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Stella Brewer and Chimp

Photo: Hugo Van Lawick

IPPL OPENS CHIMPANZEE FUND

IPPL LAUNCHES 1980 FUND-RAISING DRIVE

The International Primate Protection League announces the launching of its 1980 fund-raising drive to help the Chimpanzee Rehabilitation project in The Gambia, West Africa. The project is home to a wide variety of chimpanzees: chimps confiscated from poachers and smugglers, former laboratory chimpanzees, veterans of sign-language studies, and former pets.

Stella Brewer, daughter of Eddie Brewer, Chief of Wildlife Conservation of The Gambia, and Janis Carter, of the University of Oklahoma, are working to train these chimpanzees to live in the wild. In this article, Stella, who has responsibility for one of the three chimpanzee groups, describes her work. Articles about the group of very young chimpanzees and Janis' group of older chimpanzees will appear in future Newsletters.

CHIMPANZEE REHABILITATION, WHY AND HOW?

by Stella Brewer

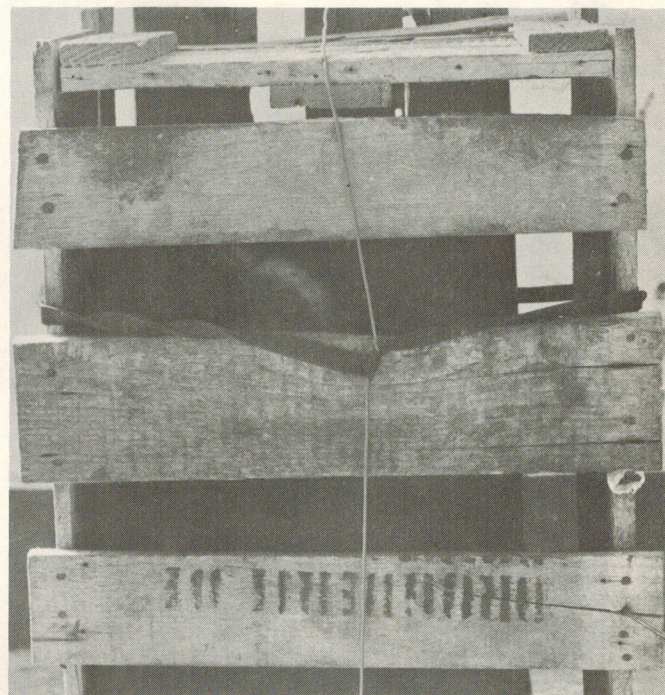
A misty dew-laden dawn slowly illuminated the darkness of a forest in West Africa. High up, in the canopy of a spreading mahogany, a female chimpanzee stirred in her nest of leafy branches. As she sat up, a small infant whimpered and clutched at the hair on her belly. Moving his head from side to side with a slight nuzzling movement, he found her nipple - and his breakfast. From her lofty vantage point, the mother chimpanzee looked out over a vista of green canopy swathed in streamers of grey, slow-moving mist.

The diurnal life of the forest was awakening, bird songs began one by one, but moments later were part of a vibrant chorus.

She remained gazing over the leaves to where the sun promised to appear, while her infant nursed at her breast. Behind her, there sounded a loud melodious note which was repeated again and again, each note pitched higher than the last - till it reached a crescendo in a carrying urgent call. Other voices joined the solo voice till the forest became alive with the sounds of awakening chimpanzees. The female looked over towards the sound. A cool brand new day had dawned, she climbed out of the nest and quickly descended to the ground to get on with the business of living it. Using a path she had used many times before, she walked towards a group of fig trees laden with fruit. There were already several other members of her group feeding. She chose a tree on the edge of the grove, which contained no other chimps, and climbed up it to feed. Her infant climbed unsteadily on to a branch beside her; still clutching at a handful of his mother's hair, he reached out and pulled a fruit towards his mouth and began to nibble at it.

A sudden and violent blast shattered the peaceful scene, and simultaneously the female chimp and her infant were thrown backwards with tremendous force to land heavily on the ground twenty feet below. For an instant following the blast, the forest seemed stunned into complete silence. . .and then chaos broke loose. Branches snapped and terrified screaming chimps half-climbed, half-fell from the trees to escape their most feared enemy, the Man and his Gun. A moment later, the only movement in the grove of figs was a desperate attempt by a dying mother to pull her infant towards her. Her left shoulder and a part of her chest were shattered with the impact of the bullet which had left a gaping bloody hole in her back. With her weakening right hand, she clutched the infant and dragged his small shocked form towards her. Her last need on that still young day was to hold her terrified infant in a protective embrace, as her pain and her own deep fear dissolved into blackness. The infant's fear dissolved too: as he lay pressed to his mother's still warm body, his distressed whimpers ceased.

A short while later, the sound of footsteps sounded behind him and he felt the grip of a strong man on his arm. He was pulled from his mother's now limp embrace and held aloft. He screamed



Tina on arrival

and struggled as he looked into a strange face: he screamed as he was examined, he screamed at the strange sounds that came from the face: he screamed and struggled as he was lowered into the darkness of a sack - and then, his screaming ceased. In paralysing fear, he bounced and jogged in the darkness as he was carried on the back of his captors away from his stiffening mother and his forest home. . .for ever. Away from the life of a wild chimpanzee he went, to thirty years or more of imprisonment of some form, and very often madness brought about by frustration and misery.

This story is my reconstruction of the early lives of most wild-born chimpanzees in captivity. The details of capture may vary, but all these chimpanzees have one thing in common: they all witnessed the wounding or death of their mothers and all experienced the trauma of being taken from a life amongst their own kind in the forest to captivity among humans.

I like to think that we have been able to restore for a microscopic percentage of these orphans some semblance of the lives they were born to lead, that we have lessened their anguish at being alone and motherless, and allowed them to develop the natural dignity of independent, free-living members of the species *Pan troglodytes*.

I also like to think that, in doing this, we have helped, if only fractionally, to compensate for the destruction that Mankind has wreaked, and is still wreaking, on this intelligent, near-human creature.

I hope, sometimes a little despairingly, that through these orphans I can help bring about a more profound awareness in my own species, that we are fast destroying a creature so similar to ourselves that he is acknowledged to be Man's closest living relative.

For ten years now, I have been working towards restoring independence and a natural lifestyle to orphan chimpanzees. It all began with eight orphans that were confiscated in 1969 from dealers in Banjul, the capital of The Gambia, a small country in West Africa. I grew up here and consider it home. I was eighteen when I adopted the first of the chimps. Within eighteen months, I was caring for eight young chimpanzees.

Through almost constant contact with them I acquired an understanding of their characters and needs, and developed a fierce protective feeling for these infants who had adopted me as mother. From this protectiveness they had elicited in me, grew the idea of Rehabilitation into the wild. I could see no other way to provide them with the opportunity of growing out of their imprisoning dependence and becoming fully independent.

I chose an area called Mount Asserik in the Niokola-Koba National Park in Senegal as the home for the chimpanzees - and for myself as long as I was needed. I had chosen this area as it was the only place within reach of The Gambia still inhabited by a community of wild chimpanzees.

In 1974, our small camp was constructed on the edge of a forested valley, through which a small stream ran. Behind the camp rose the gradual slope of Mount Asserik. As far as the eye could see, and much further, spread a landscape void of any signs of the human race - expansive rocky plains veined with forested valleys. The dryness caused by a relentless dry season sun made Mount Asserik appear a rather harsh and brutal home till we discovered the resources of the cool hospitable valleys and learned how and when to tap them.

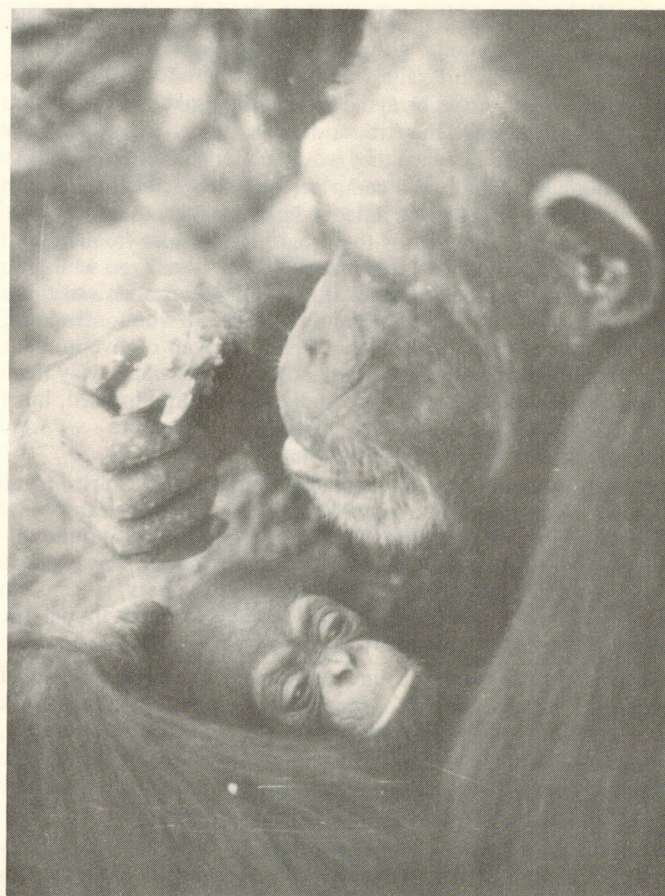
René and, later, Bruno, young men from the Basari tribe, came to work with me and, for the next five years, we shared with the chimps the hardships and rewards of learning to live at Mount Asserik.

