entered the USA through third countries, it appears that Colombia is upholding its export ban. Michael Tsalickis, a U.S. expatriate residing in Colombia, who was the major primate dealer in South America, is now known to be running jungle safaris.

3) Peru has made an exception to its ban on the export of primates to allow shipment of limited numbers of White-moustached tamarins to the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) for studies to be conducted at the Communicable Disease Center in Phoenix, Arizona. These primates were exported by the Veterinary Institute for Tropical Investigations in Iquitos, Peru. No other species were shipped, and no transaction involved animal dealers.

4) The small number of White-moustached tamarins exported by Brazil was trapped and shipped by employees of the Delta Primate Center, Covington, Louisiana. Brazilian trapping and export permits were obtained by Benjamin Blood D.V.M., of the U.S. Interagency Primate Steering Committee. No other primate species were exported, and no shipments involved animal dealers.

5) Although the Cottontop marmoset is not indigenous to Paraguay, import declarations show 685 specimens imported from that country. IPPL has requested the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service to investigate these shipments.

6) One Red uakari was reported to have been imported (see declaration, opposite). All species of uakari monkeys have been on the U.S. Endangered Species List since 1970 and, therefore, require an Endangered Species permit for importation. IPPL was not able to find any record of such a permit and has requested an investigation.

7) An entire shipment of Owl monkeys was dead on arrival (DOA) at Miami Airport on 19 March 1976. IPPL has contacted Braniff Airlines, which transported the monkeys, and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service in Miami for information as to the cause of death.

8) Not a single Woolly monkey (*Lagothrix* sp.) was imported into the United States through Miami in 1976. This appears to be associated with the end of the pet trade in primates and the apparent lack of biomedical importance of the

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
Fish and Wildlife Service
Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife
Washington, D.C. 20240

DECLARATION FOR IMPORTATION OF FISH OR WILDLIFE
(50 CFR 13.12; 17.4)

PLEASE PRINT OR TYPE THIS FORM

Instructions: Submit original and copy to District Director of Customs*, at the port of entry where inspection occurs.

Carrier GUYANA AIRWAYS
Flight or voyage # 601
AWB or BL number 206-10403912
Date 2/25/76

☆ GPO: 1971-O-414-519

Name of Importer PET FARM INC.	Address (Street, City, State, and Zip Code) 7290 N.W. 41 st STREET MIAMI FLA.
Name of Broker (If any) FORBINS INC.	Address (Street, City, State, and Zip Code) P.O. BOX 48-1111 MIAMI FLA. 33148
Name of Consignor (or SHIPPER) NORMAN LALL	Address (State, City, State, and Zip Code) GEORGETOWN, GUYANA

List below by species, giving common and scientific names, country of origin, and number of animals or fish imported of each:

COMMON NAME	SCIENTIFIC NAME	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	NUMBER
TEGU LIZARDS	TEGUMETOPINAMBIE TEGUJIN	GUYANA	33
SQUIRREL MONKEYS	SAIMIRI SCIUREUS	"	23
RED FACE UKARIE	CACAJAO RUBICUNDUS	"	1

If any fish or wildlife listed above appear on the Endangered Species List (50 CFR Part 17, Appendix A) designate by common name and also indicate permittee's USDI Import permit number.

Is the fish or wildlife listed above subject to laws or regulations in any foreign country in which it was taken, sold, or transported (18 USC 43)? ☐ Yes ☒ No. If yes, designate by common name and attach copies of the required documentation (50 CFR 17.4)

Signature of Importer or Broker *[Signature]* Date submitted **2/27/76**

Port of Entry *[Signature]* Signature *[Signature]* Date **3/1/76**

Form 3-177 (Rev. Dec. 1970)

Form Approved
Budget Bureau No. 42R 1476

*Bureau of Customs: Deliver originals at the end of the month to U. S. Game Management Agents at designated ports or mail to Regional Director, Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife, U. S. Department of the Interior (50 CFR Part 17, Appendix C).

Import Declaration for "Paraguayan" Cotton-top Marmosets

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
Fish and Wildlife Service
Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife
Washington, D.C. 20240

DECLARATION FOR IMPORTATION OF FISH OR WILDLIFE
(50 CFR 13.12; 17.4)

PLEASE PRINT OR TYPE THIS FORM

Instructions: Submit original and copy to District Director of Customs*, at the port of entry where inspection occurs.

ID#1293927
Carrier LAN CHILE
Flight or voyage # #146
AWB or BL number 045/01341406
Date 1/24/76

☆ GPO: 1971-O-414-519

Name of Importer Tropical Animal Distributors	Address (Street, City, State, and Zip Code) 154 N.W.37th Street-Miami, Fla. 3312
Name of Broker (If any) NOVO INTL.CORP.	Address (Street, City, State, and Zip Code) P.O.BOX #48/1292-Miami, Fla. 33148
Name of Consignor (or SHIPPER) Animal Exportimp	Address (State, City, State, and Zip Code) Correo 1543-Asuncion, Paraguay

List below by species, giving common and scientific names, country of origin, and number of animals or fish imported of each:

COMMON NAME	SCIENTIFIC NAME	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	NUMBER
Cotton Top Marmoset	S.Oeidpus	Paraguay	80

If any fish or wildlife listed above appear on the Endangered Species List (50 CFR Part 17, Appendix A) designate by common name and also indicate permittee's USDI import permit number.

NOTE

Is the fish or wildlife listed above subject to laws or regulations in any foreign country in which it was taken, sold, or transported (18 USC 43)? ☐ Yes ☒ No. If yes, designate by common name and attach copies of the required documentation (50 CFR 17.4)

Signature of Importer or Broker <i>[Signature]</i>	Date submitted 1/27/76
Port of Entry MIAMI, FLORIDA 33148	CUSTOMS OFFICER Signature <i>[Signature]</i> Date 1/29/76

Form 3-177 (Rev. Dec. 1970)

*Bureau of Customs: Deliver originals at the end of the month to U. S. Game Management Agents at designated ports or mail to Regional Director, Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife, U. S. Department of the Interior (50 CFR Part 17, Appendix C).

Form Approved
Budget Bureau No. 42R 1476

Import Declaration for Red Uakari Monkey

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species. Although the threat formerly posed to these monkeys by the pet trade has been reduced, other threats such as human predation for food and habitat destruction remain.

The fact that the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service is not collecting copies of import declarations for review in Washington has eliminated several useful functions which these documents may serve. In addition to preparing statistics on importations, these declarations can be used to monitor airline shipping standards and as law enforcement tools.

Airlines do not publish statistics on animals dying during travel. Very few data have been collected on mortality except in those instances where private groups such as the Washington Humane Society, the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (RSPCA), IPPL, and student conservation groups in Thailand have undertaken surveillance projects. Form 3-177 can provide useful information in this connection.

The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service allows importers two weeks in which to complete import declaration forms for shipments. This makes it difficult for U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service or Customs agents to verify the accuracy of the importers' statements. In some cases, it appears that the importer may fail to submit any declaration at all. For example, a Miami-based importer attending the Sixth Congress of the International Primatological Society in Cambridge, England, informed an IPPL officer on 26 August 1976 that he had just received a cable confirming the arrival of a shipment of 300 marmosets from Bolivia. The records made available to IPPL by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service in Miami contain no record of any large shipments of marmosets to any Miami dealer around this period. The extent of the practice of failing to file a declaration is unknown, and, if substantial, it could seriously affect the validity of any statistics produced on the basis of the forms. Therefore, IPPL believes that it is essential that importers complete the paperwork for a shipment before removing the animals from the airport.

Most wildlife shipments are processed by brokers who handle all kinds of importations. Although this is a useful way to minimize red tape, the practice does permit the broker, who usually has no familiarity with animals, to claim that any errors made on the declaration form are mistakes of ignorance. Form 3-177 contains two questions, however, which bear on the legality of shipments: one asks whether a species is on the U.S. Endangered List and the other whether the species is protected by law in any country involved in the transaction (see declaration form, opposite). False answers can lead to criminal prosecution for false declaration. Therefore, Form 3-177 is potentially a very important document for protecting wildlife since most violations of U.S. wildlife laws are defined only as civil and token penalties are assessed. Frequently, U.S. government officials have allowed importers to leave these spaces blank, however, and have tolerated illegible signatures by importers or their brokers. Likewise, officials should not permit such declarations as one in 1976 for 55 primates imported to Miami from Paraguay, which describes the animals as "Cottontop marmosets" but gives the scientific name as "*Ateles geoffroyi*", a species of Spider monkey. Such carelessness may make impossible eventual prosecution of the importer: it makes statistical analysis impossible.

There appears to be no excuse for the backlog in preparation of statistics on wildlife importations by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. The delay may, in fact, be illegal. Under Articles 6, 7, and 8 of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species, parties to the Convention, of which the United States is one, are obliged not only to collect information on trade in species listed on the Convention appendices but to make such information available to the public. All primate species are listed in appendices I and II of the Convention. By failing to keep up-to-date records, the U.S. appears to be avoiding its responsibilities under the Convention.

When figures from other major U.S. ports of entry such as New York, Los Angeles, and San Francisco are analyzed, a clearer picture will emerge of the current trade in South American primates. It is not known, however, how many South American primates were shipped to other importing countries such as Japan and the United Kingdom. In considering the effects of trade on species survival, one must also bear in mind that for each primate successfully imported several are probably lost in capture, holding, and shipment.

The 1976 importations through Miami suggest that Brazil, Peru, and Colombia, the South American countries which used to export the largest numbers of primates, have been effective in controlling the trade in primates. These countries are to be commended for, and supported in, their efforts by government and other organizations.

THE SAGA OF THE DELTA TAMARINS

Until the 1970's, the South American countries of Brazil, Peru, and Colombia, allowed unlimited export of primates. One of the species most in demand was the White-moustached tamarin (*Saguinus mystax*) which is used in research into Hepatitis A. Several thousand had been imported (4740 between 1970 and 1973) for a program which involved the sacrifice of large numbers in each experiment. Although long-term utilization of the species was clearly planned, no effort appears to have been made to set aside some of these tamarins to establish breeding colonies. As of 1973, there was not a single breeding colony of the species in the United States. Then, in November 1974, Peru refused to allow the export of 800 tamarins which had been trapped for the Merck Sharp Dohme Pharmaceutical Company. On the orders of President Velasco of Peru,

the animals were set free in the Amazonian jungle. Since then, the species has been practically unobtainable, although it is not considered rare.

In 1974, with the species already becoming hard to obtain, a belated effort was made to set up a breeding colony. A contract was signed between the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the Delta Regional Primate Center, to establish a breeding colony with an initial stock of 100 pairs of White-moustached tamarins. Dr. Douglas Lorenz of FDA was to be the Project Officer, and Dr. R. Wolf, senior veterinarian of the Delta Primate Center, was named as Principal Investigator. Funds were to be provided by the FDA, the Communicable Disease Center, Phoenix, Arizona, and the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, Bethesda, Maryland.

The contractor's first step was to contact U.S. animal dealers in an effort to procure the animals. Orders were placed with Primate Imports, Tarpon Zoo, Charles Chase, and Blue Ribbon Pet Farm, all major importers of South American primates. However, none of the dealers was able to supply the animals as a result of the bans on export of primates in the species' habitat countries. When this approach failed, another was tried. According to the contractor's **Plan of Performance**:

We hope, in conjunction with other agencies, to offer an order large enough to tempt both importers and foreign governments to supply the animals...

This approach also failed. The Contract Progress Report for April-June 1974 notes: "Our most significant problem is that we have been unable, so far, to obtain any *S. mystax*." The report also noted that Dr. D. Kruschak of the Communicable Disease Center and Dr. J. Vickers of the FDA would soon travel to South America to try to persuade officials of the habitat countries to lift the bans, for at least long enough to allow the establishment of domestic breeding colonies. If this trip materialized, it was unsuccessful, for the Progress Report for October 1974-January 1975, notes the continuing unavailability of the animals. Dr. Wolf commented, "We are currently contacting the Peruvian consulate in New Orleans to see if we can make some progress...we will continue to push the importers to pursue the acquisition of the marmosets." It is not clear how the animal dealers were expected to pursue the transaction, in face of the export bans, without resorting to illegal methods.

Meanwhile, Mr. Marolf of the Blue Ribbon Pet Farm visited the Ecuadorian Consulate in Miami and obtained an export permit for marmosets. (The word "marmoset" is often used interchangeably with "tamarin"). Marolf left for Ecuador to expedite the transaction, unsure whether he would be able to obtain White-moustached tamarins or another species. In a memo to Dr. Wolf dated 5 December 1974, Mr. Thaddeus Martin of the Delta Primate Center noted: "I received a call from Mr. Marolf on 4-12-74. He had received 100 *Callithrix jacchus* from 'Ecuador.' He inferred that they had originated in Brazil. They were priced at \$135.00 each. I indicated that we did not want any (and) expressed my amazement at this high price."

