INSIDE: ENGLAND’S WOOLLY MONKEY SANCTUARY
JAPANESE APE IMPORTS
Surging world interest in wildlife conservation heightens the need for a re-definition of the entire concept of species protection. The perspective of Leonard Williams is perhaps the broadest, clearest, and most controversial of all; it also has the more important distinction of being put into practice, in the Looe Monkey Sanctuary on England’s wild (and now woolly) southwest coast.

For 25 years, Williams’ woolly monkeys have lived in a way that — by zoo standards — sounds more like a fairy-tale: no new monkeys added for more than a decade; third generation births; a 26-year-old mother taking perfect care of her new baby; and a social structure like that of their rain forest relatives in South America.

This spectacular success had an apparently ordinary beginning: Williams seeing a little monkey sitting in a zoo cage. Looking up, the Londoner read the plaque — “South American Woolly Monkey Lagotricha lagotricha.” But what mattered to him was “a miracle of character in the monkey’s eyes that raised — and instantly settled — the same question: Could I imagine a life that didn’t include woolly monkeys?”

After remarrying that same year, he took his new wife to see her first woolly monkey. “When June saw him, she also fell in love right away,” says Williams. “At that point we decided to have a monkey sanctuary in the country.”

Their first move was to a suburban house, which was soon monkified with an outdoor play cage leading to an indoor monkey gym and bedroom. But with a growing number of monkeys, and increasing knowledge of their needs, this too became cramped.

So, after a thorough search, in 1965 they discovered a dignified Victorian house, set above a cliff edging the English Channel. Characteristically, creating the monkey residence took up much more time than decorating their own.

Already, Williams was abandoning old assumptions. Because jungles and their inhabitants were still considered inexhaustible, his main concern was not with conservation in general, but with the particular monkeys in his care. Dissatisfied with relating to woolies as pets or exhibits, he looked again at what allows monkeys to remain natural, and was first to coin the now-current ideas of wildlife “colonies” and re-created “sanctuaries.”

At the same time, careful observation and thought led him to a still-revolutionary concept — that continuity, between nature and captivity, of the elements of a monkey’s lifestyle, is the only basis of transplanted conservation. He explains:

In a climate like Europe’s, we couldn’t reproduce an Amazonian rainforest, and it would be wrong to try. What must — and can — happen is the maintenance of an unbroken line of natural opportunities from the wild to the protected breeding colony. A monkey’s adaptability isn’t great enough to make the total break from active group-member to frustrated caged display. Despite our greater adaptability, we consider prison life no more than punitive torture. How could a monkey be satisfied?

For Leonard Williams, what matters most is the function of the wild, not its detail. Most monkey-keepers would agree. The difference is Williams’ contention that, if we take an animal out of Nature’s comfortable complex of life, we have the responsibility of applying the imagination and effort essential for a complete lifestyle.

TERRITORY

A viable primate territory supplies much more than basic shelter. Accommodating a monkey means accommodating its play, comfort, activity, variety, socialization, and even solitude, (see diagram). Williams, like most observers of natural monkeys, insists that all of this is more than useful luxuries: each is a facet of what makes a monkey a monkey, in other words, what makes a monkey different than, say, an eagle or a guinea-pig.

The principles of the Sanctuary’s territory were still being formed in the mid-sixties, when Williams wrote his popular book *Man and Monkey*. Even then, he stated that:

There is scope for exploratory enterprise and responsible leadership. With plenty of space and plenty to do, ranking disputes are resolved by peaceful means and rarely by serious fighting. There are trees to be found and sampled. Buzzards fly overhead; storms, gales, snow and frost bring color as well as tension into the semi-captive life of the monkey community…

There are two giant beech trees, five indoor and three large outdoor play areas interconnected to permit full use by the monkeys.

DIET

The monkeys’ diet at the Sanctuary is deliberately closer to its Amazonian counterpart than to the monkey-chow regime given to most captive monkeys. The freshness, quality and variety of the fruit and vegetables would satisfy the fussiest health-food gourmet. Fresh food is supplemented by dried fruit (soaked for digestibility), cooked or sprouted grains, as well as seeds and nuts. Occasional light meat — chicken and
mealworms — replaces the red meat mistakenly given to the first monkeys. They insist on combining meat with roughage, so are given leaves, cabbage and other high-fiber foods.