Each day the chimpanzees followed us into valleys where we would search for food. Tina, the oldest female in the group, was captured when she was about 5 years old. As the vegetation was similar to that in her native home of Guinea, she helped a great deal in pointing out what was edible. René and Bruno, who came from a tribe of hunting people, knew the bush and the animals well, and were also able to indicate edible plants and roots. Between us all, we added slowly to the group's expanding knowledge of their own environment.

In the evenings, with Tina's help, we taught the chimps how to build a nest in which to sleep, something they would normally learn from their mothers during their long eight or nine - year childhood with her.

Life was often difficult for us - perhaps for the chimps most of all - especially during the first year with all the trials and errors. Slowly, however, they acquired the knowledge and experience needed to handle their new lifestyle. They learned that, when they were hungry, they no longer had to wait patiently for humans to provide them with food - they could, and did, go and find their own.

Eventually they discovered the relief and rewards of being independent. Of course, there was always a helping hand when security or assistance was required. Soon, other young chimps began to join us and I was able to watch many dependent orphans grow out of captivity - induced neurotic behavior produced by the frustration of waiting for attention and food and by the constant inhibiting of powerful natural drives that they could not vent as captives in a human world.



Tina and Tilly

Towards the end of our second year at Mount Asserik, Tina and William, the oldest members of our group, provided us with the greatest reward of all when Tina, about 12 years old, gave birth to a son - we called him Tilly Asserik.

In 1973, I had had the opportunity of watching the wild chimpanzees studied by Jane Goodall at Gombe Stream in Tanzania. Tina proved to be as good as the best wild mother I had seen, constantly aware of her infant, attentive to his every whimper or cry, flying to his aid when he got into difficulties during his early climbing experiments, grooming him carefully, tickling him till he gave hoarse pants of laughter, and tickling him again when he asked for more by taking her hand and placing it on his neck. I watching her sharing her food with him, opening difficult fruits for him with her strong jaws and teeth and handing them back to him. Only rarely did she chastise him, preferring to distract him from activities she thought dangerous or undesirable.

Tilly's birth and Tina's excellent maternal care for him realized a great part of my hopes for the group of orphans at Asserik. They proved to some degree that what we were striving for was indeed possible and inspired optimism for the future.

Occasionally, the resonant pant-hoot calls of wild chimpanzees would reach us from the slopes of Mount Asserik, but far from joyously replying to the call of their species, my group had learned, through periodic encounters with them, that the sound was to be feared rather than welcomed, so they kept quiet. Ironically, the only threat to the safety of my group came from the wild chimpanzees in the area. The very reason we had selected Mount Asserik turned out to be the reason we had to leave. The wild chimpanzees refused to accept my group. Initially, possibly because the wild chimps associated my chimps with Man, they avoided these strange chimpanzees with even stranger habits and friends. As the years passed, they lost their initial fear of the camp humans - and also the camp chimps. Instead of fleeing, they began to attack. During our fifth year at Asserik, they made a serious attack, seriously injuring two of the camp chimps, Tina and Yula. Tina was almost killed.

In the past five years, the camp chimps had struggled with the lessons of coping alone with daily life at Asserik and had succeeded. They knew the valley intimately, where to find the fruits in season, which areas to avoid for safety's sake, where to find water and shade when the African sun was at its fiercest. The time was fast approaching when they would no longer need the security and guidance of camp and camp personnel. But, at the eleventh hour, with the goal of true independence in sight, their very lives were seriously threatened by the progressively more frequent and serious attacks of wild chimpanzees. I knew that even whilst we were there, we could not protect them all the time: and, as soon as we left, they would almost certainly be killed. Two months later, in two landrovers and a trailer, a small caravan of five humans and eight chimps wound their way down the dirt track away from Mount Asserik. My hopes were badly crushed and bruised, but I drew comfort from Yula's arm around my shoulders - we were not beaten and would keep on trying.

Our new home is in the River Gambia National Park in The Gambia. The chimps live on a 240-acre island and the camp staff on another island alongside the chimps'. The habitat is quite different from the one the chimps mastered at Asserik. The island is flat, green, and densely vegetated along its periphery, so dense in fact that in places it is impossible for humans to walk - though the chimps have little difficulty.

Inland, the vegetation thins out and, at the drier top end of the island, some of the plant species the chimps fed on at Asserik are present. The downstream end of the island is much wetter, becoming virtually a swamp in the rainy season; when the periphery tree line ends, tall grasses take over to form a marshy plain, in the center of which is a small pond or lake.

Many birds, Spur Wing geese among them, are frequently seen by the lake. As one would expect, the chimps do not use this area much, except if one of the fig trees that are scattered about here is bearing fruit. Then they will forge a pathway through the long grass to feed on them. The chimps share the island with several indigenous species of animals and reptiles. There is a small troop of baboons, and also some Western Red colobus monkeys, green vervets, warthogs, and hippopotamus. Nile monitor lizards are frequently seen and, on occasion, snakes. Crocodiles are purportedly here, but we have seen no evidence of them.

The first time I surveyed the island, I came to the conclusion that, although it would provide a fine temporary home for the chimps, it did not contain sufficient variation in vegetation to supply the chimps with year-round food, and I resigned myself to taking the backward step of supplementing the chimps' diet while they were on the island. However, after nine months on the island, I realized that I had underestimated both the food sources . . . and the chimps. Since their birth, the chimps have been constantly adapting to new environments and ways of life. The island was just one more home to adapt to - and adapt they did, with very little help from camp staff.

I find that they are now eating at least six new types of plant leaves, stems, and fruit, and one species of ant which, to the best of my knowledge, they had never seen before, and which none of the camp staff knew was edible. How did they know these ants were edible?



Janis and Friend

Tina has either an incredible memory or an infallible sense of what is good or both. When, in the past, I offered her food with which she was unfamiliar, she invariably sniffed at it carefully before tasting it. It is possible that the chimps have observed the other primates on the island feeding and learnt this way. However they learned, I have been surprised and greatly reassured by their ability to adapt and make the most of their new home.

Two miles upstream there lives another group of chimpanzees, new to the world of foraging and freedom. They are the responsibility of Janis Carter. At Abuko Nature Reserve, 180 miles downstream, another eight chimpanzees are waiting.

These animals were illegally exported from Sierra Leone, confiscated by Dutch authorities, and returned to The Gambia. At present, all but two of these eight animals are infants in the first stages of learning eventual independence, in the kindly, more protected atmosphere of Abuko and its "orphanage." Later, they will be absorbed into Janis' or my group. Perhaps, one day, they will form one large group.

However, there are still many hurdles to cross. None of the islands are suitable as permanent homes for the chimpanzees, one reason being that there is a strong possibility that a dam will be built a few miles downstream, which will either cause the island to be flooded with water, or at least alter the ecology drastically.

During the next two years, we will be searching for what I hope will be the last and permanent home for these well-travelled chimpanzees. Finding a home which is a) suitable, b) chimp-free, c) protected and d) in a country which is politically stable, is not going to be easy. We will need funds to do it, as well as to continue to care for the growing number of chimps reaching us. So far, we have struggled along on the proceeds of my book, as well as donations from sympathetic friends.

(Continued on page 5)

HOW YOU CAN HELP THE CHIMPANZEE REHABILITATION PROJECT

1) Please make out a generous check to the IPPL Chimpanzee Fund. U.S. members should mail their cheques to IPPL, P.O. Drawer X, Summerville, SC, U.S.A. and British members to IPPL, Regent Arcade House, 19-25 Argyll St. London W1V2DU, England. A return envelope is enclosed for the convenience of U.S. members.

2) Show your animal-loving friends a copy of this article, and ask them to contribute to the Chimpanzee Fund. Extra Newsletters are available at a cost of \$1.50 (U.S.) each.

3) Ask any wildlife conservation or animal protection organizations to which you belong to contribute.

Extra copies of IPPL's appeal for the Chimpanzee project are available from our U.S. office.

All funds will go directly to the Chimpanzee Rehabilitation project. The Chimpanzee Fund has no administrative costs as all the clerical work is being done by IPPL's Summerville volunteers. Ms. Kit Woodcock is serving as Honorary Treasurer of the Fund.

Among the three of us (Janis, myself, and my father) we are responsible for the lives of 26 orphan chimpanzees. In the last ten years, we have come a long way to providing them with an alternative to captivity and developed strategies for rehabilitation of chimpanzees which would be relevant for those undertaking similar projects elsewhere. But, despite our best efforts, we cannot continue our program without funds. We don't want to fail our chimpanzees for lack of funds. We don't want to have to turn away other orphaned chimpanzees because we cannot afford proper care.

That is why we are asking you to help the IPPL Chimpanzee Fund.

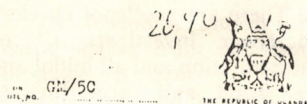
GORILLAS AND CHIMPANZEES FOR SALE

When the Uganda government of Idi Amin fell, conservationists hoped that this would mean increased protection for Uganda's wildlife - including the endangered Mountain gorilla, of which approximately 200 survive in the wild.

However, Tanzanian troops went on a rampage of killing all over Uganda, killing the wildlife even in Uganda's national parks. Now it appears that Ugandan government officials are involved in wildlife trafficking. The letter reproduced here was received by a European laboratory. IPPL has learned that Mr. Kyeyune has since been promoted to the position of Chief of Uganda's national parks.

There has been yet another change of government in Uganda and it is not clear whether Mr. Kyeyune will be replaced by an official more concerned about wildlife protection.

Readers wishing to express their concern for the future of Uganda's primates and other wildlife may contact the Embassy of Uganda, Washington D.C., U.S.A., or the Ugandan Embassy in the capital city of their country of residence.