If these were Brazilian marmosets (or Colombian or Peruvian, as seems more likely since these countries border on Ecuador), then their importation to the U.S.A. would have been in violation of the Lacey Act and importer and eventual purchaser liable to prosecution. Mr. Martin contacted Dr. Lorenz at FDA, but he did not want them, and in turn suggested that Mr. Martin contact Dr. Robert Whitney of the Animal Resources Branch, National Institutes of Health, who might be able to suggest a buyer. The possibility that the transaction might be illegal did not seem to be of concern to those involved.

In March 1975, Dr. Benjamin Blood, Executive Director of the Interagency Primate Steering Committee, went to Brazil and succeeded in obtaining permission to trap and export 100 pairs of White-moustached tamarins. Fonte Boas, in Amazonas Province, was selected as the locale for the trapping. Equipment for the expedition was purchased in the U.S.A. and shipped directly to the U.S. Embassy in Brasilia. Lt. Col. Radke of the Embassy made this arrangement so that the Delta team would not be involved in red tape or delays, and would not have to pay import duty on its equipment. Since the Delta Primate Center is part of Tulane University and not a government agency, it is possible that Lt. Col. Radke was misusing his official position in rendering such assistance.

Fonte Boas is 810 miles west of Manaus. Two former export centers for South American primates, Leticia in Colombia and Benjamin Constant in Brazil, lie about 400 miles upriver, and the closest town to Fonte Boas with an airport is Tefe, a small town (population 18,000) 125 miles downriver. The only way to reach Fonte Boas is by boat or seaplane. In August 1975, Dr. Wolf and Mr. Martin arrived in Brasilia where they obtained the trapping and export permits which were signed by the President of Brazil's Institute of Forestry Development (IBDF). The situation had caused deep division among Brazilian conservation officials, some of whom opposed issuance of the permit, but, according to Dr. Wolf, "indicated that they would follow the orders from the national IBDF." IBDF required, however, that one of its staff accompany the team, and provided a trapper, Senhor Francisco Marreiros de Oliveira. From Brasilia, the team moved on to Manaus, and worked at resolving several logistical problems, such as securing an exemption from the law that, on local airline flights, no more than one animal could be carried. The rule was established for the prevention of smuggling and had been effective, but it was waived for the project.

When the team arrived at Fonte Boas, Senhor de Oliveira began his work. However, according to Dr. Wolf, he did not seem enthusiastic about his assignment; "He spent most of his day walking through the woods looking at groups

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of animals but was extremely reluctant to do any actual trapping with techniques that we considered reasonable." Among Senhor de Oliveira's methods were: placing traps at an altitude of 5 feet, which was 25-30 feet below the tamarins' pathways in the trees; filling holes in the earth with bananas, with the intention of netting the animals if they came to earth; plugging the holes by which the tamarins entered their nesting holes in the trees with the intention of cutting down the trees to catch the tamarins. None of these methods trapped a single tamarin. The animals did not descend to the ground, did not appear to like bananas, and slept in vine clusters in the treetops rather than nesting-holes. By the end of September, commented Dr. Wolf, "we were becoming very concerned, because despite abundant animal life in the area, we caught nothing, (not even) an opossum or an arboreal rat."

The team then attempted another trapping technique, catching the tamarins with glue. Glue is often used to catch birds and small mammals. It is considered a wasteful and inhumane method. An animal caught on the glue must be washed immediately. If the glue is not cleaned up after use, then animals will continue to be caught, and die painful, lingering deaths. The team used breadfruit sap to make the glue. According to Dr. Wolf, "Senhor Francisco took our first batch and rendered it into a hard mass by overheating it." When some usable glue was finally produced, the trapper took some into the jungle, but still caught nothing. Dr. Wolf noted, "We attempted to learn how it was being used, and, in spite of direct questioning and attempting to work through our interpreter, we could not ascertain this." Later, it was learned that the trapper had covered a stick with the glue and lashed the stick to a pole, which he raised in the area inhabited by the tamarins. No glue was put on the branches.

On 21 September 1975, Dr. Blood and Colonel Radke, having heard of the team's problems, arrived in Fonte Boas. Dr. Blood instructed the team to stay on as long as possible, and suggested they send someone to the Benjamin Constant area to hire an experienced trapper. However, Dr. Wolf left shortly after, leaving Mr. Martin in charge. Mr. Martin decided that no progress would be made as long as the IBDF trapper was present. Accordingly, he sent him back to Rio de Janeiro. Dr. Wolf comments in his report that: "This was rather a drastic move since our trapping permit stated that trapping must be carried out with a representative of IBDF present. However, in Senhor de Oliveira's case, it seemed justified, since 'communication was an extreme problem and it would sometimes be a week or more before we would find out that our requests or suggestions had been set aside in favor of some vague non-specific alternative which may or may not have been tried.' In short, 'he was either incompetent or did not have the best interests of the mission at heart.' It appears that the team's subsequent operations may have been in violation of the terms of the permit.

Finally, one tamarin was caught with a slingshot by an unidentified individual. Unfortunately, notes Wolf, "the animal's skull was crushed, and therefore it was destroyed for humane reasons." Humane reasons should have dictated that a slingshot not be used in the first place.

On 22 October, Dr. Gary Dawson of Michigan State University arrived to join the team. He brought along 50 Tomahawk traps, and an interpreter to replace one who had left. Dr. Dawson had trapped 150 tamarins in Panama, and, by the end of October, 16 animals had been caught. Two of them died "of traumatic injuries resulting from hyper-excited activity when the trapper stacked additional cages on their shipping crates." On 4 November, the 14 survivors left by river-boat for Tefe. The next day, they were loaded on a plane for Manaus, where they remained for a week in the care of the National Institute for Amazonian Studies (INPA). Subsequently, they were flown to Miami and New Orleans. All 14 arrived safely, although one died in quarantine of an infected tail.

The first phase of the project was over by the end of November, and the team disbanded, planning to resume operations the next year. FDA decided to subcontract the trapping activities to a team from the Smithsonian Institution including Dr. Richard Thorington and Dr. Clyde Jones. However, after six months of negotiations, this arrangement collapsed just a few weeks before the team was due to leave for Brazil. Dr. Thorington resigned, noting in an 11 May 1976 letter to Dr. Wolf:

It was my understanding that the expedition was to be part of a collaborative program with the Brazilians. However, I do not see clear evidence that this is the case...The lack of arrangements and collaboration with INPA (National Institute for Amazonian Studies) seems to me an ill omen...Of greater concern to me is the fact that the program is to be conducted with the permission but not the invitation of the Brazilians. I am not convinced that the Brazilians have a genuine desire to collaborate in this project or that their cooperation will be anything but minimal.

In spite of this setback, a team was hurriedly assembled and left in June as planned. It consisted of Dr. Wolf, Mr. Martin, and Dr. Gary Dawson and three colleagues from Michigan State University. Mr. Blakslee, son of a Baptist missionary active in the Fonte Boas area, was also hired. At the insistence of the director of the National Institute for Amazonian Studies (INPA), Ms. Marlene Becker went along at the project's expense.

In August 1976, a shipment of 44 tamarins was sent to the U.S.A. Several team members accompanied the animals. Unhappy with the adverse working conditions, they arranged a conference telephone call with the FDA in Washington. Wolf commented:

Primary among them (the problems) is the fact that we are in Brazil as tourists. We have no official recognition, and are sanctioned by only a very limited number of people in a department of the Brazilian government. Therefore, we do not get any particular recognition and enjoy no privileges, as far as moving material through Customs or getting space on airlines, even though this is supposedly a joint US-Brazilian venture...We requested that we be given some type of recognition such as a diplomatic passport.

In spite of these problems, the team returned to Brazil. In September, 26 more tamarins were shipped. By contacting Dr. Celso Soares de Castro at IBDF in Brasilia, Dr. Blood was able to arrange an extension when the team's trapping permit expired on 30 September. On October 21, 36 more tamarins were shipped and, when the project was phased out in December, five more animals were awaiting shipment, bringing the total number of tamarins exported to Delta during the two-year project to 125, excluding pre-shipment fatalities.

By March 1977, 13 of the imported animals had died, and there had been a total of four births, with one infant surviving. Most of the animals were heavily parasitized, and the condition of many of the tamarins was still considered "unstable" by the Delta veterinarians, since they had failed to adjust to their diet of monkey pellets.

In a letter dated 26 April 1976, Dr. Peter Gerone, Director of the Delta Primate Center, expressed to FDA his opinion that the financial and administrative complexities of the contract had been a "nightmare" for the Center, and concluded that, "We have already spent an inordinate amount of time on this project and the return has been meager. Our worst fear is that we are going to spend considerably more effort and money and in the end all we will end up with is a damaged image."

There is no doubt that properly-planned and efficiently-run trapping expeditions are a better way of procuring primates than methods in which commercial interests mediate, although clearly the Delta project is not an example of a well-run expedition. When a limited number of such expeditions are allowed, it can result in a reduction of external pressure to legalize traffic in primates and lessen the incentives to smuggle. Both smuggling and commercial activities are far more detrimental to both species survival and the welfare of the individuals involved than non-commercial expeditions manned by people skilled in trapping methods and animal husbandry, with strict limits established in advance according to the primate population of the area, and the importing institution's requirements. Although the Delta reports do not state the exact number of tamarins lost in capture and holding, it appears to be far less than that lost in commercial operations.

However, there are also several arguments against permitting such expeditions in countries which ban the export of primates.

One exemption tends to lead to another. Partial relaxing of export bans may weaken the position of officials supporting such bans, many of whom are dedicated conservationists. In addition, partial export bans are far harder to enforce than total bans. Allowing a local airline to carry more than one animal per flight when this is not normally permitted may lead to confusion and a breakdown in enforcement. Making tamarins available for Hepatitis A research may lead researchers to concentrate on a primate-based vaccine rather than look for an alternative method of vaccine production. Should a tamarin-based hepatitis vaccine be developed, a demand for massive numbers of animals for vaccine production and/or testing might occur: such a demand would be extremely difficult to resist.

STOP PRESS

Twelve men have been indicted in Philadelphia, USA, for smuggling endangered reptiles into the United States, and selling them to zoos in Philadelphia, St. Louis, Memphis, Knoxville, Sacramento, Dallas, and Rochester, as well as the National Zoo in Washington, D.C.

Seven Americans and five non-Americans face prosecution. The non-Americans include Christopher Wee and Y.L. Koh of Singapore, both of whom have shipped large numbers of black-market gibbons and siamangs, as well as other endangered animals, to the USA in recent years. The importation of these gibbons and siamangs is currently being investigated by U.S. authorities and indictments of several animal dealers who imported them are possible. Any indictments of alleged primate smugglers will, of course, be reported in future IPPL Newsletters.

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ARASHIYAMA WEST: A STATUS REPORT

by Harold Gouzoules

In an attempt to preserve one of the most intensively studied groups of monkeys known, an entire troop of 150 Japanese macaques was transplanted from its ancestral home near Kyoto, to a site near Laredo, Texas, in February, 1972. This troop, known as Arashiyama West since its transplantation, is now in jeopardy once again.

Study of the Arashiyama troop has been continuous since 1953 when it numbered 47 members. At that time, Dr. Naonosuke Hazama of Kyoto University, in cooperation with Mr. Sounosuke Iwata, began provisioning the monkeys with sweet potatoes and grain at the Iwata family's private park. Over the years, Japanese primatologists and graduate students accumulated a wealth of data on the monkeys, recording births and deaths and studying the complexities of Japanese macaque social organization. It was study of the Arashiyama monkeys that provided much of the data that led to an understanding of the importance of genealogical relationships and the influence of kinship ties on dominance status in Japanese macaques. It is the detailed knowledge of the genealogical relationships stretching back to 1954 that makes the Arashiyama troop so valuable for research.

As with other provisioned troops of Japanese monkeys, the population of the Arashiyama troop rose sharply to 125 members in 1964. In June 1966, with the population at 163, a fission occurred which resulted in two troops of about equal size (Arashiyama A and Arashiyama B). The Arashiyama A troop became a nuisance when forays into neighboring residential areas resulted in damage to ornamental gardens, fruit trees, and houses. The increase in population has finally become a problem and a solution was sought. As an alternative to capturing and using the monkeys for physiological and medical studies (a solution apparently preferred by some researchers), Dr. M. Kawabe of the Department of Animal Sociology, Osaka City University, representing Mr. Iwata, offered to donate the A troop to Dr. J.T. Emlen, Jr., of the Department of Zoology, University of Wisconsin, for relocation in the U.S.A. After a visit to Japan, Dr. Emlen accepted the offer and began an extensive search for a suitable site and financing. This proved a formidable task.

By early 1971 the A troop numbered 150 and had outgrown the forests of the Iwatayama Monkey Sanctuary. If the troop were to be saved for behavioral studies, a site had to be found soon, as pressure to remove the A troop was mounting. Eventually, Dr. Claud Bramblett of the Department of Anthropology, University of Texas, put Dr. Emlen in contact with Mr. E.J. Dryden, Jr., of Laredo Texas.