COMMUNITY

The territory’s main purpose is to suit the super-socialization of its residents. As June Williams puts it, “We shouldn’t think of monkeys as separate organisms, because they clearly don’t. Apart from the youngsters, our monkeys see themselves much more as members of a group than as individual.” It is fanciful (but true) to say that the world of the eighteen Sanctuary monkeys is seen through relationships as much as a hermit’s is seen through solitude. Williams’ monkey family reflects its forest origins, with relationships and responsibilities bridging age, sex and social position.

Susan Rickard, a Monkey Sanctuary co-worker for 15 years, elaborates:

Just about every part of a natural monkey’s life relates directly back to the group. As soon as a newborn infant can focus its eyes, it begins using the “tuff-tuff” greeting unique to babies, and undeniably instinctive. Its first trip off mum is usually onto another monkey, perhaps a big male or older sibling. At each important moment of a monkey’s life, he or she counts on another monkey for help and companionship.

As the Monkey Sanctuary experience shows, even our vocabulary limits an appreciation of much that humans and primates share. Aside from abstract ideas, there is a far greater gap between monkeys and manatees than between monkeys and man. So it is a sad disservice to smother a monkey’s identity with the blanket term “animal”.

A tragi-comic example of monkey kinship involved Jimmy, a young adult male. He loved rolling in damp grass and once became so covered with mud that he was unrecognizable as friend — or even monkey — by the rest of the group. When his arrival frightened them, their distress calls made him run towards the sudden clump of defensive comrades. The more he sought their reassurance, the faster they ran from him, and the more worried he became about the unknown danger he now was. Only by running enough to dry off could he rejoin the others, in an orgy of group greeting.

Even an afternoon’s casual visit can offer less dramatic but equally natural moments, such as a juvenile ardent baby-sitting; an adult disciplining an unruly young male; mature males testing parts of the territory and breaking off untrustworthy pieces of wood or rope; a mixed group running and wrestling in a play-fight; or even a greeting, called across the garden, by a monkey to a regular visitor who has earned a durable friendship.

Why do zoo conditions seem to wreck the full range of social behavior seen at the Monkey Sanctuary? According to Williams, Part of the answer is simply cage designs which cater to human convenience, not monkey activity. Beyond that, most captive monkeys are isolated individuals, random groups too stressed to establish a real colony, or emotionally-distorted refugees from labs, circuses, and pet-homes. The well-known failure of most zoo mothers to care for their young comes from social breakdown — details of childbirth, like other parts of the natural process, need to be learned. Since mother monkeys here gained from the jungle experience of the first females, they don’t need any help from us. Most of the thirteen monkeys born at the Sanctuary have shown the healthy link between behavior here and in the Amazon. Actually, midwives visit the Sanctuary to learn more about childbirth.

As the Monkey Sanctuary experience shows, even our vocabulary limits an appreciation of what humans share with other primates.

Like many people, the Monkey Sanctuary’s human team rejects the cold barrier which many primatologists create in the name of scientific objectivity. Konrad Lorenz, the father of ethology, (the interspecies study of behavior) says, “With close relatives such as monkeys we must expect to find characters which are inherited from common ancestry by them and by us. The similarity is not only functional but historical, and it would be an actual fallacy not to humanize.”

Anyone who has spent much time with monkeys will accept the spirit of Williams’ imaginary exchange between himself and his monkey friend Samba:

Samba: Well, my opinion of a donkey varies according to where the donkey is. I think a donkey is at its best when it is completely out of sight. It is at its worst when it comes walking into the kitchen.

Williams: I don’t follow.

Samba: I’ll put it as simply as I can: I don’t dislike or like Prosper. I like or dislike where he happens to be. I like him in the donkey paddock. I dislike him in the kitchen.

Williams: Does your theory of space apply to grapes?

Samba: Of course it does. I like the grapes I eat; I don’t like the grapes you eat. The grapes in my mouth are differently placed. This is a matter of space. Surely you can follow that?

Williams: I can see I’m up against the limitations of the monkey mind. For me, grapes are grapes, no matter who eats them. I’m talking about grapes. You’re talking about who eats them.

Samba: How can anything sensible be said about grapes if you don’t eat them?

More seriously, Williams explains, Learning about monkeys through observation and contact means understanding about how they differ from humans, as well as how they are similar. Thinking of monkeys as no more than biological units is a mistake that’s at least as blinding as the pet owner’s tendency to super-humanize them.