GAME DEPARTMENT,
P.O. BOX 4,
ENTEBBE, UGANDA.

1st November, 1979.

Dear Sir,

I refer to your letter RCH/1h dated 14th August, 1979 on the subject of animals for research and pharmaceutical production.

I am prepared to sell to you annually 500 patas monkeys at Shs. 200/= each, 100 chimpanzees at Shs. 4,000/= each, and 5 gorillas at Shs. 16,000/= each.

My office shall issue an export permit and you will arrange to get an import permit from your Government.

You will have to capture the animals yourself or contact the professional trapper from Nairobi whose address is given to you below for direct contact.

Yours faithfully,

Peter S. K. B. Kyeyune
for: Peter S. K. B. Kyeyune
CHIEF GAME WARDEN

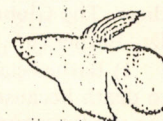
cc. Mr. Clive A. Critchley,
Professional Animal Trapper,
P. O. Box 14044,
NAIROBI.

The Ag. Permanent Secretary,
Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife,
P. O. Box 4241,
KAMPALA.
(For the attention of Mrs Kagumya)

THAI DEALER OFFERS PROTECTED ANIMALS FOR SALE

The offer of animals for sale reproduced on this page was circulated to many zoos and laboratories. EVERY ONE OF THE ANIMALS OFFERED FOR SALE IS BANNED FROM EXPORT BY THAILAND. The address of the animal dealer has been deleted in case a copy of this Newsletter falls into the hands of unscrupulous individuals.

IPPL has drawn this offer to the attention of Thailand's Wildlife Conservation Department, the Royal Thai Customs, the Thai press, and His Majesty King Bhumibol of Thailand.



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BIRDS-REPTILES-AMPHIBIANS-INVERTEBRATES-INSECTS-TROPICAL FISHES-MARINE FISHES-WA

BANGKOK: June 12th, 1979.

30 HEADS	WHITE HANDED GIBBONS.....	US\$ 350.00 EACH
10 "	BABY RHESUS MONKEYS (1 - 1 1/2 kgs)....	" 100.00 "
2 "	BINTURONG.....	" 250.00 "
1 "	MALE CLOUDED LEOPARD.....	" 3500.00 "
1 "	FEMALE CLOUDED LEOPARD (blind left eye) "	2000.00 "
8 "	BABY HIMALAYAN BLACK BEARS.....	" 350.00 "
3 "	BABY MALAYAN SUN BEAR.....	" 350.00 "
20 "	LEOPARD CATS.....	" 75.00 "
1 "	BABY ELEPHANT (35 - 40 ").....	"12000.00 "

WILDLIFE CONSERVATION BILL INTRODUCED TO U.S. CONGRESS

Congressman Mike Lowry, of Washington State, has introduced a bill (H.R. 7241) into the U.S. Congress which would establish a Fund for international wildlife habitat conservation. The Fund would be financed by a 7% "luxury tax" on imported wildlife, plants, and wildlife products.

The proposed legislation provides for the establishment of a Conservation Grant Panel within the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. The panel would award grants to developing nations to assist them in conserving their wildlife habitats.

In recent years, hundreds of thousands of primates have left tropical countries for the United States. Most are used in research and product testing. Except for a few zoos, the institutions and companies using primates have done nothing to help preserve primates in the wild. Therefore, IPPL feels that this tax would serve a useful purpose. Disbursing the fund through the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service would ensure that projects have no procurement component.

Many primate species are threatened with extinction due to the rapid destruction of the forests of Asia, Africa, and South and Central America. U.S. readers should contact their Representatives and senators to express support for H.R. 7241. Members living in primate habitat countries may wish to contact Congressman Lowry at the House Office Building, Washington D.C. 20515, to express their approval of this excellent initiative.

AIR FORCE COVER-UP OF BROOKS AIR FORCE EXPERIMENTS

Many IPPL members responded to our request that they protest to the Secretary of the Air Force and their congressmen about alleged cruelty to primates used in nuclear radiation and chemical warfare studies at the School of Aerospace Medicine, Brooks Air Force Base, San Antonio, Texas, U.S.A. (See **IPPL Newsletter**, March 1980). In addition, the **National Examiner** and **Globe**, U.S. weekly newspapers with a combined circulation of 2 million copies, called for an end to the mistreatment of monkeys at the School in their 27 May 1980 issues. Further allegations by Dr. Barnes were published in these periodicals. Dr. Barnes, a psychologist formerly employed at the School, had been responsible for the original revelations about the research conducted there. The **Globe** and the **Examiner** carried further allegations by Dr. Barnes:

1) Barnes claimed that he saw three Rhesus monkeys strangle to death because their metal restraining harnesses were strapped too tightly around their necks. A fourth monkey allegedly died of this cause on 2 June 1980.

2) Barnes claimed that monkeys trying to escape restraint rubbed so hard against their metal chest bars that the bars cut through their abdominal walls.

3) In addition to their cruelty, Barnes alleged that the experiments conducted at the School were repetitive, useless, and a waste of U.S. taxpayers' money.

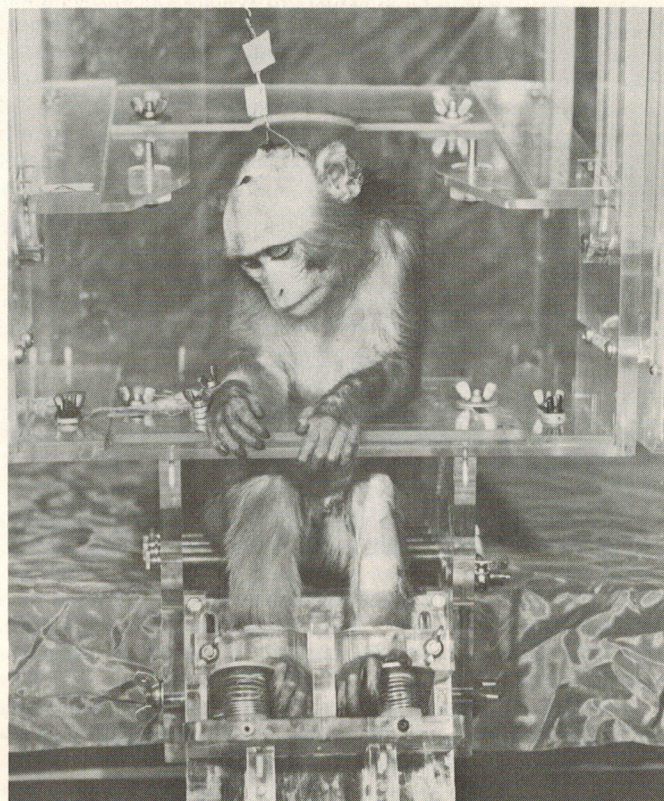
In justification of the experiments to U.S. congressmen, press, and public, the Air Force claims that the School of Aerospace Medicine is "accredited" by the Association for the Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care (AALAC). AALAC was founded in 1965 and is based in Joliet, Illinois. In a telephone conversation with Dr. Shirley McGreal, Co-Chairwoman of IPPL, Mr. Lee Hellman, Executive Secretary of AALAC, stated that the organization was founded to forestall the passage of any legislation that would protect laboratory animals. (Subsequently, a "toothless" Animal Welfare Act was passed). Hellman said that AALAC standards are based on those in the booklet **Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals** published by the U.S. National Institutes of Health. This Guide recommends tiny cages 60 cm. x 60 cm. x 76 cm. for most laboratory monkeys (macaques, vervets, etc.).

Mr. Hellman stated emphatically that, "AALAC accredits facilities NOT research protocols." Its sole interest is in a laboratory's "housekeeping."

AALAC could, he said, criticize a laboratory for an "inappropriate cage" but not for excessive restraint of a primate, excessive shocking of an animal, or even choking the animal - as long as this was part of the experimental protocol.

Hellman stated that, "'Barnes' allegations are unwarranted." He admitted that he had not spoken to Barnes, and therefore had no way of knowing whether the Barnes allegations were true. When Dr. McGreal suggested he talk to Barnes, Hellman said he was unwilling to contact him.

IPPL has learned that AALAC charges laboratories an application fee of up to \$500 (U.S.) for accreditation, and an annual



Air Force Monkey in Restraint Chair

fee of up to \$500. Inspections are usually made every 3 years, and are always announced in advance. There are no "spot checks" (unannounced visits) or "undercover investigations" of laboratories. All applications for accreditation and all initial and follow-up inspection reports are secret and, according to AALAC, held "in strictest confidence." Nonetheless, the U.S. National Institutes of Health exempt laboratories holding AALAC accreditation from the requirement that laboratories holding NIH grants have ongoing animal care committees.

According to the AALAC **Activities Report** (December 1973), the purpose of AALAC's accreditation program is "to encourage, promote, and facilitate scientific research using experimental animals."

Members receiving letters justifying the Brooks mistreatment of monkeys cannot feel confident that all is well just because AALAC has accredited the facility. All the AALAC accreditation means is that the facilities are reasonably clean on the one day every three years when the accreditation team visits, that the cages meet the minimum size standards, and that the laboratory has paid AALAC its accreditation fee. However, monkeys can be, and are, subjected to extreme pain and suffering in AALAC-approved facilities such as the School of Aerospace Medicine.

VALUE OF NUCLEAR RADIATION EXPERIMENTS ON PRIMATES QUESTIONED

Several thousand monkeys (over 2,000 at the Armed Forces Radiobiology Research Institute, Bethesda, Maryland, U.S.A. and over 1,000 at the School of Aerospace Medicine, Brooks Air Force Base, San Antonio, Texas), have been killed in nuclear radiation studies funded by the U.S. Department of Defense. These monkeys died after prolonged pain and suffering. The question therefore arises of whether this research is so important and valuable as to justify the cruelty and expense. IPPL believes that it is not.