Dryden had been considering the possibility of breeding monkeys commercially for several years, and was interested in the Arashiyama A troop. With time running out for the monkeys there appeared to be no alternative solution, and an agreement was reached in which the monkeys would be donated to Dryden. In return, he would provide 108 acres of fenced-in brushland located about 30 miles from Laredo for the troop as well as be responsible for maintenance of the troop (including veterinary care, feeding etc.). The troop was to be left untouched for five years, allowing it to acclimate to the transplant site. After that time, while the "main body" of the troop was to remain untouched, "surplus" animals could be removed for sale. The troop was to be made available for research by scientists and graduate students interested in behavioral studies of Japanese macaques and, in particular, the adaptations that might occur in response to the Texas habitat.

The troop was transplanted to the Laredo site in February 1972, and research by students of the University of Wisconsin, as well as Mr. T. Mano, who had studied the troop for three years in Japan, began. To date, 12 graduate students from four universities have conducted research on the troop and major capture and examination projects have been undertaken on three occasions with aid from the Wisconsin Regional Primate Research Center, the University of Texas, and the Southwest Foundation for Research and Education.

Mr. Dryden's unfortunate death in December 1973 has put the Arashiyama West troop in the same danger that led to its transplantation in Texas. Mrs. Dryden has decided that she is unable to continue the Arashiyama West project and her attempts to dispose of the troop as a whole have thus far failed. Understandably, few people are able to finance, maintain, and provide adequate space for such a large troop. The problem is enhanced by Mrs. Dryden's understandable view that she is entitled to recoup the money already invested in the troop (fence construction and renovation, housing, general maintenance etc.), and this is a sizeable figure (about \$100,000).

So at the present time the troop's future is in doubt. Unless a solution comes soon, it is likely the troop will be split up and sold for physiological research. Mrs. Dryden has refrained from doing this thus far as she is well aware of the troop's value for behavioral studies. Yet circumstances will not permit this period of grace to continue for long. It is hoped that IPPL Newsletter readers can provide suggestions for possible solutions to this problem.

Note: Since Mrs. Dryden was able to sell only seven monkeys through advertisements placed in the **Laboratory Animal Buyers' Guide** (1975 and 1976), she has recently established the Dryden Research Station where behavioral studies can be conducted. Readers wishing to study the monkeys or learn more about the facility should contact Mrs. Clementina Dryden, P.O. Box 1968, Laredo, TX 78041, or telephone her at 512/722-9884.



INDIAN MONKEY CENSUS

At the present time, the United States faces a shortage of Rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*) for use in biomedical and commercial activities such as drug and vaccine production and basic research. India is currently the major source of Rhesus monkeys imported to the U.S.A. The current Indian export quota for the species is 20,000, of which almost all are exported to the U.S.A. The number is not considered sufficient by the biomedical community, which used at least 18,895 Rhesus monkeys in 1973, the most recent year for which figures are available. (*Nonhuman Primates*, National Academy of Sciences, 1975).

Responses to the apparent shortage of Rhesus monkeys have included the following:

1) increased use of other macaque species, especially the Crab-eating macaque (*Macaca fascicularis*). Malaysia and Indonesia allow unlimited export of this species.

2) efforts to procure wild-caught Rhesus monkeys from other habitat countries, for example, Bangia Dosh.

3) efforts to breed Rhesus monkeys in captivity. Such breeding programs are extremely expensive and account for less than 5% of Rhesus monkeys used in the U.S. at present. Ironically, in spite of the alleged shortage, breeding colonies sometimes find it hard to sell their colony-bred monkeys, due to their high cost.

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It is in this context that recent efforts by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) to arrange for censuses of Rhesus monkeys in India and Bangla Desh probably should be evaluated. As many as 83% of Rhesus monkeys are killed or die in their year of arrival in the U.S.A. (*Nonhuman Primates*, 1973). The better "quality" of a captive-bred monkey seems to be less important than the availability of cheap and expendable animals. NIH's goal appears to be to ensure a continued supply of cheap, wild-caught Rhesus monkeys.

For example, through the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), IPPL obtained a copy of a memo issued by NIH entitled "National Survey of Nonhuman Primates in India-Proposal for a Joint India-U.S. Project." This document states that the purpose of the survey is to collect information on the numbers, distribution, and structure of primate species in India. The survey is described as essential if India is to develop a "national program of primate conservation and management." The participants in the survey would be the Zoological Survey of India (Ministry of Science and Technology), and the U.S. Interagency Primate Steering Committee whose function is to ensure the continued availability of primates to U.S. users. The project would have two leaders, one American and one Indian, and each census team would include at least one American and one Indian scientist. The surveys would start on 1 October 1977, and be completed within a year.

Money for the project would come from Indian rupees belonging to the United States government. This money (P.L. 480 money) is payment for agricultural commodities and is "frozen" in India since it cannot be converted into dollars. The only expense in the surveys not paid from these rupees would be the U.S. dollar salaries of U.S. scientists engaged for the project, for whom the Interagency Primate Steering Committee would find funds.

Clearly, there is a need for a thorough survey of primate populations in India in order to develop meaningful conservation programs. However, there does not appear to be any reason why U.S. scientists should be involved in these surveys. India has competent and experienced scientists who could perform an adequate survey. The results of such a survey probably would carry greater authority if none of the participants were selected or paid by agencies hoping to get a share of any "harvest" of primates calculated on the basis of the census findings.

Information on the progress of the project will be carried in future *Newsletters*.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR

The following letter has been received from Dr. Zakir Husain. Dr. Husain, a professor of Zoology at the University of Dacca, is also General Secretary of the Zoological Society of Bangla Desh and vice-chairman of the Wildlife Preservation Society of Bangla Desh.

While going through the IPPL Newsletter (September 1976), I at once felt that I should bring the following to the notice of IPPL, which may perhaps do something in order to help the monkeys of Bangla Desh.

Export of our Rhesus macaque (*Macaca mulatta*) has been going on unabated, in spite of the existence of the "Bangla Desh Wildlife Preservation Order" which, of course, exists only on paper and which is observed more in violation than in any other way! Under this Order, all the monkeys are highly protected animals.

During the last 30 years, no less than 200,000 monkeys have been exported out of Bangla Desh, (formerly East Pakistan), a country of 8 million people living within 54,000 square miles. In recent years, many of the tropical and sub-tropical countries have imposed restrictions on the export of wildlife, and therefore the importing countries have turned to Bangla Desh. Understandably, Bangla Desh is eager to export anything she can to earn foreign exchange. We do not know who is advising the Government, but it seems that some people have convinced it that Bangla Desh could go on exporting an indefinite number of monkeys, many to the U.S.A. Last year 2,000 monkeys were "officially" allowed to be exported. This year already arrangements have been finalized for the export of 6,000 monkeys, mostly to the U.S.A. We are opposed to this sort of export for the following reasons:

(a) Because of the expansion of agriculture and industry, necessitated by overpopulation, forests and other natural vegetations have been disappearing very rapidly, as a result of which the monkey population has already been restricted to only a few limited areas.

(b) No survey of the monkey population has ever been made and no data collected, and therefore we have no idea about the present population size and density. We consider it highly objectionable to allow such huge export under the present circumstances.

(c) Even if export is allowed, there are certain rules which must be followed so that the troop is not adversely affected after some of its members are trapped. But since money is the main and only concern, the trappers and exporters do not have the slightest regard for what happens to the remaining monkeys.

We have tried to convey our feelings to the authorities in various ways. But we have failed to convince the Government. My apprehension is that, if such export goes on for a few more years, we shall reach a point of no return very soon.

I strongly believe that the IPPL can help us if it takes interest in the matter. The importing countries must put a restriction, if not a ban, on the import of monkeys from Bangla Desh. It will go a long way if the U.S.A. put the Rhesus macaque of Bangla Desh on the "Threatened List."

IPPL's response: IPPL shares Dr. Husain's concern over the future of the Rhesus macaque of Bangla Desh and has referred his request that it be added to the U.S. "Threatened List" to the Department of the Interior. The U.S. Endangered Species Act of 1973 does provide for a species to be declared "endangered" or "threatened" in portions of its range.

IPPL has asked the National Institutes of Health (NIH) for more information about the planned census of Bangla Desh's Rhesus monkey populations, which was announced in the 22 November 1976 issue of the *Wall Street Journal*. According to the *Journal*, the census was to be performed by the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland. However, IPPL has been unable to find any announcement requesting competitive bidding on the contract to survey Bangla Desh's Rhesus monkeys in the scientific press and is seeking to learn the reasons for the selection of this university, and whether any Bangla Desh university has been invited to be a partner in the census.

BOOK REVIEW

by Ted Nusbaum

Living Trophies - A Shocking Look at the Conditions in America's Zoos by Peter Batten, \$9.95. Published by Crowell Co. 666 Fifth Ave. New York, 10019

To the casual zoo visitor who conceives of a zoo as an entertaining afternoon of fresh air and popcorn, this book will be, as its subtitle indicates, shocking. It is a chronicle of what is wrong in the conception and management of our American zoos. *Living Trophies* is the result of four months of intensive zoo viewing, three thousand photographs, and two hundred questionnaires mailed to zoos across the nation. The book documents many examples of mismanagement, incompetence, neglect, inhumane treatment, and exploitation of animals in American zoos. Unfortunately the people who have the power to change these deplorable conditions, zoo staffs and zoological societies, will probably ignore this book due to its overwhelmingly negative perspective.

While it is neither my purpose to defend zoos nor to dispute Mr. Batten's careful documentation of specific abuses, a more objective view of the American zoo and its evolution is necessary for an understanding of the current situation. For the past few thousand years zoos have been places of entertainment for the public. Directors took great pride in displaying as many species as possible with little regard for serious study. Zoos were, in fact, menageries or living museums. Tile and metal bar "cells" were deemed adequate housing. Knowledge of nutrition was poor and breeding purely accidental.

Currently, because of ecological awareness, diminishing wild life populations, legislation, and perhaps professionalism, the role of the zoo has changed. Zoos can no longer remain consumers. They must become producers or perish in their present form. Some effort in this direction is being made. There has been a tremendous increase in the understanding of animals' needs in captivity in the last twenty years due to zoo research. Information on housing, nutrition, breeding, and medical care is available in the *International Zoo Yearbooks*, university publications and the papers of zoo-affiliated research institutions. The logical question that follows is, why do abuses still continue?

Mr. Batten would have us believe that the zoo director is largely to blame. He believes the overwhelming majority of directors are egocentric, status conscious, self-serving, unresponsive to animals' needs, and only interested in preserving their own positions. He implies that Directors mislead zoological societies and the general public with public relations rhetoric about conservation and how their own zoo is contributing. The gap between conservation rhetoric and what zoos, as a whole, are accomplishing is undeniably wide as the author painstakingly points out. Nevertheless the insight offered by Mr. Batten as to the true nature of the zoo director is undocumented and smacks of emotionalism.

Perhaps a further explanation of the gap between humane treatment and current zoo reality is funding. The municipal zoo, in these inflationary times, hardly receives the priority it merits. Urban problems are strangling major cities and the future of municipal funding will remain bleak. Zoos are stuck with outdated facilities, a legacy of the "menagerie" era.

Tearing down and replacing the antiquated structures with new and biologically appropriate environments is expensive. Progress in this area will take time. There are interim measures that can be undertaken, as the author points out. More space can be offered by cutting down on the total number of species per zoo and concentration on those species with which a particular zoo has developed an expertise. The concept of the smaller specialized zoo would seem to be a more responsive manner of conserving wild life and building up captive populations for possible restocking of appropriate wild areas. Some major American zoos, e.g. Bronx Zoo and Brookfield Zoo, have reduced their total number of species while building larger populations of species that remain.

While viewing the zoo in a historical perspective is helpful in understanding the current status quo, it does not excuse the abuses outlined in *Living Trophies*.

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There are no acceptable excuses for allowing animals to die from malnutrition, cold, or stress due to lack of shelters where an animal can get out of the public view. The mortality involved in the trapping and transport of wild animals to zoos is indeed disgraceful and makes claims of zoo conservation efforts rather hypocritical.

Just as the role of the zoo has changed, so must the role of the zoo visitor change. The author has chronicled the abuses and it is up to the public to start to apply pressure for progressive change. Standards for evaluating your local

zoo and minimum requirements for various groups in captivity are offered. Although the evaluation chapter is somewhat brief and the appendix of minimum requirements outlines minimum, not optimum, conditions, both will be helpful for you to get a general idea of the status of your local zoo. If you are interested in the welfare of wild animals in captivity and the future of nonhuman animals of our planet, do not hesitate to obtain this book. A Pandora's box has been opened.

SIAMANG AND GIBBON MORTALITY AT NATIONAL ZOO

The National Zoo in Washington, D.C. is part of the Smithsonian Institution. As an agency of the U.S. government, it is required to grant the public access to its records under the Freedom of Information Act. IPPL therefore asked the Zoo for records of its gibbon and siamang importations since 1960 since an IPPL officer had noticed a large turnover in these species. The following details were obtained.