By treating the monkeys as friends rather than possessions, the Sanctuary’s approach opens itself to being called iconoclastic, unscientific, and just plain peculiar. Leonard Williams, never one to pass up a challenge, exclaims, “Many people ask whether we’re monkey cranks, and I always deny it. We’re woolly monkey cranks!”
They are also sometimes accused of copying the woolly monkey lifestyle: everyone there works and shares in an extended family. "I always believed in the value of group living, even before the monkeys confirmed it," says Williams. "It just seems better for several families to pool their time, skills and resources to do something worthwhile. This certainly doesn't make us a 'hippie' commune."

Williams' age — he's 72 — causes concern that the Sanctuary might not survive the time when he can no longer guide it. But his wife June, and most of his partners, have shown the necessary experience and imagination.

In practice, almost all the work and decisions come from Sanctuary members, whether preparing monkey food, building the territory, or taking care of the human children.

The four children who have grown up there have no complaints. Ten-year-old Jo says that:

"It's great living at the Sanctuary because you never feel lonely. There are always people around, and I like helping out with the monkeys, or just watching them play. It's also fun making friends with visitors, like when I'm telling them about the monkeys."

Love of the monkeys and a rewarding lifestyle aren't the only attractions of working at the Sanctuary. Daniel Meyer, a Mexican who, after three years, is still a relative newcomer, says that:

"For me, it's impossible to love the monkeys without wanting to insure their survival which means the survival of the jungle in which they evolved. A successful breeding program could even lure people into thinking that the existence of a few monkey colonies is consolation for the destruction of their habitat. We believe that no species is really safe until its home range is ... from that point of view, a place like the Sanctuary is only completely successful if it inspires people to actively protect wild animals in their own environment."

Leonard Williams contends that:

"What we are doing here was called an experiment — though I never doubted that monkeys would thrive, given half a chance. No, the real experiment was with the public, who are supposed to be satisfied by a few seconds gawking at each of dozens of exhibits."

Attendance confirms the Sanctuary's appeal: Last year more than 100,000 tourists made their way down narrow country lanes to find it. The Monkey Sanctuary's viability is clear from the fact that, alone among the world's hard-pressed animal parks, its only income is its moderate admission fees.

Not that Williams argues for an immutable "monkey-sanctuary formula". "Different people could have much the same success using different approaches. I think a lot of zoo problems come from them trying to fit animals into the zoo formula, instead of working on what suits the animals." What brings people to the Sanctuary, again and again, is access — both to the monkeys themselves and to the experience of a helpful staff. As visitors enter, they get a brief introduction to the Sanctuary's work, then look around the monkey territory. Several times a day a "Monkey Meeting" is held. This starts with a detailed talk by a staff member with examples of monkey intelligence and personality, pointing out the friendly respect that natural monkeys deserve and demand.

Another important point is that healthy monkeys are clean and gentle. Even so, people — accustomed to stories of monkey "viciousness" — worry until they experience a monkey's charm. When the monkeys' interest in the organized meeting is exhausted, they return home or make their way to an adjoining garden. Here they browse for tasty leaves or delicacies like grasshoppers (which they never share with humans); these are good moments for visitors to ask questions and to take advantage of monkey hospitality. It's unusual for monkeys to leave the security of their territory for long, but visitors can stay for the next meeting or wander through a tearoom filled with information. On rainy, windy, or even hot days, meetings are held in a special room.

Despite the predictions of zoo managers, no monkey has caught a serious disease from tourists, and tourists have never been hurt during monkey meetings.

Since the monkeys come out on their own terms, mothers with newborn infants often walk among strangers; experience has taught them to expect courtesy. Simon Rickard, an eight-year resident of the Sanctuary, enjoys watching the monkeys and the visitors.

"I'm never bored during a meeting. The monkeys enjoy what they are doing, which is fun, and it's smashing to watch the change in people's eyes — from wondering what to expect to the pleasure of making friends with a 'civilized' creature."

This relaxed atmosphere is easiest on neutral ground. In their territory, monkeys insist on complete courtesy; any misbehavior is taken very seriously. Conversely, the human territory is visited by a few monkeys willing to overlook a lack of basic amenities such as ropes and climbing frames. At these times, the monkeys return the good behavior which they demand. During a meeting, a thoughtless human is only treated as an errant young monkey. This discipline is never dangerous, often painful, and always humiliating. One time a dignified matriarch simply passed a rowdy boy as her tail gripped his ankles, and sent him bottom, and his pride, to the ground.

Underlying the attitudes of Williams and his energetic co-workers is the sense that, to transplant monkeys from the wild to any country whose native species are already decimated, there can only be one justification: conservation in its most demanding and rewarding sense.