In response to an enquiry about the Brooks experimentation from Congressman John Burton of California, Colonel Thomas Wood of the United States Air Force stated, in a letter dated 12 May 1980, that the purpose of the nuclear radiation experiments on primates conducted at the School of Aerospace Medicine, Brooks Air Force Base, and other facilities is "to provide information on nonhuman primate performance as affected by exposure to radiation hazards which might be encountered by Man in an operational environment." Such data, claimed the

colonel, "can be extrapolated to humans."

There are several reasons to question the value of the radiation experiments. In the first place, individual animals within the same species respond very differently to radiation. Rhesus monkeys at the Armed Forces Radiobiology Research Institute exposed to 4,600 rads took from 7 - 132 hours to die.

Extrapolation from one species to another is even less reliable, as several "species comparison studies" (one is referred to later in this article) have shown. In view of the problems inherent in extrapolation from one species to another, one can seriously question the validity of extrapolating from Monkey to Man. Far more useful data might be derived from humans accidentally subjected to radiation, or exposed to radiation for medical reasons.

Primates used in nuclear radiation experiments are restrained and taught tasks (such as riding a primate equilibrium platform or running in a treadwheel) through electric shock until their performance satisfies the experimenters (usually psychologists). Once trained, they are irradiated and put back to work at their tasks until they die. The animals' performance, "vomitions," and "incapacitations" are carefully recorded. The value of this work is questionable because there are obvious differences between Man and Monkey in both body structure and function. In addition, the psychological situation of a serviceman or woman can in no way be compared to that of a monkey working to avoid electric shock. Servicemen in a future war would not be hooked up to electric shock devices. Would the emotional stimulation of War be an equivalent incentive? It would appear highly unlikely. Reactions of Japanese affected by the atomic bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki included hysteria and panic. Some people went around in a daze, many were blinded.

Unlike the monkey, a human suffering from massive irradiation would realize that death was imminent. His/her performance level would probably be reduced to near zero. In any case, it is not clear what tasks would remain to be carried out by the dying individual.

Dr. Joseph Wilkinson raises the question of the reliability of extrapolating from one monkey species to another and from monkey to man in his doctoral dissertation entitled **A Comparative Study of the Effects of Pulsed Neutron-Gamma Radiation on the Sidman Avoidance Performance of Rhesus Monkeys and Baboons** (1972). In the introduction to his dissertation, Dr. Wilkinson stated that the purpose of military research into Estimated Performance Decrement is "to provide military planners with information concerning the potential effectiveness of operational personnel following massive radiation exposure." He notes that, "the implicit assumption has been that Man will behave as the Rhesus monkey behaves after radiation." Unfortunately, notes Wilkinson, "there are no logical or empirical bases to support this assumption. . .to extrapolate on the basis of observations from a single species related only through membership in the same order as are the Rhesus monkey and Man, is completely indefensible."

The purpose of Wilkinson's research was "to provide comparative data for monkeys and baboons relative to their responses to ionizing radiation." Baboons and Rhesus monkeys were taught by electric shock to perform the avoidance task, then irradiated with between 3,500 and 4,000 rads. Wilkinson concluded that:

Baboons and Rhesus monkeys are phylogenetically related by common membership in the sub-family **Cercopithecinae**. On the basis of this relationship, one might predict that the radiation response would be quite similar. That this is apparently not the case is evidence of the problems inherent in typological thinking. . .These results indicate that behavioral and phylogenetic similarities do not justify prediction of identical or highly similar radiation responses. The extrapolation of baboon response from Rhesus monkey data would have produced a prediction that would be considerably in error.

Wilkinson concluded that:

The results of this experiment provide no test of the hypothesis that either baboons or Rhesus monkeys respond similarly to Man following radiation. The only statement that the results permit is that, within the conditions of the experiment, Rhesus monkeys and baboons did not respond similarly to radiation. Whether or not either of these species bears any similarity to humans in terms of early performance decrement is not yet a question, because there are currently no available means of answering such a question. It would be surprising if human behavioral response to radiation bears any more than a superficial resemblance to either of the species. The Old World monkeys and Man have been evolving independently since the late Eocene or early Oligocene epoch, or roughly 30 to 40 million years.

Why, then, are the radiation experiments continued **ad infinitum** with no end in sight? It appears that, in spite of all the evidence to the contrary, the Air Force researchers consider monkeys to be "furry humans." Dr. Wilkinson feels that watching monkeys riding on mock space platforms or running in treadwheels is very "saleable" to military administrators. It gives the impression that something useful and visible is being done. Such research attracts additional research funds. In order to keep funds rolling in, endless new combinations of experiments and species comparison studies are generated. Only continued public concern can stop them. Members are urged to continue protesting to the Secretaries of Defense and the Air Force, as well as their congressmen. Overseas members may express their concern to the U.S. Embassy in their country of residence.

PRIMATARIUM OPENS ON 1 JULY

The newest London tourist attraction, the Primatarium, will open on 1 July, 1980. Mr. Michael Heseltine, M. P. will perform the opening ceremony. The Primatarium is sponsored by IPPL (U.K.).

Using multi-image projection, linked by computer, the Primatarium will seek to recreate the world of primates, showing how they developed, how and where they live, and how their existence is threatened.

The Primatarium is located near King's Cross Station, at the junction of Pentonville Road and Grays Inn Road. The nearest underground station is King's Cross. Bus lines 14, 18, 30, 73, 77, and 239 serve the Primatarium.

Members visiting London this summer are urged to visit this exciting new attraction.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA SEEKS PERMIT TO KILL GIBBONS

The Comparative Oncology Laboratory, University of California, Davis, California, U.S.A. has applied to the U.S. Federal Wildlife Permit Office for an Endangered Species permit to kill up to ten infant white-handed gibbons annually for an indefinite period by inoculating them with a fatal primate virus. The laboratory's gibbon colony consists of 54 gibbons, 28 wild-born, and 26 captive-born. Most of the original colony of gibbons were acquired on the international blackmarket. (See **IPPL Newsletters**, November 1974, April 1975, May 1975, and March 1980).

The Comparative Oncology Laboratory's gibbon mortality data for 1975 to 1980 was appended to the application and showed that 21 gibbons had died of a variety of causes. (No data was provided for 1974, when many unweaned infant gibbons smuggled to the laboratory from Thailand died of pneumonia.)

IPPL has submitted a strong statement of opposition to the issuance of this permit, citing many reasons:

1) Many of the gibbons were acquired on the Thai and Singapore blackmarkets. IPPL attached documents (reproduced on this page), which indicate that officials of the Comparative Oncology Laboratory were aware of the gibbon's protected status in Thailand.

IPPL also contended that the acquisition of gibbons to fill the laboratory's orders had cost the lives of large numbers of mother and infant gibbons. According to former gibbon smuggler, Jean-Yves Domalain, approximately 20 mothers and babies die for each baby gibbon successfully brought into captivity. In addition, the efforts to procure gibbons made by the laboratory may have contributed to the deaths of several Thai game wardens shot in the line of duty while attempting to control wildlife poaching in Thailand's national parks and wildlife sanctuaries. IPPL believes that those who acquire gibbons on the blackmarket should not profit from their activities. The smuggled gibbons should have been returned to Thailand. Instead, the University of California was allowed to keep them, has received several million dollars in government grants to study them, and now wants to use gibbons in fatal experimentation. Should the laboratory have any surplus gibbons, the animals should be returned to Thailand to help compensate for the serious damage already done to wild gibbon populations by the laboratory.

2) IPPL quoted the 1974 report of a site visit team which evaluated the Comparative Oncology Laboratory's research. The team represented the National Cancer Institute (NCI), which supports the gibbon colony as well as several experimenters involved in the laboratory's activities. The NCI team commented that experimental use of the gibbons might have an adverse effect on the colony's future. IPPL believes that inoculating healthy animals belonging to an endangered species with a fatal virus disease is unnecessary and inhumane.

3) IPPL believes that under no circumstances should an open-end permit be issued to any applicant for an Endangered Species permit. The Comparative Oncology Laboratory stated that it wished to kill "up to" 10 gibbons per year, even though it is breeding only 5-10 animals per year. In addition, the laboratory requested a permit for an "indefinite" period. IPPL believes that a separate application should be filed annually, stating the precise number of gibbons to be inoculated and providing a full justification for the proposed activity in terms of the status of the colony and significance of any proposed killing of gibbons.

4) IPPL considers that Dr. Kawakami's claim that the Comparative Oncology Laboratory's gibbon colony is "self-sustaining" is premature. The definition of an animal "bred in captivity" is, according to parties to the Endangered Species Convention, "progeny of wildlife. . . born in captivity from parents that mated in captivity." In addition, "the parental stock must be established in a manner not detrimental to the survival of the species in the wild." The Comparative Oncology Laboratory gibbon colony has had no second-generation captive births and was established in a manner severely detrimental to the survival of the species in the wild. At this time, it in no way qualifies for the status of a "self-sustaining colony."

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

On June 14, 1974, between the hours of 10:00 - 11:40 A.M., I met with Mr. Boyd Harrold, manager, animal colony, Comparative Oncology Laboratory, School of Veterinary Medicine, University of California, Davis. This meeting took place at the facilities of the animal colony. At that time there were twenty-six (26) gibbons in the colony. During the course of our conversation, Mr. Harrold freely admitted to me that the gibbons obtained from Thailand through an animal dealer (which previously had been identified to me as Ark Animal Exchange by Dale Brooks, DVM) had been obtained in Thailand through the blackmarket and that bribes were paid at the airport in Thailand in order to get them out of the country. Mr. Harrold stated that the gibbons were shipped elsewhere from Thailand before they were shipped into the United States. This information was volunteered by Mr. Harrold when I asked him how gibbons from Thailand, which he agreed with me were protected animals in Thailand, had been obtained by the Comparative Oncology Laboratory.