Siamang (*Symphalangus syndactylus*)

Sex	Date of acquisition	Date of death	Time in zoo	Explanation
Male	8 July 1961	-	5 years	Shipped to unknown destination
Female	8 July 1961	3 August 1961	4 weeks	Nephritis, enteritis, emphysema
Female	28 April 1965	11 May 1965	2 weeks	Necrotic gingivitis, lung abscess, pleurisy
Male	28 April 1965	Sept. 1967	29 months	Enteritis, necrotic odontitis
Female	20 July 1965	-	5 weeks	Returned to dealer, central nervous system damage
Female	8 Sept. 1965	-	5 weeks	Returned to dealer, crippled on arrival at zoo
Female	5 October 1966	1 Feb. 1967	4 months	Strongyloides
Male	15 Dec. 1967	19 July 1969	19 months	Pneumonia
Female	28 Feb. 1967	8 Feb. 1969	2 years	Severe colitis, probably due to parasitism
Female	12 May 1969	7 Sept. 1969	4 months	Ulcerative colitis, malnutrition, severe emaciation
Female	3 July 1969	-	8 years	Still in collection
Male	29 June 1972	-	5 years	Still in collection

White-handed gibbon (*Hylobates lar*)

Male	28 October 1960	-	-	Disposition unknown
Female	9 May 1962	10 May 1962	1 day	-
Male	28 Feb. 1966	-	3 months	Donated pet, shipped to President Tubman of Liberia
Male	13 June 1966	-	3 weeks	Returned to dealer; crippled
Male	13 June 1966	-	3 weeks	Returned to dealer, crippled

White-cheeked gibbon (*Hylobates concolor*)

Female	8 September 1966	6 Oct. 1968	2 years	Peritonitis
Male	22 Dec. 1966	29 Dec. 1966	1 week	Pneumonia
Female	22 Dec. 1966	2 March 1968	15 months	Pneumonia
Female	22 Dec. 1966	-	11 years	Still in collection
Male	22 April 1967	21 Nov. 1967	7 months	Septicemia, lymphoma
Female	16 June 1967	22 Sept. 1968	15 months	Acute starvation
Male	22 Nov. 1967	15 Sept. 1968	10 months	Comatose, euthanized, cestodiasis and malnutrition
Female	22 Nov. 1967	9 July 1968	8 months	Pneumonia
Male	26 Jan. 1968	25 April 1968	3 months	Lung hemorrhages, cerebral enlargement
Female	26 Jan. 1968	4 May 1968	4 months	Pneumonia
Male	26 Jan. 1968	19 April 1968	3 months	Pneumonia
Male	25 Sept. 1970	-	7 years	Still in collection
Female	5 Oct. 1970	20 Nov. 1971	13 months	Lacerations and hemorrhages due to bite wounds, pneumonia
Female	5 Oct. 1970	-	7 years	Still in collection

Dr. Theodore Reed, Director of the National Zoo, has informed IPPL that one siamang was purchased from David Mohilef, a Singapore animal dealer, and that the others came from the International Animal Exchange (a company which regularly imported siamangs and gibbons from Y.L. Koh and Christopher Wee, well-known Singapore wildlife smugglers), Zeelandelaer, a New York dealer, and the Jakarta Zoo in Indonesia. Of the White-cheeked gibbons, six came from Mohilef, five from the Hermosa Beach Reptile Farm in California, two from Wild Cargo in Florida, and one (which is still in the zoo) from a private individual.

It is surprising that a prestigious institution like the Smithsonian should purchase siamangs and gibbons from Singapore dealers, since neither gibbons nor siamangs are indigenous to Singapore and animals offered for sale by Singapore dealers are, in almost all cases, illegally exported from their habitat countries (Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia, Laos, etc.). It is also surprising that the series of acquisitions of gibbons and siamangs appears to have gone unnoticed by Washington-based officials of the Division of Law Enforcement of the Department of the Interior, and by conservationists associated with the Smithsonian Institution and National Zoo.

Because these records are the only such documents in IPPL's possession, it is impossible to say whether the National Zoo's experience with siamangs and gibbons is typical, or worse or better than average. However, at least two U.S. zoos, Buffalo Zoo and Cheyenne Mountain Zoo, voluntarily publish annual reports which include mortality statistics. The *International Zoo Yearbook* publishes breeding successes but not losses. U.S. zoos are, in fact, not answerable to any government agency for animal deaths. It is essential to

develop legislation to force all zoos to disclose details of their acquisitions, mortality, and disposal of animals. In addition, procedures should be established by which a zoo must establish its competency to house and care for a species before being allowed to import any wild animal.

Note: Ms. McGreal visited the National Zoo in June 1977, and observed no infant siamangs or gibbons. Members of the public were observed feeding inappropriate foods (marshmallows, chewing gum) to the White-cheeked gibbons, who, clearly used to being fed, were begging. There was no sign of any uniformed attendant during the entire 3-hour visit.

NEW SOCIETY MEETS

by John McArdle

The February 1977 issue of the IPPL *Newsletter* included an announcement of the formation of the American Society of Primatologists (ASP) and of the forthcoming ASP meeting in Seattle. A number of events occurred at this conference which may be of interest to IPPL members.

At the opening meeting on 16 April 1977, the inaugural address was presented by Dr. Sherwood Washburn, of the Department of Anthropology, University of California at Berkeley. Dr. Washburn's presentation, entitled "Field Studies of Primate Behavior", consisted of a long litany of misinformation, misplaced priorities, and a general disregard for primate conservation and

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welfare. It was an obvious attempt to promote the utilization of primates in laboratory research. The following are a few highlights of Dr. Washburn's address:

1. He claimed that there is an 'overemphasis on sentimentality for laboratory animals.'

2. Dr. Washburn stated that chimpanzees are the nonhuman primates closest to man, and advocated a major emphasis on the use of chimpanzees (including Pygmy chimpanzees) for all experiments (e.g. drug evaluations) as a final check before use on humans. The number of chimpanzees that would be utilized if such a proposal were taken seriously is a cause for concern.

3. He claimed that the taking of colobus skins for rugs and coats has not seriously affected wild populations of these primates, and implied that other species could withstand similar persecution. Anyone familiar with conservation problems in East Africa knows that this is not true. (See 'IPPL Investigator finds over 1000 Colobus skins in Nairobi tourist shops,' IPPL Newsletter, February 1977).

4. Washburn stated that researchers should never consider non-animal alternatives in research projects, and took a strong position against what he called 'anti-vivisection attitudes', especially as these apply to biomedical research related to human 'needs.'

5. He made several derisive comments regarding the restrictions on importation of primates into the United States, disregarding the obvious advantages of these regulations.

6. He suggested that female orang-utans are ideal experimental subjects for studies related to human reproductive biology, since they are the only nonhuman primates in which the female is continuously sexually receptive. Several field workers do not agree with Washburn's premise that female orangs are continuously receptive.

7. In an interesting reversal of the logical sequence for studying primate behavior, Washburn stressed that the major emphasis should be on laboratory studies under carefully controlled conditions, and that field studies of naturalistic behavior were less important. One example he cited concerns the phenomenon of infant-killing observed in some species of langurs. While appearing to ignore the excellent field observations of such behavior, Washburn suggested that the only way to verify such behavior is to remove an infant from one captive group and place it in another captive group. One then waits to see if the infant is killed. This recommended research protocol is exactly backwards. Laboratory studies of primate behavior can be useful as a basis for formulating hypotheses. However, considering the various contrived and artificial situations under which most primates are kept in captivity and the behavioral pathologies often associated with such confinement, laboratory studies have no meaning in terms of the biology or evolution of a primate species unless they are confirmed by field observations of wild populations.

A few of Dr. Washburn's comments were correct. As he noted, the major problem in primate conservation is habitat destruction. Accordingly, he suggested the formation of "monkey ranches" in the habitat countries, and the rental of woodland and forest from local villagers, in the hope of getting these people to place a value on primates and treat them as a renewable resource. Such "primate-ranching" has been tried in South America, and has been a failure even where conditions seemed optimal (See "Primate Ranching-Results of an Experiment", *Oryx*, February 1977). As a protest to Dr. Washburn's address, several field researchers and functional morphologists either withdrew or did not present their papers.

At the ASP business meeting, Dr. D.G. Gantt, of the Department of Anthropology, Washington University, St. Louis, offered a resolution asking that in consideration of the emphasis on utilization of primates that was so obvious in the papers presented during the meetings, the society should take a strong stand in support of the conservation and preservation of nonhuman primates. This motion was defeated on a voice vote. Immediately after the vote, someone asked for a show of hands on the motion, commenting that it would not look good if ASP voted against conservation at its first meeting. The vote was 52 in favor and 20 against. The latter group included several researchers from the regional primate centers. Dr. Stuart Aitmann of the Department of Zoology, University of Chicago, presented a breakdown of the membership of the ASP, as of the business meeting. At that time the society had 466 members, of whom 37% were engaged in biomedical research and 48% in behavior/psychology (which also includes a substantial number of laboratory researchers). One of the final items of business included a suggestion by Dr. Nadier of the Yerkes Primate Center that the Society should become more elitist by establishing strict criteria as to who can become a member.

On the last day of the meetings, there was a symposium on 'Where the Primates are- colonies, collections, and connections.' The emphasis of the presentations was on breeding primates, not for the protection of the species, but rather to provide specimens for research. After showing some slides and discussing prosimian resources, Dr. Orville Smith, Director of the Washington Primate Center and a candidate for the position of President of the ASP, suggested that the best method for protecting prosimians (which include

lemurs, lorises, and bushbabies) would be to find some dread disease to which they are susceptible. Then money would become available to establish breeding colonies and their future would be assured.

The new society plans to hold another conference in 1978.

MONKEYS KILLED IN NEUTRON BOMB TESTING

In 1976, the U.S. Department of Defense received approval from President Ford for the production of an enhanced radiation warhead, the neutron bomb. The advantage claimed for the bomb by its military proponents was that it would destroy life without destroying property. President Carter has recently indicated his support for the development of the new weapon.

Neutrons destroy and alter cell structure, especially in the central nervous system, and can cause death from heart or respiratory failure.

The tests on Rhesus monkeys were conducted at the Armed Forces Radiobiology Research Institute (AFRRI). According to the *Washington Post* ("Monkeys get Radiation in Neutron Bomb Tests", 22 June 1977), one experiment involved training ten monkeys to operate treadmills. After eight weeks of training, monkeys were able to run on the treadmill for ten minutes, then rest for five minutes, over a six-hour period. On completion of training, the monkeys, who averaged 3½ years of age, were placed in a "squeeze-box" and exposed to a lethal dose of mixed gamma-neutron radiation totaling 4,000 rads. After undergoing radiation, the monkeys were returned to the treadmill. Within eight minutes, 80% were incapacitated, and all died within 7-132 hours. One scientist involved in these experiments was quoted by the *Post* as saying that, because of the range of responses, there was no "certainty" that any results from monkey tests would be transferable to man.

Another series of experiments was reported in the *Guardian* (18 May 1977). In an article entitled "Animal Army in Nuclear Test", the *Guardian's* science writer, Anthony Tucker, reported: "Appallingly painful animal experiments in which trained monkeys are killed by varying degrees of high energy radiation and burns have been carried out during the past 2 years." According to Tucker, the experiments were described in closed sessions at an international conference in Puerto Rico. The goal of the research was to find out how long humans could function after massive radiation exposure from neutron bombs. In the experiments, monkeys were taught to drive simulated vehicles, and then subjected to massive radiation doses. Scientists then observed the dying monkeys to see how long they could continue to function, in order to determine how long military personnel could drive tanks and fire weapons after irradiation at varying distances from the explosion of a neutron bomb. In order to study the effects of the high temperatures which would affect people close to the point of ground zero, the AFRRI ran a series of experiments combining radiation with burn damage. According to the *Guardian*, "the animal 'research' accompanying the development (of neutron bombs) is said to have sickened even hardened delegates at the conference."

IPPL believes that this inhumane and destructive use of monkeys should be stopped immediately. Many countries now export primates with extreme reluctance, and in the belief that the animals' lives will be sacrificed to enhance the quality of human life, not to refine ways of destroying it. "Research" of this nature will discredit the entire field of primate research, unless it is vigorously denounced by all segments of the primate research community.

Readers are urgently requested to write letters of protest about this misuse of monkeys to their senators and congressmen, as well as to the Secretary of Defense in Washington, D.C. Foreign readers should express their concern to the U.S. Ambassador in their country.

ATTEMPT TO TRANSPLANT BABOON HEART FAILS

On 20 June 1975, the celebrated heart surgeon, Dr. Christian Barnard, transplanted a baboon's heart into a human patient at the Groote Schuur Hospital in Cape town, South Africa. Dr. Barnard had been keeping two baboons in isolation in preparation for such an operation.

Dr. Barnard did not remove the patient's failing heart, but placed the baboon's heart alongside it, hoping that the baboon's heart would support and strengthen the patient's heart. The patient died, however, 2½ hours after surgery.