For Leonard Williams:

"What has to be conserved is not biological representatives, but the full range of biological and social processes. The only way to do that seems to be to go beyond people's intellectual appreciation of animals and touch their feelings, and maybe even their behavior. The "Monkey Meetings" do this beautifully."

From that point of view, the success of the Sanctuary is the monkeys' doing, or you could even say Nature's. The best we can offer the monkeys is the means for them to preserve what they are."

For more about the Monkey Sanctuary, read:


The Monkey Sanctuary's address is:

St. Martin's Looe, South Cornwall, England
Recently, the University of Oklahoma decided to "get rid of" several chimpanzees from its Institute for Primate Studies, including some animals that had been used in sign-language studies. Two of the chimps were Nim and Ally, the former of whom had been trained in sign-language by Dr. Herbert Terrace, of Columbia University, and others, in a widely-publicised and highly controversial project.

News of the transfer of the chimpanzees to the Laboratory for Experimental Medicine and Surgery in Primates, New York University, was carried in late May on the CBS Television "Nightly News," and circulated on the major newspaper wire services. For several days, Dr. McGreal's phone seldom stopped ringing: callers wanted to know what to do to help Nim and Ally. Specific suggestions were offered (e.g. protest to the University of Oklahoma and the Governor of Oklahoma), and the attention of callers was drawn to the plight of all captive chimpanzees. The result was somewhat discouraging. People clearly thought of the now-adult Nim and Ally as cute cuddly babies (and the news media only ran photos taken many years ago of the animals with their trainers). They appeared unable to grasp the problems of handling adult wild animals with many times the strength of humans. One example is illustrative. The attention of a caller from Louisiana was drawn to the large colonies of research chimpanzees maintained at the Gulf South Institute and the Delta Primate Center in her own state. The lady commented, "But they can't talk." IPPL considers that ANY chimpanzee, regardless of its "educational qualifications," merits human concern.

The Primate Foundation, a chimpanzee sanctuary in Arizona, received over 200 telephone calls from people all over the nation concerned about Nim. The Foundation houses over 40 chimpanzees and has no room or funds to accept new animals. Only one of the callers subsequently sent a donation to the sanctuary, which prompted its Executive Secretary, Jo Fritz, to comment:

The public reaction toward a chimpanzee, who was previously a single animal involved in research and has once again become a single animal involved in research, is puzzling. The outcry seems to be that this chimpanzee can make signs that humans, knowledgeable in the language, can interpret. Is the public showing the "Ugly American" attitude that everyone must speak our language before they are considered intelligent? Interestingly enough, we certainly have not done as well in imitating or actually understanding the chimpanzees' language as they have done with ours. However, today the big question is: Do we give regard to that which is more in our likeness and disregard those who have not had the "opportunity" to attend "English as a second language class", or are further from our image? It would appear that Nim has been singled out for this reason, not because he, as a chimpanzee, is a magnificent animal in his own right. The plight of the captive chimpanzee has become public knowledge with the difficulty of finding Nim a "suitable" long-term home, yet there has been no major public uproar for all chimpanzees.

Following the adverse publicity, New York University shipped Nim and Ally back to Oklahoma. The "non-signing" chimpanzees and the "non-famous" signing chimpanzees remain at the New York laboratory.

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**CONFISCATED BABOON SENT TO PRIMATE CENTER**

The U. S. Customs Service News Digest (12 May 1982) proudly boasted that U. S. Customs Officers had confiscated a "terrified baby baboon" which had been smuggled to New Orleans by ship, and had sent it to a "safe home" — the Delta Primate Center in Covington, Louisiana.

IPPL questions how "safe" a "home" the Delta Primate Center is for this or any other primate. In 1981, its Necropsy Laboratory autopsied no less than 515 monkeys that had died of been killed at the Center. Twenty-two of the 45 baboons owned by the Center had been killed in disease studies. All the baboons were listed in the Center's 1981 Annual Report as belonging to the "Research Colony" and none to the "Breeding Colony."

In a letter to IPPL dated 7 September 1982, William H. Russell, Controller of Customs, stated that the baby baboon was:

taken to the Delta Primate Center where it could be given a surrogate mother from an existing colony of baboons used for breeding purposes [Emphasis added]. We do appreciate your concern regarding this baby baboon and, while it may not appear so to the public, we too are concerned with the humane treatment and safe disposition of animals.

IPPL considers that sending confiscated animals to experimental facilities is unwarranted and not in the best interests of the animals.