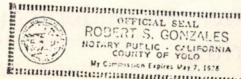
At this same meeting on June 14, 1974, Mr. Harrold informed me that the four gibbons which had survived the December 31, 1973 shipment from Thailand routed through Ark Animal Exchange, Canada had been inoculated with leukemia. Mr. Harrold also stated that an additional order for twenty gibbons had been placed with Ark Animal Exchange by the Comparative Oncology Laboratory.

The basic information in the above statements is contained in a series of recall notes which I made on June 14, 1974, immediately after my meeting with Mr. Harrold. The original copy of these notes was obtained from me by Agent Jay Miles, Sacramento Bureau, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, and labelled Exhibit C.

To the best of my knowledge, the above information is true.

Ardith A. Eudey
Ardith A. Eudey

Subscribed and sworn to before me this
16 day of Sept., 1975
Notary Public
State of California - Principal Office, Yolo County



TO: Jim Pollock
Purchasing
20 October 1972
FROM: Tom Kawakami
SUBJECT: Open vendor and supply agreement policy

This is to request that an open vendor be set up for the purchase of 24 gibbons annually. Our NIH contract program is supported to conduct studies on the pathogenesis of C-type viruses isolated from spontaneous leukemia gibbons. This research is hampered by the difficulty in obtaining adequate numbers of gibbons to conduct any meaningful experiments.

Gibbons are obtained primarily from Thailand but the Thai government refuses to release any gibbons at this time. Since they are extremely difficult to obtain, we are required to purchase the animals whenever they are available. The supply agreement policy, while essential for purchase at a favorable price, has hampered our ability to purchase the animals when they were available. An open vendor would benefit our program when the supplier under the agreement cannot obtain the animals.

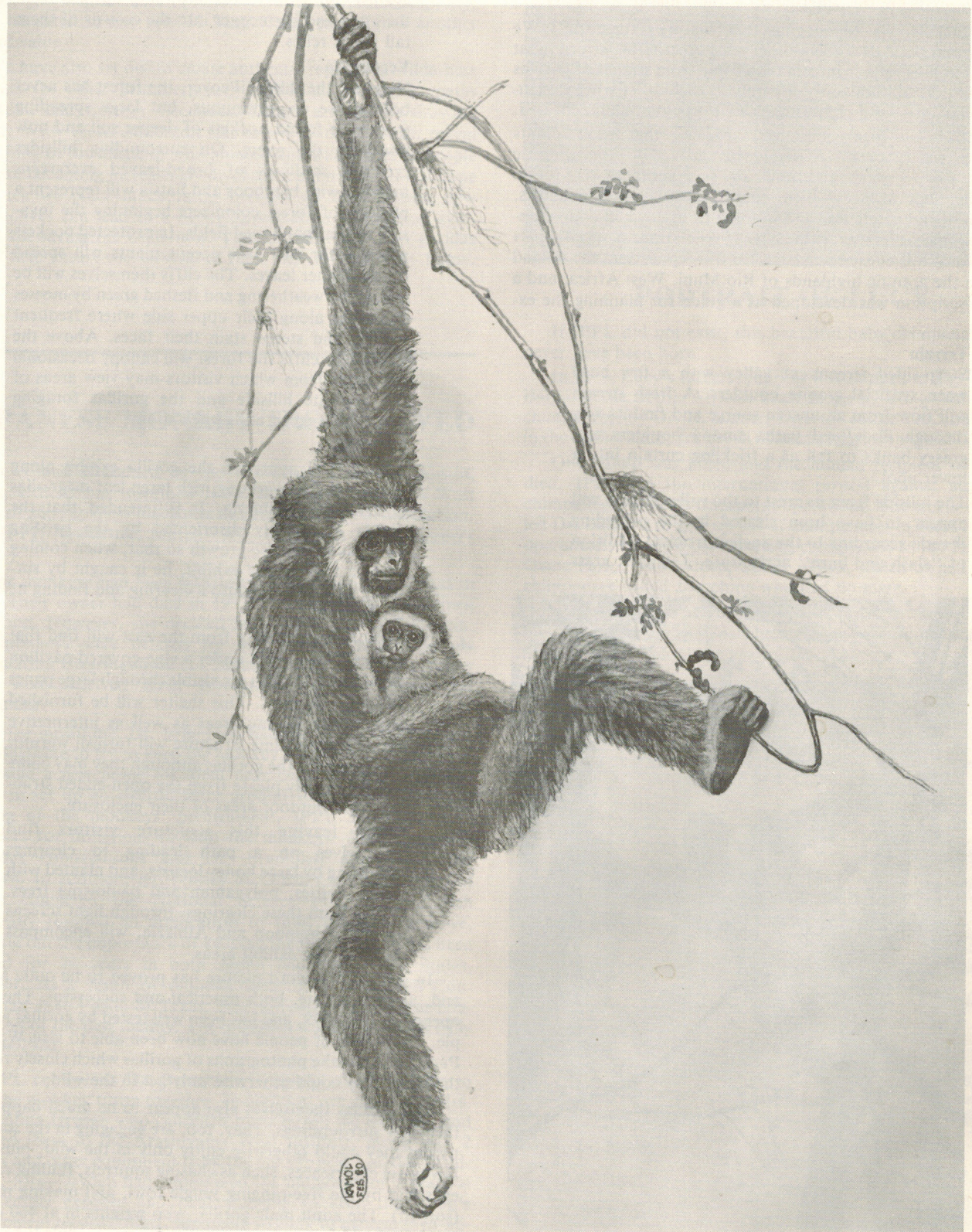
Dr. J. Buff of NCI, who is our program project officer, has agreed and has recommended verbally that the gibbons be purchased as they are available.

Request for "open vendor" for gibbons

Dr. Ardith Eudey's affidavit to U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service

5) IPPL also drew attention to the known fragility of gibbons in captivity and cited the record of the U.S. Army Gibbon Laboratory in Bangkok, Thailand (SEATO Laboratory) which lost 270 of the 300 gibbons it acquired between 1965 and 1975, many as the result of outbreaks of respiratory diseases and enteritis. A serious epidemic could decimate the Comparative Oncology Laboratory's gibbon colony. The Laboratory's mortality record submitted with its application (21 gibbons dead in 5 years) is not impressive.

IPPL hopes that the requested gibbon-killing permit will not be issued to the Comparative Oncology Laboratory. However, the filing of the permit was the result of IPPL's administrative petition requesting that the Endangered Species Act prohibition on harming members of an endangered species without a permit be enforced on laboratories performing fatal experimentation on primates. An important legal principle has been established, regardless of the decision reached on this particular application.



Gibbon Mother and Child

by Kamol Komolphalin

NEW EXHIBITION HABITAT FOR GORILLAS

by David Hancocks

Mr. Hancocks is Director of the Woodland Park Zoo, Seattle, Washington, U.S.A.

In 1976 we began making plans for a new exhibition habitat for lowland gorillas at Woodland Park Zoological Gardens. Our intention was to try and create a naturalistic environment which would capture something of the excitement and wonder of seeing gorillas in the wild. This was a difficult task in an urban park, six miles from downtown Seattle.

The first step was to recognize that "nature is the norm". We could obtain basic data from other zoos on criteria such as moat widths, but most of our information came from studies of gorillas in the wild. Too often zoos look only to each other when designing new facilities, and old mistakes are thus continually repeated.

Research on local conditions revealed that some plants endemic to tropical Africa will grow in the Pacific Northwest under good conditions, and several others were found of similar appearance which could be used as simulators. Woodland Park itself was also studied to discover the most appropriate microclimate for this type of vegetation. A specific part of the world was chosen as a basis for this replication: the upland forest in the granitic highlands of Rio Muni, West Africa, and a work description was developed as a guide for planning the exhibit:

Terrain

Steep-sided stream-cut valley with a few huge worn artificial granite boulders. A fresh stream will flow from an unseen source and find its way through ill-defined paths among boulders and grassy banks to fall as a trickling curtain into a lower pool.

The hillside from its crest to the valley stream will appear to have been cleared in the preceding decade according to the ancient tropical tradition of "slash and burn" agriculture. Tall rank grass

will overgrow small abandoned clearings, half hiding ruins of the fallen forest. Great trees will have been subsequently overthrown, root and mossy bough exposed to lie broken across the boulder-stream slope. Some will have fallen against companion trees and ramp upward from the grass and herb cover into the crowns of these tall forest relics.

Vegetation

Here, on the thin soil cover, the forest has never been dense or continuous, but large spreading trees have found pockets of deeper soil and now dominate the scene. On surrounding hillsides crowded seedlings of broad-leaved evergreens together with bamboos and *Fatsia* will represent a phalanx of forest colonizers beginning the invasion of the abandoned fields. In protected pockets above a far cliff face accent plants will spread broad banner leaves. The cliffs themselves will be stained by weathering and fleshed green by mosses and ferns along their upper side where frequent trickles and steep stains their faces. Above the stream-cut cliffs the forest will canopy occasional overlooks from which visitors may view areas of the opposite hillside and the gorillas foraging below the regenerating vegetation.

Viewing

Visitors will approach the gorilla exhibit along curving paths overhung with large-leaf magnolias and feathery *Albizia*. It is intended that the visitor be slightly disoriented by the twisting pathway and dense growth so that, when coming upon a view of the exhibit, he is caught by surprise, as if breaking into a clearing and finding he is not alone.