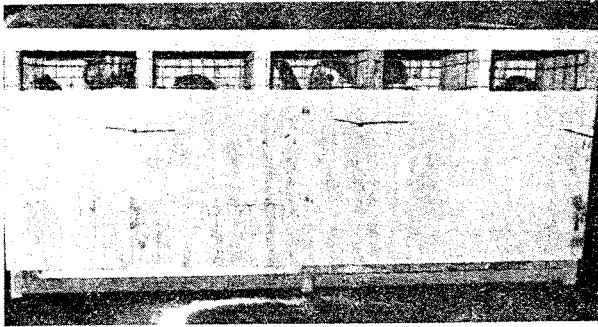
At a press conference following the unsuccessful operation, Dr. Barnard commented: "I think this is the last baboon I am going to use. I think I will use chimpanzee hearts next time." He stated that the Groote Schuur Hospital had already purchased several chimpanzees for use in future transplants.

The primate heart, baboon or chimpanzee, would have to be removed within a few days before it was rejected. Dr. Barnard's hope was that, in the meantime, the patient's own heart would have recovered and be capable of functioning unsupported, or that a human donor's heart would become available to replace it. Dr. Barnard admitted this his plans to use primate hearts were "viewed sceptically by surgeons elsewhere." IPPL has contacted Dr. Barnard for further information about his planned use of chimpanzees.

Note: In January 1964, surgeons at the University of Mississippi Hospital in the U.S.A. transplanted a chimpanzee heart into a human patient, who died one hour later. The medical team concluded: "the heart of the lower primate, at least the chimpanzee heart, is not large enough to support the circulatory load of the adult human body."

NEW REGULATIONS FOR SHIPPING PRIMATES

New Department of Agriculture regulations on shipping of primates were published in the **Federal Register** on 21 June 1977. They apply to all primates shipped from U.S. airports.



Flimsy monkey crate at Bangkok Airport

The regulations provide that:

- 1) No primate shipment should be accepted more than 4 hours prior to the departure of the flight on which it is booked.
- 2) Airlines must attempt to notify the consignee at least once every six hours after the arrival of a shipment, and records of attempted notifications must be kept.
- 3) Primate containers must be strong enough to hold the primates, and be free of dangerous protrusions on the inside.
- 4) The container should have ventilation openings over either (a) at least 8% of the surface of four sides, or (b) at least 16% of the surface of two sides; there should also be an outside rim of at least 1.9 cm. (0.75 ins.) to prevent obstruction of ventilation openings by adjacent cargo or walls of the cargo hold.
- 5) Primate species should not be mixed and there should be no more than 10 primates in a single container.
- 6) Except for certain larger species, containers should be large enough so that the primate(s) can turn around.
- 7) Containers should have leakproof bottoms. If the primates are not seated on a raised wire or other nonsolid floor, the container should hold enough litter to cover and absorb excreta.



Overcrowded monkey crate at Bangkok Airport

IPPL considers that the regulations regarding booking and notification are necessary. However, the ventilation requirements prescribed by the Department of Agriculture appear inadequate. The International Air Transport Association (IATA) insists in its manual (**IATA Live Animals Regulations**, 1975) that the entire front of primate containers be made of wire mesh, chain link, or steel bars, and that both sides of the container must have ventilation holes or openings. The Department might well have adopted this requirement. Death by asphyxiation is all too common on flights. The death of an entire shipment

of monkeys between Manila and Hong Kong in August 1974 was blamed on inadequate ventilation.



Result of overcrowding
Courtesy RSPCA

Overcrowding of animals is another cause of losses in shipment. In most circumstances, 10 would be far too many primates for a single container. The Department of Agriculture should have set a far lower figure, and insisted on partitions in cases where many primates were placed in one container.

The IATA rules state that all primate containers must have wire floors so that excreta will fall through into a droppings tray on the floor of the cage. This tray can then be removed for cleaning as required.

The Standards in general are far too vague. No distinction is made between a 6 ounce bushbaby and a 600 pound gorilla. The IATA rules provide information on strength, dimensions, and material for containers for various primate species. To state, as the Department of Agriculture has stated, that the cage should have "structural strength (sufficient) to contain the primate" is far too vague and can lead to situations such as last year's escape of 2 baboons from an inadequate crate, which tied up the traffic at Los Angeles Airport for several hours.



DEAD ON ARRIVAL: Markup at Heathrow Airport
Courtesy RSPCA

Readers concerned about the inadequate ventilation requirements, apparent official endorsement of overcrowding, and poor floor design of containers, should contact:

Honorable Robert Berglund
Secretary of Agriculture
U.S. Department of Agriculture
USDA Administration Building
Washington, D.C. 20250

STATE DEPARTMENT ROLE IN PYGMY CHIMPANZEE PROJECT

Documents obtained by IPPL under the Freedom of Information Act show clearly that the U.S. State Department and the U.S. Embassy in Kinshasa, Zaire, took an active role in negotiating the controversial National Academy of Sciences project designed to bring the endangered Pygmy chimpanzee into use in biomedical research.

The National Academy of Sciences (NAS) claims to be a private organization (See "Supreme Court declares Academy Private", this issue) and the courts have upheld this claim. The U.S. Embassy in Kinshasa, however, intervened with the Government of Zaire to allow the export of the Pygmy chimpanzees. It further allowed Mr. Joseph Engel of the National Academy of Sciences (NAS) and his colleagues in Zaire the use of the Embassy's communication facilities. Such services are rarely, if ever, accorded to a private party. They are performed for U.S. government agencies, in accordance with the statutes setting forth the duties of the Foreign Service of the Department of State.

In addition, the Embassy provided to the National Academy of Sciences (NAS) a service it would rarely even furnish to a U.S. government agency. This was the use of the Embassy plane, and an Embassy pilot, to fly the Pygmy chimpanzees from Equateur Province to Kinshasa. In contrast to the extraordinary service provided the National Academy, the protests to the Embassy by opponents of the project were ignored and ridiculed.

Although negotiations for the Pygmy chimpanzee project had begun in April 1972 during the visit to Zaire of a team of negotiators sponsored by NAS, no progress was made. In November 1973, Mr. Engel, in frustration, wrote Ambassador Vance to request his assistance in resumption of negotiations. In March 1974, Engel sent a telegram to Ambassador Vance requesting that he "take up the dwarf chimp project with President Mobutu to obtain presidential intervention to expedite development of the project." As a result, the Embassy sent an *aide-memoire* to President Mobutu in April 1974. A copy of this document was withheld from IPPL by the State Department. Therefore it is not known what arguments or inducements were offered. However, an agreement between the Academy and the Zairean National Research Institute followed, under the terms of which Zaire agreed to export several Pygmy chimpanzees to the Yerkes Primate Center in Atlanta, Georgia, for evaluation of their "biomedical potential." The next step would be the establishment of a captive breeding project for the species in order to provide animals for biomedical research.

Following this agreement, the U.S. Embassy in Kinshasa began to grant use of its cable facilities to Dr. Joseph Ghesquiere, a Belgian expatriate who was using his connections in Zaire and influence over officials of the Zairean National Research Institute to facilitate the project, and to Mr. Sinclair Dunnett, a Scottish national who was hired to capture the Pygmy chimpanzees for export to the U.S.A. At the U.S. end, the State Department allowed Mr. Engel, of the National Academy of Sciences, and Dr. Geoffrey Bourne, Director of the Yerkes Primate Center, to send lengthy telegrams to Dr. Ghesquiere, Mr. Dunnett, and Embassy officers. Such use of Embassy communications facilities by private individuals and organizations appears a misuse of public funds.

The documents obtained from the State Department show that Colonel Grow, Defense Attaché at the U.S. Embassy in Kinshasa, flew the Pygmy chimpanzees in the Embassy plane from Equateur Province to Kinshasa, where they were loaded on a Pan American flight to New York. There is no record of any payment by the Academy for this service.

In September 1975 the National Academy of Sciences contacted Mr. Grant Burke, then an Environmental Affairs Officer at the Department of State, asking him to secure copies of any correspondence between Dr. Shirley McGreal, Co-chairwoman of IPPL, and the U.S. Embassy in Kinshasa. Mr. Burke obliged and, in a telegram dated 20 September 1975, requested the letters from the embassy so that he could transmit them to NAS. Mr. Burke's telegram indicates that, in spite of his official position, he was unable to see the Pygmy chimpanzee project with appropriate objectivity.

It is quite clear that, without Embassy assistance, the Pygmy chimpanzee project would never have materialized. It is equally clear that the Embassy and State Department officers who handled the situation had no understanding of the conservation issues involved. The endangered status of the Pygmy chimpanzee is not mentioned in any of the documents obtained from the State Department. It is imperative that the State Department establish a policy and prepare guidelines under which requests for assistance in procuring animals should be evaluated, so that requests can be carefully considered and all relevant information taken into consideration before action is taken. Since the Pygmy chimpanzee was added to the U.S. Endangered List on 19 October 1976, Section 7 of the Endangered Species Act of 1973 would apply to any continuation of the National Academy of Sciences project. This Section requires that all Federal agencies, in consultation with the Secretary of the Interior, insure that their actions do not jeopardize the continued existence of Endangered or Threatened species. Therefore, the State Department could not assist, nor any federal agency finance, the project without prior clearance from the Secretary of the Interior. It is uncertain that clearance would be given for the planned capture of 50 Pygmy chimpanzees and removal to a small island in Lake Tumba.

It is obvious that African countries such as Zaire are extremely susceptible to pressure generated by the U.S. government such as occurred in the Pygmy chimpanzee situation. IPPL considers that the Embassy in Kinshasa misused its influence by intervening on behalf of private organizations seeking to bypass

the Zairean law declaring the Pygmy chimpanzee to be a protected animal. It also appears that the National Academy of Sciences wishes to avail itself of the privileges of a government agency, while being free from the public scrutiny and accountability of a government agency.

IPPL has filed an appeal with the State Department for copies of several papers on the case withheld by the Department.

SUPREME COURT DECLARES ACADEMY PRIVATE

The U.S. National Academy of Sciences (NAS) was chartered by Congress in 1863 to advise the U.S. Government on questions on science and technology. Most of its operating expenses come from government sources.

Recently, a group called the Public Interest Campaign tried to obtain NAS working papers on motor-vehicle emissions and was refused. NAS claimed that it was a private organization and thus exempt from the provisions of the Freedom of Information Act. The Public Interest Campaign sued NAS for the documents; its lawyers argued that NAS was in reality not private but a part of the executive branch of the U.S. government. A district court in Washington, D.C. determined that NAS was private and not subject to the Freedom of Information Act. In 1977. The Supreme Court of the United States upheld the lower court's decision.

MORE ON GIBBON PROCUREMENT CONTRACT

IPPL has learned that the National Cancer Institute (NCI) advanced almost \$5,000 to Pet Farm Inc. of Miami, an animal dealer currently under federal investigation for questionable importations of gibbons from Singapore, for the purchase of 30 gibbons from Laos.

The February 1977 issue of the IPPL *Newsletter* reported that in 1975 NCI entered into a contract with the New Jersey Research Foundation for Mental Hygiene for the procurement of 30 juvenile gibbons. Although the species of gibbon was not mentioned in the contract, reference is made to White-handed gibbons (*Hylobates lar*) in documents relating to the contract made available to IPPL by NCI. On filling the contract, the Foundation would receive \$30,000. However, although the contract was extended from the original delivery date of 30 November 1975, the foundation was not able to obtain the gibbons from Thailand, Malaysia, or Indonesia, the only countries to which the White-handed gibbon is indigenous and all of which ban its export.

Unable to secure the gibbons through its own negotiations, and forced to cancel planned visits to Thailand to procure gibbons as the result of adverse publicity in the Bangkok *Post*, the New Jersey Research Foundation sub-contracted in 1976 with Pet Farm Inc. to obtain the animals from Laos. Although the White-handed gibbon is not an indigenous species, Laos has been one of the main exporters of the species in recent years. Gibbons poached in Thailand were smuggled across the Mekong River to Vientiane, the capital of Laos, and subsequently shipped to the West on Laotian papers.

The New Jersey Research Foundation requested and received from NCI a letter dated 8 June 1976, stating that the latter would be willing to accept gibbons from Laos "providing they are fully and properly papered to permit legal entry into the United States of America." This document was to be used by the airlines bringing the gibbons out of Laos. Should the gibbons have been obtained and exported on Laotian papers, it is unlikely that the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service would have seized the shipment, since it had allowed White-handed gibbons shipped from Laos unimpeded entry in the past.

Pet Farm's apparent belief that it could obtain the gibbons from Laos is surprising in view of the fact that the Pathet Lao had assumed power in Laos in 1975 and driven the Thai animal smugglers out of the country. IPPL has received an unconfirmed report from a reliable source that a representative of Pet Farm visited the Far East (including Singapore) in late 1975 or early 1976, and this appears likely in view of the large travel expenses subsequently reimbursed to Pet Farm by the National Cancer Institute. Should the visit have occurred, it is not clear whether the representative was able to visit Laos since visas were almost impossible to obtain at this time.