Please address your comments about the placement of this animal, along with your opinion on the desirability of sending confiscated primates to facilities known to be performing harmful research on primates, to:

The Commissioner of Customs
Washington, D. C. 20229, U.S.A.
CHIMPANZEEs KILLED IN HEAD INJURY STUDIES

When the lawyer defending Edward Taub at his retrial on charges of criminal cruelty to monkeys announced the provisional list of defense witnesses, animal welfare activists did a literature search on each person named, suspecting that the kind of person who would defend a person charged with cruelty to primates may well have been engaged in cruel research himself. In the case of one experimentalist, this was certainly true.

The person in question is Dr. Ayub Ommaya, who used to hold a position at the National Institute of Neurological Diseases at the U.S. National Institutes of Health. Ommaya, who had been involved for about 20 years in experiments involving the production of severe head and neck injuries in several primate species, including Rhesus monkeys, squirrel monkeys, and, almost incredibly, chimpanzees.

One particularly gruesome experiment occurred in 1973 and involved smashing ten awake, conscious chimpanzees in the head with impact forces up to 4000 pounds. Even though this experiment occurred nine years ago, we are printing extracts because they clearly refute the arguments of those who say that there should be no laws restricting experimentalists' freedom to treat animals as inhumanely as they wish, and because Dr. Ommaya may well still be involved in, or attempt to pursue, similar studies.

Extracts from Ommaya's article "Head Injury in the Chimpanzee: Biodynamics of Traumatic Unconsciousness" published in the Journal of Neurology (August 1973) follow.

Eleven male and female chimpanzees, 25 to 56 kg, were used. A specially constructed chair made of 2 in. stainless steel pipe was used for animal restraint. Plaster of Paris casts ensured adequate immobilization of the elbow and ankle joints...In the final seated position, the animal had complete freedom of movement of head and shoulders.

The chimpanzees were kept totally free of drugs for 24 hours before being smashed in the head: hence they were fully conscious. The next step in the experiment was the administration of the impact:

Head injury was produced in 10 of the 11 animals by means of a Hy-G device powered by compressed air and modified for our purpose...impact forces up to 4,000 lbs. could be delivered with satisfactory reliability. Occipital [rear of the skull] impacts were given to 10 of the 11 animals. One control animal was carried through the experimental protocol including electrode implantation without head injury.

Since the purpose of the experiment was essentially to see what happened, high-speed movie film was taken to record the crashes. An experimenter armed with a Super-8 movie camera took close-up pictures of the unfortunate chimpanzees, with "rapid changes of camera angle." At 2½ hours to 3 days after head injury, the surviving animals were "sacrificed." Autopsies were performed to detect "skull fractures and cerebral hemorrhages, hematomas, and contusions."

The section of the article entitled "Results" provides specific details of the damage caused by the head impacts. Five of the chimpanzees were rendered unconscious for periods ranging from 153 to 285 seconds. Of these five animals, three had been struck more than once after the first blow failed to produce unconsciousness. Two animals did not become unconscious but were "stunned," i.e. "they responded to stimuli slowly and in a dazed manner but did not lose reflex responses or muscular tone." One animal survived only 25 minutes. The final impact produced "immediate flaccidity, brief facial twitching, and death." This chimpanzee had been hit on the head four times.

The dead animals were autopsied for "pathological observations." Massive head injuries were unsurprisingly found in all impacted animals. These included such lesions as "massive right hemisphere hemotoma," "cerebral edema," "extensive compound depressed fracture in occipitoparietal region," "contusions of cerebellar lobes," "massive left hemisphere hemotoma with rupture into ventricular system," "hemorrhage extending over entire base of brain and cervical spinal cord," and a variety of other injuries.

Ommaya and his colleagues commented that some of their "findings" from this experiment were not the same as their findings with Rhesus monkeys, which raises the question of whether it is possible to extrapolate from monkey or chimpanzee to man when one can't even extrapolate from one primate species to another. The researchers also reported that "the increasing duration of traumatic unconsciousness paralleled a trend toward increasing severity of brain injury."

At no point in the article is the severe pain and discomfort that the chimpanzees must have endured even mentioned, nor is the administration of any pain-killing drug.

READERS WISHING TO PROVIDE DR. OMMAYA WITH THEIR PERSPECTIVE ON THIS EXPERIMENT MAY REACH HIM AT 8901 BURNING TREE ROAD, BETHESDA, MD 20034.