Visitors approaching from the east will find that the trail has slipped under a vine-covered pavilion from which gorillas are visible through large panes of tempered glass. This shelter will be furnished with casual seating areas as well as interpretive displays. The same structure will furnish warmth and cover for the gorillas although they may come and go as they please from the open-ended structure into outdoor areas of their enclosure.

Upon leaving this structure visitors find themselves on a path leading to clearings overhung by large honey locusts, and planted with ferns, nettles, *polygnum* and *paulownia* trees. Views from these clearings, through light screens of dwarf bamboo and *Albizia*, will encompass much of the exhibit areas.

In general this word picture has proved to be quite accurate and, as of this date, both practical and successful. The exhibit opened in July 1979, and has been well tested by gorillas and people. Thousands of people have now been able to visit Woodland Park Zoo and take photographs of gorillas which closely resemble the views they could otherwise only get in the wild.

The gorillas themselves also appear to be much happier with their new surroundings. They, too, are engaging in the sort of activities they could otherwise enjoy only in the wild, plus even a few novel experiences, such as chasing squirrels, finding caches of eggs laid by the free-ranging jungle fowl, and making mud pies (sort of). The adult male gorilla, who weights in at 460 pounds, even climbs 40 feet and more up the tall trees, while the youngest member of the group, a two-year old female, is growing up in a



Photo: John Mackey

world where she not only has the benefits of a proper diet, modern veterinary care, and the company of her own social troop, but also a world rich enough to explore and entertain her; one in which she can not only play but, equally important, hide from view if she chooses. It is a world of growing trees, rather than steel pipes, of bushes and grasses rather than bare concrete floors, of streams and pools, hills and large boulders, and all with the open sky above.

If visitors enjoying this experience can gain just a glimmer of understanding about wild gorillas, and see for themselves the wonder and magnificence of animals which we, in our stupidity, have relegated to the role of King Kong, then it has another special value.

We have also set out to create authentic replicas of wilderness habitats for other primates, such as liontail macaques, patas monkeys, and Celebes macaques. Others are on the drawing board. With these exhibition habitats we hope we can reveal something of the magic of wild animals and wild places to people who are becoming increasingly divorced from nature. It is a hope in which we place much faith, because we believe these new perspectives can lead to a better appreciation and greater sympathy for saving the wilderness. Thus our new home for gorillas might help ensure the survival of their old - and natural - home.

JAPANESE MONKEY TROOP SAVED

Dr. Claud Bramblett of the University of Texas, Austin, Texas, U.S.A. has informed IPPL that the Arashiyama West troop of 260 Japanese macaques has been saved from dissolution. (See **IPPL Newsletter**, March 1980, for details of the group's plight.)

The monkeys had been translocated from Japan to Texas in 1972. Their owner had died in 1973, and his widow maintained the troop. However, she decided in January 1980 to sell them. The monkeys were offered for sale in the **Primate Supply Information Clearinghouse** (14 January 1980) and offers to buy them were received from laboratories and pharmaceutical companies.

In the meantime, Dr. Bramblett had formed the Arashiyama West Institute to try to keep the monkey troop together in Texas. He found a new home for them near Dilly, Texas, but lacked funds to set up an electric fence around 100 acres of land. On hearing of the monkeys' predicament, IPPL appealed to its members for donations to help the monkeys. Members made generous contributions and Dr. Bramblett thanks all who donated. In addition, Dr. Shirley McGreal, Co-Chairwoman of IPPL, contacted the National Science Foundation, which previously rejected an application to fund the troop's move, pointing out the importance of keeping the troop, which has been studied for 26 years in both Japan and the United States, together. As a result of requests from both IPPL and Congressman Jake Pickle of Texas, NSF allocated \$30,000 for construction of the new facility. The monkeys will be moved to Dilly in June 1980.

IPPL commends Dr. Bramblett for his persistent efforts to keep the monkey troop together. In addition, we commend Mrs. Clementina Dryden who cancelled plans to sell the monkeys and donated them to the Arashiyama West Institute, along with 2 trailers and other equipment from the old site near Laredo. In addition, Mrs. Dryden had maintained the monkeys for 7 years at considerable expense and paid students to keep the troop's genealogical records intact. Members wishing to express their appreciation to Mrs. Dryden for her patience and generosity may contact her at P.O. Box 1968, Laredo, TX 78041, U.S.A.



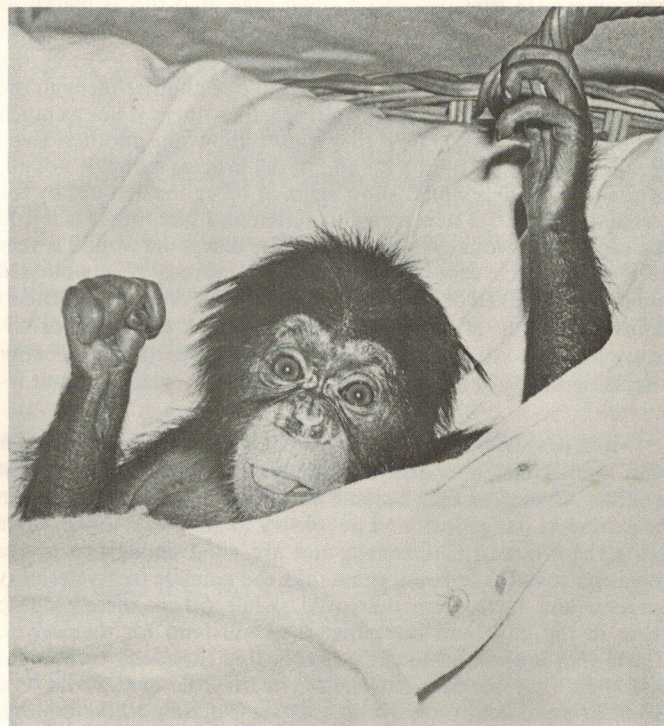
PORTRAIT OF LUCY

If IPPL did not exist, this beautiful baby chimpanzee would never have been born.

In 1977, Lucy's father, Quarles, was shipped to Dr. Christian Barnard, the South African heart surgeon, along with another chimpanzee, by Dr. H. Balner, Director of the TNO Laboratory in the Netherlands, for use in a human heart transplant operation.

One chimp was killed and the human recipient of its heart died. IPPL led the international protest against any use of chimpanzees in heart transplant operations. The storm of protest led Dr. Barnard to give up use of chimpanzees in heart transplant operations. He gave the surviving chimpanzee to the High Noon Game Farm, Villiersdorp, South Africa, which owned a female chimpanzee called Josephine who had no mate.

Quarles as "useless" and "redundant," time proved how wrong they were. Quarles and Josephine are the parents of Lucy, shown in this photograph at the age of 6 weeks.



OPERATION MONKEY RELEASE

by Vivian Wilson

Dr. Wilson is Director of the Chipangali Wildlife Orphanage and represents IPPL in Zimbabwe-Rhodesia.

A taxi pulled up in front of the National Museum in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe and on the back seat sat a primate - not the type one would normally expect to travel in a taxi-cab but the species known to scientists as *Cercopithecus pygerythrus* or, to the layman, as a vervet monkey. The driver produced a letter which read: "Dear Mr. Wilson, Herewith one vervet monkey - know you will give her a home and not destroy her - sorry no money for a donation."

The letter was not signed. I inquired of the driver where he had got the monkey and letter from, and he indicated that it was a lady who had asked what the fare would be to the Museum. She then gave him 50 cents and said, "Take this animal to Mr. Wilson at the Museum."

"Taxi," as she was named, was an apparently bad-tempered young female perhaps 18 months old, with a very light-coloured coat compared with our other vervet monkeys. She was obviously someone's pet, as she had a strap around her waist and had been chained up for some time. Raw and festering wounds showed where the strap had cut deep into her flesh and it was no wonder that the poor creature was bad-tempered.

I tried to remove the strap that was causing her discomfort, and she promptly let me know how painful it was and how much she distrusted humans by giving me two quick bites. I left her alone until I got back to Chipangali and there I got Packson, my senior animal assistant, to hold her while I cut the leather strap off her and treated her wounds. Had she been able to speak she would certainly have thanked me; her sad eyes said as much. Taxi was placed in a small cage where it was easy to catch and treat her, and I could also see how her wounds were healing. Several weeks later it was time for her to join the troop of vervet monkeys in the large cage.

In the meantime several more vervets arrived at Chipangali and altogether there were five newcomers ready to be introduced to the residents. Were I suddenly to put a strange monkey straight into the cage with a dozen old-timers, the new one would be chased about so much, and bitten to such an extent, that it would eventually be killed. To introduce primates to one another, the newcomers are first put into a small cage, and this is placed as close as possible to the wire of the cage into which they are to be introduced and they are left for several weeks.

The monkeys become accustomed to one another through the wire and, when they are finally put together, there is not as much fighting as there would be if they didn't know one another. Even so, they would still fight a lot and in the process many, if not all, of the new arrivals would show signs of being 'beaten up' by the residents. Even if a new arrival is bitten and bleeding it is left in the cage for its wounds to heal naturally, unless the wound is very severe, in which case the monkey is removed. If a wounded monkey were taken out of the cage it would be even more difficult reintroducing it at a later stage. The fact that five or six newcomers are introduced at the same time gives them all a better chance, and as a result of the confusion many escape without injury.