Pet Farm was unable to obtain any gibbons. Nonetheless, the company was paid \$4,491.16 for "travel, advance payments on animals, and labor and hours expended." The New Jersey Research Foundation was paid \$1,874.39 for "telephone, rent, and accounting", and Dennis Falk, an employee of the foundation, received \$2,848.17 for "hourly effort, travel and out-of-pocket expenses." In all, the contractors received \$9,213.92, and the National Cancer Institute, nothing for its expenditure. Further, no bills, receipts, or other proof that the expenditures were made is contained in the contract documents sent to IPPL by the National Cancer Institute, whose Contract Specialist, Luther Holland Jr. informed IPPL in a letter dated 17 May 1977 that, "(the material already sent is) all the material I have relating to expenses incurred." IPPL believes that a thorough audit should have been made of the claimed expenses, both for verification and to ensure that no party took advantage of the contract to obtain a free trip to the Far East, which would have provided an opportunity to do business unrelated to the purpose of the contract.

In a letter dated 28 March 1977 addressed to Luther Holland of NCI, George Nagle, Treasurer of the New Jersey Research Foundation, explained the reasons for the failure to obtain the gibbons:



UNCLASSIFIED
Classification
Department of State
TELEGRAM

24

INDICATE:
☐ COLLECT
☐ CHARGE TO

AcEmbassy KINSHASA

DISTRIBUTION

AMB
ECM -2
AID
PAS
FOUCH:
LME
BOK
CHRON

ACTION: SeeState WASHDC
FOR AF/C
E.O. 11652: N/A
TAGS: TBIO, CG

CONTROL: 235
1/10/75

SUBJECT: Dwarf Chimpanzee Project

Ref: State 3475

ix Please pass the following message to Julian Engel,
National Academy of Science, Washington, D. C., telex 045/896.

1. Received signal with thanks expediting capture.

Appropriate \$5,000 (five thousand dollars) as soon as possible.
Ghesquiere/Dunnett.

HINTON

M

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
TELEGRAM

22

INDICATE
☐ COLLECT
☐ CHARGE TO

FROM AMEMBASSY KINSHASA

CLASSIFICATION UNCLASSIFIED

E.O. 11652:
TAGS:
SUBJECT:

ACTION: SEOSTATE WASH DC
FOR AF/C - STRAND

CONTROL: 1172
2/10/75

ACTION:

E.O. 11652: N/A
TAGS: TBIO, CG, US

ECM 2
AMB
CHRON
ECM
5/3w

SUBJECT: DWARF CHIMPANZES

1. Department requested inform Julian Engel of National Academy of Sciences of following from Ghesquiere and Dunnett:
2. At least three chimpanzees arriving NYC 18 February by PA 175 at 2355 hours. YERKES must undertake to meet aircraft with heated truck or aeroplane and many warm blankets to wrap crates during transfer. Also old warm overcoat for Dunnett size 42 inches chest. Warm southern route prohibitively expensive. Please deposit \$1,500.00 (one thousand five hundred dollars) with Pan Am Atlanta and instruct them to TELEX Mr. Sxxxx Cecchet of Pan Am Kinshasa of this deposit for travel of chimps and keeper.

HINTON

M

DRAFTED BY: MNS/LLA/RSP

DATE: 2/7/75

TELE. EXT.

CONTROL: 1172
1/10/75

CLEARANCES:

UNCLASSIFIED

FORM FS-413(H)
11-72

CLASSIFICATION

Telegrams from U.S. Embassy, Kinshasa, Zaire to State Department (Washington) about shipment of Pygmy Chimpanzees

Sep 1977

We had located these animals in several countries in South-east Asia but were unable to arrange for their export because of our inability to arrange for local government export clearance in the country of origin, adequately coordinate flight schedules to limit animal travel time to the US to a maximum of 48 hours, and finally and perhaps the greatest obstacle was the inclusion by the US Department of the Interior of Gibbon subspecies (*H. lar*) on the Endangered Species List. This action, at least in some degree in response to pressures applied by various environmentalist groups...precluded us from arranging the gibbon importation.

The above suggests that both the New Jersey Research Foundation and Pet Farm may have been aware that the White-handed gibbon is protected throughout its entire habitat range and that it was impossible to obtain the desired animals legally.

IPPL feels that questionable financial transactions, such as this one involving the National Cancer Institute, should be brought to the attention of Congressional members. Readers are therefore requested to write their senators and Representative protesting this expenditure. Letters of concern should also be addressed to: Senator Warren G. Magnuson, Chairman, Subcommittee on Health, Education, and Welfare, U.S. Senate Committee on Appropriations, Washington, D.C.

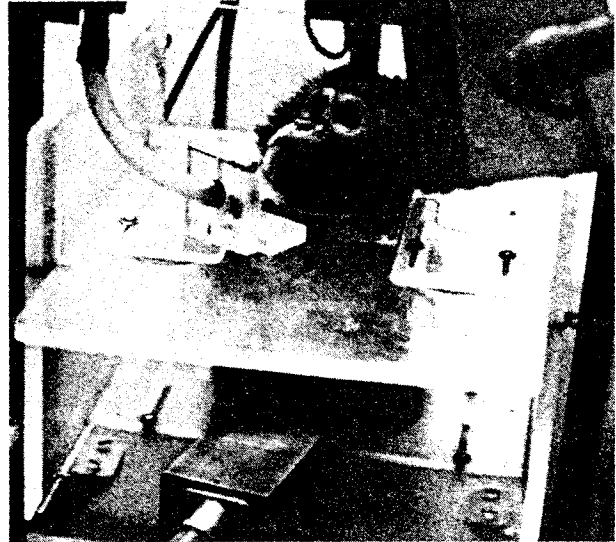
NOTE: Mr. Henry Heymann, IPPL's Washington Representative, and a member of the Board of the Fund for Animals, initiated the lawsuit which led the Department of the Interior to add to the U.S. Endangered List most animals listed on Appendix I of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species not previously so listed. These included all gibbon species.

THE PRIMATE CHAIR

The "Primate Chair" has undergone considerable development and refinement in recent years, as shown by the accompanying illustrations of 1952, 1966, and 1976 models.

The 1952 chair was named the "Ziegler Chair" after its inventor, Lt. James Ziegler of the U.S. Army Medical Corps. An article in the September 1952 issue of the *Journal of Clinical and Applied Medicine* suggests possible uses for this chair: "craniotomy under local anesthesia, with stimulation and

recording from exposed cortex, implantation of cranial windows, general restraint for dressings, anesthesia, and as a seat for the monkey in various positions on the large experimental centrifuge." According to the caption, the monkey in the photograph is positioned in its chair in such a way that the skull will hold saline while a window is inserted, thus preventing the formation of air-bubbles.



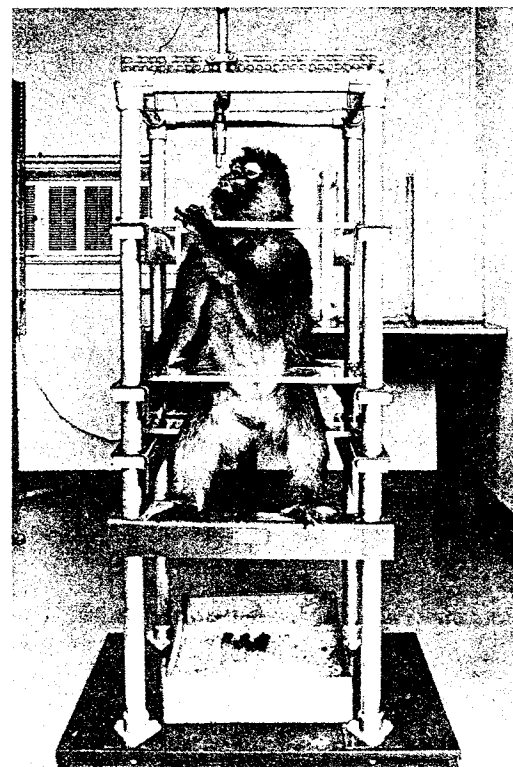
Primate Chair 1966

The Ziegler Chair shocked many humanitarians, including Dr. M. Beddow Baily, a member of Britain's prestigious Royal College of Surgeons, who commented: "As an example of the misapplication of human ingenuity and invention in the basest of objectives, the exploitation of helpless sentient creatures, it would be hard to surpass."

Since 1972, the "Primate Chair" has been refined and it is now mass-produced. Modern chairs are made mainly of plastic, and have chest and waist stocks to hold the animal. There are a variety of optional attachments such as electric shock-producing devices usually attached to a monkey's tail. These "shockers" are popular in psychological research, enabling researchers to



Primate Chair 1952



Primate Chair 1976

provide appropriate "punishment" to monkeys making errors in tests or performing tasks wrongly when being "conditioned." The chairs are also used in other types of research in which primates are chronically implanted with tubes, catheters, or other apparatus to inject drugs or toxic substances. They are also used in post-surgical cases where the monkey might try to remove bandages, stitches or tubes.

Usually, monkeys are placed in restraint chairs for short periods, but they may be kept in them for months or years, or even for the duration of their lives.

MONKEYS AND COCAINE

The IPPL **Newsletter** (February 1977) reported that researchers at the University of Chicago had been administering cocaine, a psychoactive drug, to Rhesus macaques. The monkeys were attached by tubing to a supply of cocaine. As the monkey pressed a lever, cocaine was automatically injected into its veins.

Now the invention of a new device has been announced by researchers at the University of Southern California. An article in **Behavioral Research Methods and Instrumentation** (1976, Vol. 9) describes the "pill-popper", which can be used for the administration of capsules or pills. It consists of a capsule or pill loading unit combined with a pressurized liquid dispenser and a mouth-operated drinking lever. When the primate takes a drink after a 24-hour water deprivation period, a pill is shot into its mouth with the water. Due to the unpleasant taste of the drugs, primates rapidly abandon the habit of chewing the pills or capsules and spitting them out and instead swallow them. The researchers note that this method of administration is equivalent to the procedure used by most humans for taking psychoactive drugs, which makes one wonder why reluctant primates are being used for study of the effects of such drugs when so many humans are taking them voluntarily.

ZOOKEEPER FOUND GUILTY OF NEGLIGENCE

Joseph Colando, foreman of the Van Saun Park Children's Zoo, Paramus, New Jersey, received a \$50.00 fine for failure to provide adequate shelter to 9 squirrel monkeys, as a result of which all nine animals died within one week. The judge then suspended the sentence. The suit was filed by the Fund for Animals. To IPPL, the fine seems ridiculously small considering the cruelty involved in leaving tropical monkeys exposed to the elements. Zoo staff had previously been accused of drowning a Capuchin monkey.

RECOMMENDED READING

Natural History (May 1977)

This issue of **Natural History**, the journal of the American Museum of Natural History, includes an article entitled "Confessions of an Animal Trafficker." The article was written by Jean-Yves Domalain, a former animal smuggler who used to export animals from Vientiane, Laos, most of which had been poached in Thailand and smuggled to Laos. The article provides interesting information on the animal trade and the customers who keep it alive.

Oryx (February 1977)

Oryx is the journal of the Fauna Preservation Society (c/o Zoological Society of London, Regent's Park, London NW1 4Ry England). The February 1977 issue contains several articles about primates. It is available from the Society for \$2.00 or £ 1, air mail postage \$1.00 extra.

'Lemurs of the Comoros' by Ian Tattersall discusses the future of the two lemur species which inhabit the Comoro Islands, off the coast of Madagascar, and proposes conservation measures.

'Primate Ranching-Results of an Experiment' is co-authored by Russell Mittermeier, Robert Bailey, Leslie Sponsel, and Katherine E. Wolf. It discusses the Santa Sofia experiment in which 5690 squirrel monkeys were released on an island in the Amazon starting in 1967. Instead of increasing to 20,000 by 1971 as anticipated by the project's sponsor, the population had dropped to between 550-715. The article explores the reasons for the failure and cautions against over-optimism about the possibilities of "primate-ranching."

"Pygmy chimpanzees" by Noel and Alison Badrian reports the results of the Badrians' year in Zaire studying the behavior and ecology of the Pygmy chimpanzee. The establishment of a reserve to protect the species is recommended and a site proposed.

"Virunga Gorillas- the Case Against Translocation" is written by Dr. A. Harcourt, who spent a year in the Virungas with Dyan Fossey studying the gorillas. Dr. Harcourt takes issue with proposals to translocate gorillas from other areas to the Virungas to mitigate the effects of possible inbreeding, feeling that this would lead to the death of the released animals and disruption of the resident gorilla population.

Research in Zoos and Aquariums

This book is the report of a symposium held during the 1973 Conference of the American Association of Zoological Parks and Aquariums (AAZPA). It was published by the National Academy of Sciences in 1975, and is available for \$10.00 from the NAS Printing Office, 2101 Constitution Av. N.W. Washington, D.C. 20418.

Speakers at the symposium discussed research programs in zoos, ranging from simple observations of animal behavior to inoculation of primates with cancer. A representative of Washington's National Zoo discussed with apparent pride an outbreak of lead poisoning at the zoo which had affected 42 primates, causing many deaths, and had been caused by the use of lead paint. "Research" was being conducted on the poison's effect on different species.

The summation was presented by Dr. Hopla, then Chairman of the Institute for Laboratory Animal Resources (ILAR) which had planned the symposium. Dr. Hopla expressed his hope for better communication between zoos and the biomedical research community, and stressed that zoos were ideal places to discover new "animal models" for human diseases. Dr. Hopla stated that he considered the educational qualifications of a zoo director unimportant "as long as the director is sympathetic to research." However, he noted that "acute or terminal experimentation, of course, could not be tolerated on animals used in exhibits." It is not clear whether Dr. Hopla favored such research if conducted on off-exhibit animals.

Although much of the material is out-of-date, it will be of interest to those concerned with the future role of zoos in society.



Monkey chewing on lead paint

COLOBUS MONKEY FUR RUGS

The February 1977 issue of the IPPL **Newsletter** reported that thousands of rugs made from the fur of the Colobus monkey (*Colobus guereza*) were on sale in souvenir shops in Nairobi, Kenya. In an effort to reduce the trade in these rugs, IPPL prepared a statement for all Nairobi dealers trading in these rugs. The statement called attention to the fact that the Colobus monkey is now listed on Appendix II of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species, and therefore, the skins cannot be imported to the United States, the United Kingdom, West Germany, or other member nations of the Convention without an export permit from the country of origin. Since many of these skins are poached in Ethiopia and shipped to Kenya, their importation to Convention countries would be illegal.

In further efforts to publicize the plight of the colobus monkey, IPPL contacted various professional travel organizations and publications. If tourists are advised against the purchase of Colobus monkey products, this could significantly reduce the trade. The American Society of Travel Agents (ASTA) the largest professional organization of travel agents in the U.S.A. agreed to publicize the situation in its June **Newsletter**. IPPL commends ASTA for its cooperation. However, **Holiday**, a monthly travel magazine read by millions of Americans, sent IPPL a "free-lancer's rejection slip." The magazine's Managing Editor, Ms. Kathryn Klassen, stated, "This is a sad situation and we wish you luck in publicizing the plight of the Colobus monkey." **Holiday** is not to be part of that luck however.

GORILLAS IMPORTED TO THE U.S. WITHOUT PERMITS

On about 10 September 1976, Stanford University in California imported two young gorillas to join a single female used in a sign-language project. The animals had been purchased from an animal dealer in Vienna, Austria, who has a long history of trafficking in infant gorillas. Both animals were in very poor condition on arrival, and one died subsequently. On a transit stop in London, the gorillas were cared for by the staff of the Airport Hostel run by the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (RSPCA). The animals were said to have been exported from the Cameroun in November 1973, and IPPL has confirmed that an export permit for two one year old gorillas was issued by the government of the Cameroun in November 1973 to Heini Demmer, an Austrian national. Should these be the same animals, IPPL has not been able to learn where they were maintained between November 1973 and their shipment to the USA in September 1975.

The gorillas were imported to the USA without import licenses, even though gorillas have been on the U.S. Endangered List since 1970. It appears that Stanford University may have been granted advance permission from the Department of the Interior to import the gorillas without a permit. Such an exemption is legally possible under the "grandfather clause" of the Endangered Species Act of 1973, which exempts from the permit requirement wildlife held in captivity on 28 December 1973, the date the Act went into effect. However, this exemption only applies to wildlife not "held in the course of a commercial activity." The latter has been interpreted to mean, for example, that an animal held by an animal dealer on 28 December 1973 would not be exempted from the permit requirement.

The "grandfather clause" of the Endangered Species Act of 1973 was added at virtually the last minute and against the wishes of the Department of the Interior, by former Senator John Tunney of California. The addition was the result of pressure from a military officer who had imported into the United States from Spain falcons which the Department of the Interior was seeking to confiscate under the Endangered Species Act of 1969. The inclusion of the "grandfather clause" in the new Endangered Species Act allowed the officer to keep his birds and escape legal action.

In the wild, gorillas are caught around the age of 6-12 months. The mother is shot and the infant taken from her body. Since the animals which were sent to Stanford were reportedly caught around November 1972, they would have been around 4 years old on shipment. At this age, they probably would have weighed around 90 pounds (41 kilos). The girls at the RSPCA Hostel who cared for the animals, however, reportedly carried them in their arms. Gorillas weigh around 35 pounds at 2 years of age, and the girls probably could not have handled or carried larger animals. Thus, it appears that the gorillas may have been caught at a later date than claimed, in which case a permit would have been required for their importation. Even if the gorillas were in captivity on 28 December 1973, it is not certain that they would have been exempt from the permit requirement. If a dealer had been holding the animals on the date that the Endangered Species Act went into force, a permit would have been required.

IPPL has no evidence that the Endangered Species Act was deliberately bypassed by any party in the gorilla acquisitions. This situation clearly shows, however, the necessity of closing the loophole which permits the importation of any endangered wildlife without a permit. The normal processing of applications for permits by Department of the Interior officials and publication of applications in the **Federal Register** with solicitation of comments from interested parties makes it possible for potential transactions to be thoroughly examined.

In a transaction involving large sums of money, there is a suspicion that the dealer stood to gain as much as \$28,000 in the Stanford gorilla acquisitions: there may be a strong incentive for a dealer to lie about the age of animals. Many dealers also have large files of old export documents which can be used for any animal, since identification of an individual animal that has entered the trade is almost impossible unless it is tattooed or permanently marked in some way. Therefore, it would be easy for a dealer to acquire newly-caught animals and "document" to a potential buyer that they had been born before the enactment of the Endangered Species Act. It is most unlikely that any action would be taken against an importer of such an animal, since he may genuinely believe, or claim to have genuinely believed, that the animal qualified for exemption under the "grandfather clause" of the Endangered Species Act.

The "grandfather clause" is impossible to administer and enforce. IPPL believes that the only solution is to eliminate it, so that all importations of endangered animals require advance clearance. If the exemption is to remain, the Department of the Interior should establish a system by which one must obtain a permit for an exemption.

Please write your congressman and senators, requesting either that the loophole be eliminated, or that exemptions be obtainable only with advance clearance from the Department of the Interior.

NO ACTION AGAINST LORIS SMUGGLER

Neither the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, nor the U.S. Customs, nor the State of California, will prosecute the smuggler who rented P.O. Box 268, San Carlos, California, and used it as a front for illegal wildlife shipments over a period of at least 4 years. Known shipments included 2 infant gibbons shipped in snake-boxes in 1970 and 16 Slow lorises shipped in snake-sacks in February

1974. Both shipments originated from the Bangkok Wildlife Company in Thailand. The known shipments are probably the "tip of an iceberg."

Although the shipment of the lorises was in clear violation of the U.S. Lacey Act (see the November 1974 issue of the IPPL **Newsletter**) the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service failed even to initiate an investigation. Likewise, the U.S. Customs took no action. Instead, the Wildlife Protection Branch of the State of California was left to investigate, although the only tool at its disposal was a California law which bans the import of any mammal without a permit.

Based on events surrounding the loris shipment, the **modus operandi** of the smuggler appears to have been the following: using the San Carlos box number he would place a Cash on Delivery (COD) order with an overseas dealer (in the case of the lorises and gibbons, the Bangkok Wildlife Company) under a fictitious name (in the case of the loris shipment, John Stidworthy, and in the case of the gibbons, Herpetological Research Exchange), but provide a correct phone number at which he could be reached, which, in the case of the loris shipment, was that of a company called Reptiles of the World in Menlo Park, California.

Before accepting the C.O.D. shipment, the airline involved would telephone for confirmation of the order. In the case of lorises, Pan American received a request from the Bangkok Wildlife Company for permission to accept a C.O.D. shipment for John Stidworthy, and forwarded the request, along with a telephone number provided by the Bangkok Wildlife Company, to its San Francisco office. Pan American claims that it called the number, was told that "John Stidworthy" was out, but that he would call back. The next day, Pan American received a call from "John Stidworthy" who confirmed the order. Since Pan American had given local credit to the Reptiles of the World Company, and claims to have believed Stidworthy to be an employee of the company, it cabled Bangkok to accept the shipment.

When the shipment arrived in San Francisco, State of California officials discovered that there were 16 slow lorises in a sack labelled "Spitting cobras." The shipment was therefore confiscated. At this point, Reptiles of the World denied any knowledge of the shipment or that it knew John Stidworthy. At this point, Pan American sent a written notification to John Stidworthy at P.O. Box 268, San Carlos, the address on the air waybill. It also contacted Bangkok asking for a proper address and confirmation of the order. The Bangkok Wildlife Company then produced what appeared to be a hastily-typed, misspelled forgery, with instructions that the 16 lorises were to be sent in snake-sacks.

On learning of the loris shipment, IPPL pushed for a vigorous investigation and prosecution of the importer. The inhumanity of shipping lorises in snake-sacks also containing 4 cobras can be seen in the fact that one was dead and four dying on arrival. (In the same shipment, three of four baby otters were dead, and many snakes dead or dying). As late as February 1976, IPPL was assured by the California Wildlife Protection Branch that a vigorous investigation of the loris smuggling was in progress. However, in a letter dated 16 March 1977, Mr. B.J. Faist of the Wildlife Protection Branch informed IPPL that "the post office box renters denied any knowledge of the importation...no prosecution was commenced (and none) is contemplated." Faist also stated with apparent surprise, that no further shipments had arrived for P.O. Box 268. In answer to IPPL's request for the name of the Post Office Box renter, Faist stated: "Actually, I have never known the name of the box renter." This appears to contradict his earlier statement that the P.O. box renters had denied any knowledge of the shipment. Likewise, the Postmaster of San Carlos has failed to answer repeated inquiries from IPPL over a period of 3 years about the apparent use of a U.S. post office box for smuggling purposes, an activity which may violate U.S. law.

The trick of smuggling rare animals in snake-boxes is one of the oldest in the smuggler's repertoire and the practice is likely to increase as increasing restrictions on wildlife trading come into effect. Snakes are usually not protected in their habitat countries and can be freely exported. It is therefore extremely disappointing that no prosecution occurred in this case, since this may have the effect of encouraging other dealers to attempt similar smuggling techniques. This entire incident was also facilitated by the airlines' practice of allowing C.O.D. shipments of live animals. This allows a dealer to arrange for a shipment of mislabelled endangered animals or concealed animals. If the shipment is not seized, it can be picked up with no problems, but, if it is seized, then the dealer can claim that he never placed the order. In this case, he loses nothing and does not even have to pay for the animals. As the loris incident indicates, vigorous investigation and prosecution is unlikely to occur.

STOCKPILING OF COTTONTOP MARMOSETS CONFIRMED

The IPPL **Newsletter** (February 1977) noted that stockpiling of Cottontop marmosets (*Saguinus oedipus*) had preceded the species' addition to the U.S. Endangered List in October 1976.

Steps involved in the addition of a species to the U.S. Endangered List are:

(1) announcement of the proposed listing in the **Federal Register**, (2) a 60-day period for submission of comments by interested parties, (3) further time for evaluation of comments on the species, (4) publication of the listing in the **Federal Register**, and (5) a 30-day period during which importation without an Endangered Species permit is still allowed.

In the case of the Cottontop marmoset, over seven months elapsed between its proposed listing and the prohibition of trade without an import permit on 18 November 1976.

It appears that, instead of voluntarily limiting importation of Cottontop marmosets, dealers and purchasers used the proposal as a shopping list to buy this and others of the 27 proposed species. Heavy last-minute trading in chimpanzees (*Pan paniscus*) and mandrills (*Papio sphinx*) also occurred.

According to figures provided to IPPL by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, 805 Cottontop marmosets were imported through New York between April and November 1976. During the same period, at least 779 Cottontop marmosets were imported through Miami, of which 685 originated in Paraguay. Panama and Colombia, countries far to the north of Paraguay, are the only countries to which the Cottontop marmoset is indigenous however.

The framers of the U.S. Endangered Species Act sought to balance the need for protection of endangered species with the claims of vested commercial interests. With the occurrence of last-minute, pre-listing trade in species in danger of extinction, the result appears to be that protection of animal dealers took precedence over protection of endangered animals.

IPPL considers it vital that the loophole which permits this situation to exist be closed. an embargo should be placed on trade in a species no more than one month after its proposed listing and pending the final decision. This would reduce the damage, such as that which occurred in the case of the Cottontop marmoset, that last-minute trading can do to an endangered species.

Please write letters to your congressman and senators drawing their attention to this situation and requesting that they take action to close this loophole in the Endangered Species Act. Letters of concern should also be addressed to:

The Director
U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service
Washington, D.C. 20240

IPPL LOCATES HOME FOR GIBBON

For many years, the San Francisco Zoo exhibited a single female Hoolock gibbon (*Hylobates hoolock*). Nearby Oakland Zoo had a lone male so it seemed a good idea to match the two. However, the male at Oakland was housed in a huge, high, tower, which, according to Peter Batten, resembled "an airport control tower mounted on a long pipe" and which was so dangerous and full of projections that it had reportedly caused the deaths of around 30 gibbons exhibited in it. The Hoolock was therefore almost impossible to capture. Eventually, however, an employee of the San Francisco Zoo caught it, and it was put on display in San Francisco amid much publicity. After a very short time, however, the animal was taken off exhibit and transferred to the zoo hospital. According to one source, the gibbon had been injured in the capture operation. However, the San Francisco Zoo director, Mr. Saul Kitchener, informed IPPL that the gibbon had "diabetes" and "is in the zoo hospital but cannot stay there forever." Suspecting that the zoo might intend to destroy the animal, IPPL located an organization willing to accept it. This offer was communicated to the zoo in May 1977.