More people in Rhodesia have monkeys as pets than any other wild animal and it is also this species that causes the greatest trouble. As soon as they become adult they begin to bite and can be extremely dangerous, and people try to get rid of them. Some bring them out to Chipangali, and are good enough to give a donation towards upkeep, some take the animals to a veterinary surgeon and have them destroyed, while others merely dump them in the bush and hope that they will fend for themselves. Those that are released nearly always find their way to humans and there they become a nuisance, or they die in the wild as a result of predation, or starvation, or are killed by wild monkeys.

We have had several people ask if we would give a home to their pet monkeys. On being told that we would like a donation to



Marking a Monkey for Release

Photo: Chris Mills

take it, they have often indicated that they would rather leave it in the bush or shoot it. One Sunday morning a car pulled up at Chipangali and stopped for a short time in the car-park, the door opened and out jumped a monkey. The driver, a white man, then slammed the door and drove off in a cloud of dust. As the tea-garden is very close to the car-park, the vervet monkey made his way to a crowd of visitors and decided he would like a slice of cake which was being eaten by a child. On being chased away, it promptly bit the child on the arm and I was immediately called, not only to render first-aid treatment to the innocent visitor, but also to capture the monkey which had taken to the uppermost branches of a large wild fig-tree. The child had to be taken to hospital for anti-tetanus and penicillin injections, and I spent several hours trying to get the monkey out of the tree. All this anxiety and inconvenience was caused by some thoughtless person who was not prepared to hand the monkey over in a decent manner, or perhaps wished to avoid his responsibility for the animal's upkeep at the Orphanage.

Over a period of a year or more several young were born to the captive troop and, when their numbers reached 17, we decided that the troop was large enough and then their training commenced in earnest.

They were trained to feed on wild fruits and other berries, green grass and also a large variety of leaves. They were also left without food for a day at a time in order to make them "tough," so that once released back into the wild, they could look after themselves.

Eventually the individuals of the troop were dependent on each other and preferred their association with each other to the company of humans. This was most important as we did not want the monkeys, once free, to seek human company.

They were also introduced to a variety of predators and potential enemies, such as leopards, caracals and servals, birds of prey, snakes and many other creatures that they were likely to find in the wild. They were fed on birds' eggs, insects and even mice and then we were sure that they would survive if released.

As time passed, the monkeys were handled less and eventually would have nothing to do with humans. It was then decided that the troop was ready for release and the major problem of where to release them had to be faced. This obviously had to be far from human habitation and in an area not already occupied by another troop. The choice was sadly limited by the prevailing security situation but, after several disappointments, Prof. G. Bond of the University of Rhodesia came up with the brilliant idea of using one of the islands in Lake Kariba. He discussed it with the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management, and Drs. Phelps and Choate of the University and finally they chose Zebra Island because it had a good vegetation cover, and a fair population of other animals but not other vervet monkeys. It was also within easy reach by boat from the University base at Kissesse Bay and the staff there could monitor the troop after release. The University offered the use of their boat "Erica" to transport the monkeys to the island, the Department of National Parks issued the necessary authority for the release and the project was in business.

It was important to release the animals just as the main rains started so that there was a good flush of new vegetation and, after a few delays, the date of the operation was set for 8 November 1977. Transport to Kariba by commercial flight by Air Rhodesia would have been very costly but the Rhodesian Air Force came to the rescue by offering to fly the monkeys, my wife and me to Salisbury and then to Kariba.

Take-off was planned for 1:00 p.m. and 10:00 a.m. saw several hot and frustrated staff trying to catch 17 monkeys without getting bitten too often - and all under the eye of the cine-cameras and other photographers. However, eventually all were caught, placed in two travelling cages and loaded on to the truck. Once at the airfield it was discovered that the plane had been delayed and a two-hour wait was necessary. The cages were therefore placed in the shade and sprayed with water to cool the animals. The plane arrived at 3.00 p.m. and, after quickly loading the cages, took off for an uneventful, though bumpy, trip to Salisbury. The monkeys spent the night in a shed at Salisbury airport and completed the journey the next day in a light aircraft.

BIZARRE SEX EXPERIMENTS CONTINUE AT YERKES PRIMATE CENTER

The 1975 documentary film "Primate" which was filmed at the Yerkes Primate Center, Atlanta, Georgia, U.S.A. shocked TV viewers with its graphic scenes of scientists performing bizarre sexual experiments on monkeys.

The resulting public outcry against these experiments did not end them, however. An article published in the journal **Brain Research**, 177 (1979) describes further sexual experimentation on Rhesus monkeys. The article is entitled "Sexual Behavior in Male Rhesus Monkeys Elicited by Electrical Stimulation of Preoptic and Hypothalamic Areas." In order to select 11 male Rhesus monkeys exhibiting "mature copulatory behavior as defined by Goy and Goldfoot," Yerkes Primate Center scientists observed the sexual activities of adult male monkeys "during sessions at least 5 hours long," at U.S. taxpayers' expense.

The eleven monkeys showing "mature copulatory behavior" then underwent complex brain surgery, including implantation of electrodes. The monkeys were subjected to three different testing regimes.

In the first session, they were placed in restraint chairs, while scientists stimulated their brains electrically, meanwhile observing and recording "motor and autonomic responses of the genitals and pelvic region, including abduction of the thighs, penile tumescence, rhythmic pelvic movements or scratching directed towards the genitals."

The pilot kindly circled Zebra Island before landing at Kariba so that the humans at least could have a good look at the release site.

By mid-morning the cages were transported to Lake Kariba and loaded aboard the "Erica" for the half-hour voyage to Zebra Island. On arrival at the Island the cages were taken off the boat and placed on dry land. Then the cages were opened and the animals released. At first the monkeys just sat inside the cages looking out - not very sure of themselves. Then one monkey moved out and the rest followed, running across the beach and up the hill. Some climbed trees, and others foraged amongst the rocks for a while and then - as one - they ran off into the bush. About half an hour later the whole troop came back and ran straight past us and off to the other end of the island. They had not returned an hour later and the party left to return to Kariba and catch the plane home.

The island was extremely beautiful and covered with lush vegetation and very few predators - other than lion which occasionally swam to the island, mongooses, and birds of prey. We visited the island again during the second week in January 1978 to check on the troop and we were pleased to note that the monkeys appeared to have settled down very well.

After a thorough search of the island which took several hours, the troop was finally located and found to have joined up with a troop of baboons. Unfortunately, the baboons gave the alarm call and the whole combined group disappeared into the undergrowth.

However, before they disappeared, I did manage to count 9 vervet monkeys and noted that one of them - Taxi, in fact - was carrying a newly born baby.

She had obviously conceived in captivity at Chipangali and must have produced her baby soon after being set free on the island.

In June 1979 a friend of ours visited the island and he reported having counted 19 vervet monkeys there and said they were extremely wild and he couldn't get anywhere near them. He also felt that there may have been more in the troop while 3 very small babies were seen.

Thus, the troop of 17 have survived and now, 2 years after being released, have multiplied and are completely wild.

This whole operation was, therefore, a great success.

In the second session, the monkeys were placed with "ovariectomized females" treated with hormones. Researchers observed the "sexual performance" of the animals, breaking down the activities into ten different categories for recording purposes.

In the third session, the monkeys were again placed with treated females. In addition, their brains were stimulated. Although there was considerable activity, the scientists admit to confusion as to whether it was caused by the presence of the females or the electrical stimulation.

After the three experiments, the eleven monkeys were killed with sodium pentobarbital, so that the scientists could study the brain damage they had produced through the initial surgery. The scientists (who survived the experiment) then performed "two-tailed T-tests" and "Chi-square tests of goodness of fit" on their data and prepared it for publication.

This research was paid for by U.S. taxpayers. Part of the funding came from the Yerkes Primate Center's "core grant," part from a National Institutes of Health grant.

IPPL considers this research to be a waste of public funds, and of primate life. It is demeaning to both the human and nonhuman primates involved. Protests may be addressed to the Director, Primate Research Centers Program, Division of Research Resources, NIH, Bethesda, MD 20205, U.S.A.

NEWS FROM SIERRA LEONE

In past decades, Sierra Leone has been the principal source of wild-caught chimpanzees on the international market, exporting 100 - 300 animals per year. The trade was banned in 1978. Dr. Geza Teleki has recently spent 6 months in Sierra Leone studying the status of the chimpanzee population. The principal exporter of Sierra Leone chimpanzees, Austrian expatriate Herr Franz Sitter, had claimed that there were over 30,000 chimpanzees in the country. However, Dr. Teleki estimates that the country contains no more than 2,000 chimpanzees, which tends to confirm the suspicion that Sitter exported many chimpanzees from Guinea, Liberia, and other West African countries which protect chimpanzees, but are unable to enforce anti-smuggling legislation along their long land and sea borders.

Dutch reporter Dick van Hoorn visited Dr. Teleki in Sierra Leone in May 1980. Extracts from his report follow:

On arrival at Freetown Airport, the thermometer read over 40 degrees Centigrade. Dr. Teleki met me and we left together for the northern part of the country. The trip took nine hours and we travelled in a Land Rover supplied by the Government of Sierra Leone. As darkness fell, we set up camp on a river bank. The river, which was low since it was the height of the dry season, was our lifeline. It supplied water for washing, swimming, cooking, and drinking.

Here in the North of Sierra Leone, Dr. Teleki located two areas suitable for chimpanzee reserves. They are Kilimi and Outamba. Less than 1,000 chimpanzees live here, but, outside this area, the status of the chimpanzee is even more precarious. This is partly due to the massive export trade and partly due to habitat destruction.

There are not 30,000 chimpanzees as Herr Sitter would have the world believe. Dr. Teleki's research has shown that there are no more than 2,000 in the entire country, half of them in the two areas mentioned already, and the rest scattered among 12 other areas, where their future may be hopeless.