PRIMATES AND POLIO VACCINE

by Andrew Rowan

(Dr. Rowan is Scientific Administrator of the Fund for the Replacement of Animals in Medical Experiments)

In 1949 Enders, Weller, and Robbins made what is commonly described as the major milestone in the history of virology when they demonstrated that the poliomyelitis virus could be grown in a human cell culture. Apart from its significance to virology in general, it also sparked off intensive research into the development of a suitable polio vaccine, using cultures of monkey kidney cells as the substrate on which the virus was grown. It is not clear why the kidney was chosen as the most suitable organ, or even why monkeys were chosen as the most suitable source of cells, although presumably the use of monkeys in earlier work on poliomyelitis was a factor in the decision.

The race was then on to develop a polio vaccine and this resulted in an incredible demand for nonhuman primates. For example, in the late 1950's, India was exporting approximately 200,000 Rhesus monkeys annually to the United States, and 800,000 monkeys were sacrificed in polio vaccine production between 1957 and 1960. This profligacy may be compared with the use of primates in 1973 when 5,000 monkeys (out of a total research demand of 41,000) were required for vaccine production and testing in the U.S.A. (**Non-human Primates**, National Academy of Sciences, 1975).

The tremendous reduction in the number of animals used has been due in part to improved techniques and in part to a natural reduction when a satisfactory vaccine had been developed and adopted. However, it has also been due to the demonstration that serially cultivated human cell strains are excellent substrates for the production of vaccine. In retrospect, it was unfortunate that kidney cell cultures from wild monkeys were used (thereby creating a precedent for further vaccine development) since these animals contain many different viruses, some of which are extremely dangerous. This was demonstrated by the incident at Marburg, Germany, in which several laboratory workers contracted a virus disease from vervet monkeys and died.

Considering that we now have a more than adequate cell substrate for virus growth (human diploid cell strains), any company which persists in using

cultures from the kidneys of wild monkeys is ignoring a safer system which could also benefit primate conservation. This would be especially true of imports of African vervet monkeys (the species used in polio vaccine production) from the areas covered by the recent mysterious virus epidemic which has killed many humans in Central Africa.

The major demand for primates currently is not the provision of a substrate for vaccine production, but in vaccine testing. It is claimed that this is an area where the whole-body response is absolutely necessary and that feasible alternatives are unlikely to be developed. However, some alternatives to animal tests have been developed and adopted in other areas and we are confident that, as techniques are improved and modified, fewer and fewer primates will be required in this aspect of vaccine manufacture.

Note: Two types of polio vaccine are available in the U.S.A. Production of one type (Lederle's Orimune) requires sacrifice of vervet monkeys: production of the other (Pfizer's Diplovax) does not. However, U.S. law requires that all batches of polio vaccine be tested for neurovirulence on around 50 Rhesus monkeys, all of which must be sacrificed for tissue analysis.

Readers planning to be vaccinated against polio may wish to consider asking their doctors to use the diploid cell based vaccine.

CAGING STANDARDS TO BE REVISED

Two booklets prepared by the Institute of Laboratory Animal Resources (ILAR) of the National Academy of Sciences establish standards for laboratory care of animals, including primates, in U.S. laboratories. They are **Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals** (1972) and **Nonhuman Primates** (1973).

Both booklets establish extremely small cage sizes for nonhuman primates: for example, **Care** divides primates according to weight, for which it recommends the following cage sizes.

Group 1: Primates up to 1 kilogram (e.g. marmosets, infant primates); floor area of 0.15 square meter (1.5 square ft.) and height of 50.8 cm. (20 inches).

Group 2: Primates up to 3 kilograms (e.g. Capuchin monkeys); floor area of 0.28 sq. m. (3.0 sq. ft.) and height of 76.2 cm. (30 inches).

Group 3: Primates up to 15 kilograms (e.g. macaques, vervets); floor area of 0.40 sq. m (4.3 sq. ft.) and height of 76.2 cm. (30 inches).

Group 4: Primates over 15 kilograms (e.g. baboons and "adult members of brachiating species such as gibbons, spider monkeys and woolly monkeys"); floor area of 0.74 sq. m. (8.0 sq. ft.) and height of 91.4 cm. (36 inches).

Group 5: Primates over 25 kilograms (i.e. gorillas, chimpanzees, and orang-utans); floor area of 2.33 sq. m. (25 sq. ft. and height of 213.4 cm. (7 ft.))

It would clearly be impossible for brachiating primates to move freely in a cage only 4 by 2 ft. in area, and the lack of space for the tails of long-tailed species appears an oversight on the part of the Committee which prepared the **Standards**. There is also no doubt that any zoo that tried to exhibit great apes in cages 5 x 5 ft. in floor area would meet with severe criticism. However, laboratory apes are never seen by the public and may live in such cages for many years. The cage sizes recommended in the booklet **Nonhuman Primates** are similarly small.

It is therefore good news that both booklets are being revised. IPPL contacted ILAR for information about the new committee which will be drafting the revisions. Earl Grogan, D.V.M., Executive Secretary of ILAR, provided IPPL with the names of the members of both committees: they are:

Care Revision Committee

Dr. Alvin Moreland, Chairman
Dr. W. Emmett Barkley
Dr. Nicholas Bottiglieri
Dr. C. Max Lang
Dr. Patrick Manning
Dr. Paul Newberne
Dr. Steven Pakes
Dr. Daniel Ringler
Dr. Steven Weisbroth

Nonhuman Primates Revision Committee

Dr. Patrick Manning, Chairman
Dr. Francis Cadigan
Dr. Edward Goldsmith
Dr. Kenneth Hayes
Dr. Bernard Trum
Dr. James Vickers
Dr. Robert Whitney

Dr. Grogan refused to provide any information about the background of committee members. However, it appears that most are from the field of laboratory animal medicine. Not a single primate behavioralist or humane society representative was named to the committees. There also may be a potential conflict of interest in that several committee members are associated with laboratories which would incur considerable expense if it became necessary to purchase larger cages. While there is no reason to doubt the good intentions of members of the committee, they are likely to be limited by their own perspectives.

If thousands of primates are to continue to be sacrificed in the interests of humanity, the treatment of the animals should be based on consideration of their social, psychological, and physical needs. It is likely that a committee of independent researchers from a broad range of pertinent disciplines would recommend far larger cages and require some kind of climbing, swinging, or perching equipment. It is essential that such an independent committee be established. This is especially important since, at this time, more and more countries are setting up primate research centers and looking to the United States, the world's major user of primates, for information on how to house and care for captive primates.

SAN ANTONIO ZOO DESTROYS TWO ENDANGERED DRILLS

IPPL has received the following signed complaint from two San Antonio residents.

This afternoon, 8 January 1977, the San Antonio zoo's only male drill baboon (*Mandrillus leucophaeus*) was noticed to be limping and his hands and feet were visibly swollen. The zoo's hospital staff was notified. They responded in what has become their typically acerbic style asking if the keepers knew what they were talking about. When the zoo veterinarian arrived, he refused to tranquilize the animal with the dart gun, but insisted that it be manually restrained although it weighed 70 pounds. It was successfully captured after losing a tooth. Then, once held down in two nets with a rubber tire forced over its head, the doctor administered the tranquilizer.

The animal was taken to the zoo's hospital where he and his mate (who had been admitted as a patient on January 6, 1977 as pot-bellied and thin) were both X-rayed. The X-rays reportedly stated that the spine was starting to 'fuse.' The doctors placed a call to the zoo's director, Louis di Sabato, and asked permission to euthanize both animals. Permission was granted and both animals were put to sleep. Should not some form of treatment have been tried on these animals? The drill has just been added to the U.S. Endangered List, yet these animals were examined, judged, and executed within one and a half hours. I realize there is nothing we can do to bring these animals back, but perhaps there is something we can do to insure that this sort of thing does not happen again.

In order to clarify the situation, IPPL contacted Louis di Sabato, director of the San Antonio Zoo. No reply was received. IPPL has had occasion previously to criticize the San Antonio Zoo. In the 1 February 1976 issue of the **Laboratory Primate Newsletter**, it offered 17 primates for sale, including a male drill, ten gelada baboons, and two gibbons. The latter were sold to a cancer laboratory, but the sale was cancelled after adverse publicity in the San Antonio press.

It appears that the activities of the San Antonio Zoo require special scrutiny and that such things as applications for Endangered Species permits made by the zoo must be strenuously opposed at this time.

NEWS FROM ITALY

Ms. Raffaella Savirelli, of the Chimpanzee Rehabilitation Center in Senegal, recently visited her home in Italy. She was appalled to find that keeping a pet chimpanzee is the latest 'fad' in the country, and that one Milan dealer had sold 40 chimpanzees in early 1977. Magazine advertisements encourage people to buy baby chimpanzees, falsely claiming that they make good pets.

Italy has no laws against importation of chimpanzees and has failed to join the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species. IPPL would like to hear from Italian readers concerned about this situation.

CHIMPANZEE REHABILITATION REPORT

The chimpanzee rehabilitation project described in IPPL's **Special Report** (December 1976) has aroused world-wide interest. Many readers have written to express their admiration for the project. Some readers wanted to donate chimpanzees to the project, and one young lady with experience in a chimpanzee nursery was ready to get on the first plane to join Stella Brewer and Raffaella Savirelli in their work in Senegal.

Copies of "Chimpanzee Rehabilitation" are still available for \$1.00 from IPPL, P.O. Drawer X, Summerville, SC 29483. Orders of 10 or more copies are available at \$0.75 per copy.

NAVY PLANS CONTINUED USE OF ENDANGERED MACAQUE

Captain C. Brodine, Commanding Officer of the U.S. Naval Medical Research Development and Command, has informed IPPL that the Navy plans continued utilization of the Taiwan macaque (*Macaca cyclopis*) for disease studies at its Taipei laboratory, despite the fact that the species was added to the U.S. Endangered Species List in October 1976.

In order to learn more about the Navy's program, Charles Shuttleworth, IPPL Representative for Taiwan, visited the NAMRU Laboratory (U.S. Naval Medical Research Unit No. 2) in Taipei. Shuttleworth reports that the Unit owns 221 Taiwan macaques, of which 52 (5 males and 47 females) are in a breeding program, established in 1974, which has produced 45 offspring to date. About 120 animals are used in disease studies (e.g. malaria). However, Captain Sorensen, an official of the facility, assured Shuttleworth that "large-scale experiments resulting in serious injury or death are a feature of the past."

The monkeys, including the breeders, are housed in standard, small laboratory cages, in which some individuals have lived for 17 years. Breeders are moved to slightly larger cages for mating. According to Captain Sorensen, purchases of macaques have now stopped.

PLEASE WRITE!

In this **Newsletter**, you will find several requests to write letters, and you may wish to write independently about some of the other situations drawn to your attention.

Many people will protest when cats and dogs are treated inhumanely, but few are concerned enough to speak up for the primates. So, please take time to write the requested letters.

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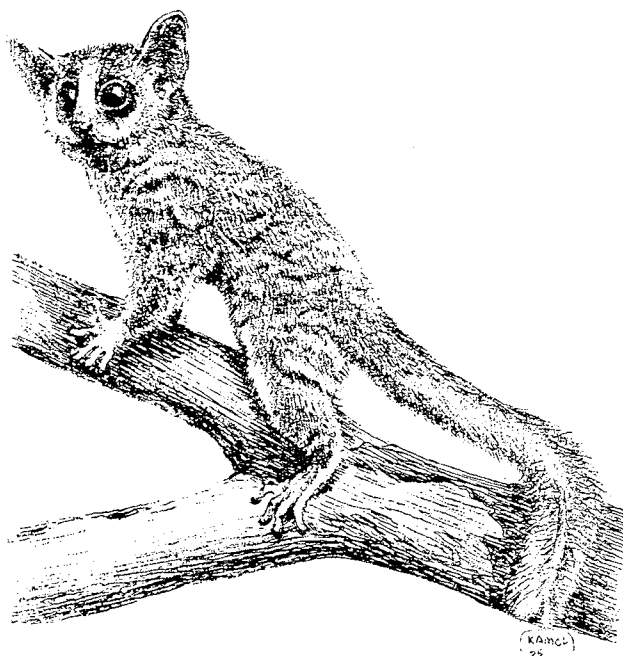
Ms. Shirley McGreal has moved to South Carolina, and her new address is P.O. Drawer X, Summerville, SC 29483.

Ms. Ardith Eudey's address for the 1977-78 academic year will be department of Anthropology, University of Nevada, Reno, NV 89507.

Other mail should be addressed to IPPL, P.O. Box 9086, Berkeley, CA 94709.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS

Be sure to inform IPPL if you change your address, as the Post Office neither forwards third-class mail nor returns it to the sender.



Mouse Lemur



Banded Leaf Monkey

Sept 1977

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