Dr. Teleki stated that, "The conservation of Outamba and Kilimi is a matter of life and death. I have informed the government in Freetown about the alarming situation here and that wildlife can only be saved if Outamba and Kilimi are given national park status and protection."

Outamba and Kilimi have spectacular scenery and are sufficiently large to support wildlife. Outamba measures 750 square kilometers and Kilimi 250 square kilometers. In scenic beauty, they can compare with the most famous tourist spots in East Africa. In some ways they are even more beautiful as they contain a greater variety of scenery and are greener. When the wildlife has recovered from the heavy damage inflicted in the past, both these areas would have tourist potential. Besides containing healthy chimpanzee populations, the areas are rich in birds.

The plundering of wildlife in Sierra Leone has until recently been of staggering dimensions. Herr Sitter, by far the largest dealer, had a network of agents all over the country supplying him with live animals obtained from hunters. Sitter pays his agents between \$30 and \$60 (U.S.) for a chimpanzee which is eventually sold for \$2,000 and up.

Only if national parks are established immediately will the chimpanzee and other Sierra Leone wildlife have any chance of survival.

CONTROVERSY OVER BUSHBABY EXPERIMENTS

Since 1974, members of the Psychology Department at Memphis State University, Memphis, Tennessee, U.S.A. have been performing brain ablation experiments on bushbabies. The bushbaby *Galago senegalensis* is a small nocturnal primate. Two reports on this experimentation have been published in the *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, (JCPP).

In Volume 90 no. 6 (1976) an experiment in which eight bushbabies were used was described. All the animals were taught a "visual discrimination task" by electric shock training. Then various lesions were placed surgically in the neocortex of six animals, while two served as controls. The animals were retested and killed for examination of their brains.

IPPL contacted Dr. Jeannette Ward, the Principal Investigator, for further details of this project. She admitted that she and advanced graduate students had operated on the bushbabies' brains, rather than a veterinarian or medical doctor. Brain surgery is complex and delicate, and in no circumstances is a psychologist allowed to operate on humans. However, primates have no such protection. Nonetheless, Dr. Ward assured IPPL that, "in our laboratory, the animals are regarded with affection and their lives with respect."

In JCPP, Volume 94, no. 2 1980, a similar experiment was described. Again, bushbabies were the subjects. Seven animals were trained to do a "worm-box" test. Five received cortical ablations, while three served as controls. After surgery, the animals were retested and killed.

Questioning the value of these experiments, and feeling that the JCPP was encouraging them by publishing the results, IPPL contacted Dr. Garth Thomas, of the University of Rochester Medical Center, who edits the *Journal*. In a letter to IPPL dated 13 May 1980, Dr. Thomas responded:

I can't help but believe that IPPL's concern about the two bushbaby experiments referred to in the JCPP is misdirected. The Bushbabies were well treated in the experiments. They certainly were freed from some lethal pressures such as disease and predation that would occur in their natural environment. Their brain surgery and their sacrifice at the end of the experiment were done under general anesthesia. That is certainly a more humane "way to go" than to be brutally killed by a conspecific (sic) or eaten by an Eagle (or by whoever eats bushbabies).

Unfortunately, the United States has no law to prevent psychologists from acquiring primates for experimentation, performing surgery on them, and killing them in research of questionable necessity.



Bushbaby

BRITISH PARLIAMENT DEBATES ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION

by Patricia Roche

The Protection of Animals (Scientific Purposes) Bill proposed by Mr. Peter Fry received its second reading in the House of Commons on 16th November 1979, and is now at the stage of amendment and interpretation in the House. As a counter-proposal to the Laboratory Animals Protection Bill proposed by the Earl of Halsbury (President of the Research Defence Society), the Fry Bill reflects the proposals made by the R.S.P.C.A. and other animal welfare organizations. Its chief aims are to reduce the number of animals used for experimentation and to provide greater protection against pain, distress or ill health in animals which are used.

The Halsbury Bill gives more emphasis to protecting the interests of the license-holder. Halsbury does not restrict testing procedures for non-medical purposes and introduces a pain clause permitting severe and enduring pain before counter-measures are required. Halsbury makes some provision for improvements in the welfare of laboratory animals but these are largely non-mandatory and depend on the good will of licensees - a situation no different from the present 1876 Cruelty to Animals Act which both Bills seek to replace. Halsbury further widens the scope of permitted experimental procedures by substituting **Biological** for **Physiological** (as per the 1876 Act), thus legitimising psychological experiments, e.g. aversive conditioning, a topic which was not covered by the 1876 Act and which has therefore become ambiguous. Without restriction, Halsbury expressly allows safety testing of current and new products under British and foreign legislation. The 1876 Act disallowed the use of live animals to teach surgical skills. Halsbury eliminates this restriction. The amount of pain allowable during experimentation is given wide freedom of interpretation by Halsbury, in that an animal may be subjected to pain of a severe and enduring nature before euthanasia or sedation or pain relief is required to be given. Such phrasing does nothing to prevent the possible (if unlikely) situation in which an animal is kept in an alternating pain followed by mild anaesthesia, nor those experiments in which an animal develops pain following a procedure.

To what degree are the provisions made by Fry superior to those in the Halsbury Bill? How much protection to non-human primates do they afford?

Fry does not differentiate between non-human primates and other taxa. Beneficial protection during experimentation arises, however, from two main sources, i.e. the specification of the degree of suffering allowed and the prohibition of practices involving unnecessary distress.

Four grades of license are designated, of which only Grade IV allows non-alleviated pain or extended pain and that only for the specific purpose of research into pain mechanisms or alleviation of pain. Otherwise, Fry prohibits the continued use of an animal after it has reached a condition of discomfort and achieves this by a specific pain clause stating that if an animal is subject to pain or distress which is likely to continue either during or as a result of experimentation, it must be destroyed immediately. This gives greater protection than Halsbury, where animals may suffer enduring pain before termination or anaesthetic need be administered. Fry's protection extends to the foetus of an experimental animal, which may suffer as a result of interference with the mother.

Although undoubtedly reducing the amount of suffering involved, Fry's provisions leave unspecified the amount of pain permissible in toxicity testing. Anaesthetics and analgesics normally are not used in acute toxicity testing, yet such procedures often cause severe pain and/or distress. Fry permits toxicity and safety testing procedures for medically therapeutic purposes, in order to satisfy current legal requirements in the United Kingdom. He similarly extends permitted testing to satisfy the requirements of foreign countries. Therefore although narrowing the permitted purposes of testing compared to Halsbury, Fry apparently allows testing of non-essential products such as cosmetics. The applica-

tion of pain restrictions to safety testing needs further clarification, so that both British and foreign statutory requirements may be more explicitly related to the license conditions.

Whereas Halsbury allows the use of live animals to obtain technical skill, Fry, in common with the 1876 Act, disqualifies these procedures and further prevents experiments in which the outcome is already well-known. All procedures including those allowed under Grade IV licenses must be completed as speedily as possible and must cause the least pain practicable.

Since these provisions focus on the testing of non-essential products and on aspects of research in the behavioural sciences, the Fry Bill surely will be attacked by those working in these areas. That the Bill imposes restrictions on the behavioural sciences is stated in the condition that all procedures "both physiological and psychological" must have a medically oriented purpose, thus removing the broad umbrella given by Halsbury to experiments for 'biological purposes'. Threatened are those procedures involving, e.g. serious deprivation of physical and social needs, tests of endurance, and application of electric shock (except as allowed under Grade IV). Psychologists may argue that such experiments are medically oriented. Success of the Fry Bill could encourage experimental designs which utilize reward instead of punishment, providing that the rewarding goal is obtainable without unnecessary suffering.

Fry provides the opportunity for radical changes in the living conditions of animals in the laboratory. He seeks to provide each animal with accommodation, bedding and facilities for exercise "as are required for its health and well being having regard to the known physiological and ethological needs of the animal". However, whether such 'ethological' needs include the provision of appropriate group-living and adequate living-space for non-human primates is not stated. However, this is not impossible, since Fry requires the establishment of registered premises for the breeding and supply of laboratory animals. No animal may be used unless supplied by such an establishment.

Prosecutions for offences under the 1876 Act have been notoriously difficult to initiate, largely due to the 6-month time limit for summary prosecutions imposed by the Act. The 6-month limit is maintained by Halsbury. This has made it practically impossible for prosecution of offences which first come to light through publication of findings after the event. The Fry Bill extends the time limit from 6 to 12 months, therefore increasing the chance of prosecutions being initiated from printed evidence. Fry further provides for indictment in the Crown Court in which no time limit applies, and, unlike the 1876 Act and Halsbury, does not require authority from a state department before prosecution can be brought. These measures, plus increases in the power of the Inspectorate to prosecute and advise, matched with a larger recruitment of veterinarily qualified inspectors, imply greater protective surveillance over experiments utilizing non-human primates, particularly in long-term studies in which publications usually appear at regular intervals.

That both Bills are at present in Parliament, one in the Commons and one in the Lords, indicates the degree of heat generated by the topic of animal welfare. That each party will use the issue as a political platform now seems certain, and both bills have supporters with more than the usual amount of influence and political standing.

If enacted, the Halsbury Bill, backed by the Research Defence Society, would produce a lulling effect on the general public. Although better designed to deal with the increased number of laboratory animals used today, it gives little increased protection to the animals themselves.

In contrast, the Fry Bill, supported by the R.S.P.C.A., makes explicit provisions for animal supply, husbandry and management and proposes an effective method of prevention of considerable amounts of pain and distress. Although currently undergoing amendment, if enacted by Parliament the Fry Bill may encourage the use of alternatives to laboratory animals.

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