FOLLOW-UP ON FORT DETRICK MONKEYS

IPPL members, appalled by revelations in the May 1982 IPPL Newsletter of abuse of monkeys in experimentation on potential biological warfare agents, deluged the offices of Governor Harry Hughes of Maryland and the U.S. Secretary of Defense with protests.

As expected, the Department of Defense attempted to "whitewash" both the experimentation and the mistreatment of the monkeys.

Two of Governor Hughes' staff, veterinarian Raymond Ediger and attorney Ben Bialek, visited Fort Detrick to discuss the situation with laboratory officials. According to a 26 August 1982 letter from Governor Hughes to IPPL:

While acknowledging that some accidents with subhuman | sic | primates occurred in 1979-80, the USAMRIID officials indicated that monkey deaths arose from problems associated with early experimental use of restraint chairs, use of the crab-eating monkey in experiments and from the specific disease being studied.

However, monkey restraint chairs have been in use since the 1940s: the crab-eating macaque is not new to experimentation: and many of the dead animals were Rhesus or vervets, longtime laboratory primates.

Mr. Ben Bialek, Assistant Legislative Officer to Governor Hughes, informed IPPL that the State of Maryland would be without jurisdiction to enforce its anti-cruelty laws on behalf of the Fort Detrick monkeys since the State of Maryland had ceded jurisdiction over Fort Detrick to the U.S. Government. Thus, the question of whether the treatment of monkeys at Fort Detrick would constitute a violation of Maryland law remains an open question.

IPPL hopes that our exposé of the research activities and abuse of primates at Fort Detrick, while it will neither bring the dead monkeys back to life nor lead to action against the perpetrators, may deter future mistreatment of primates at this facility. We thank all those members who took the time to make their feelings known on this issue.
INDIAN RHESUS POPULATION DECLINES

The Zoological Survey of India has recently conducted a thorough survey of the country’s Rhesus macaque population and has come up with the alarming estimate of a total population of somewhere between 180,000 and 250,000 animals.

Dr. Charles Southwick of the University of Colorado, who has studied Rhesus monkey demography for many years, considers that the Indian Rhesus population now stands between 140,000 and 200,000 animals, an alarming decline. This decline has been brought about by many factors: the massive export trade from the late 1950s until 1978; loss of, or degradation of, habitat; and a lessening of the traditional tolerance of Indians for mischievous or crop-raiding animals.

IPPL and its Indian Representatives played a major role in securing the 1978 export ban. Clearly, if the ban had not been implemented, the situation of the Rhesus monkeys of India would be of even greater concern.

LORISES USED AT INDIAN VILLAGE FAIRS

In South India, slender lorises are often exploited at village fairs. Vendors sell small colored ropes to be put around the waists of human babies. Before the rope is handed to the purchaser, it is passed through the hand of the loris, which is tied on top of the vendor’s box. The rope is supposed to be an antidote to lethargy and sickness among infants.

Besides depleting wild populations, the practice condemns lorises to lead unnatural lives. They may be fed an inappropriate diet by their captors as well as be subjected to teasing by humans.

STUMPTAIL MONKEYS GET A NEW HOME

Thanks to the efforts of the St. Andrew Animal Fund (Edinburgh, Scotland) and IPPL's U.K. branch, a home has been found for 17 stump-tail macaques that had been used in psychological experiments at the University of Stirling, Scotland. The organizations raised over £10,000 ($25,000 U.S.) to build the animals a cage at the Edinburgh Zoo.

IPPL thanks Clive Hollands, Secretary of the St. Andrew Animal Fund, Cyril Rosen of IPPL (U.K.) and Mr. Roger Wheater, Director of the Edinburgh Zoo, for ensuring that these monkeys, some behaviorally aberrant as a result of the experiments performed on them, will have a good home for the rest of their lives.

LEPROSY CASE IN MANGABEY

When a wild-caught mangabey Cercocebus atys involved in a high-cholesterol diet study at the Gulf South Institute in New Iberia, Louisiana, U.S.A. developed leprosy, experimenters seized on the opportunity to develop the mangabey as a “primate model” of this disease to replace the armadillo. The animal was shipped to the Delta Primate Center in Covington, Louisiana. Delta obtained more mangabeys from the Yerkes Primate Center. It inoculated material from the facial lesions of the infected mangabey into two other animals, which developed leprosy. Then material from a human leprosy patient was passed through an armadillo, and inoculated into two additional mangabeys, which also developed leprosy.

TAUB RE-CONVICTED

Edward Taub, the psychologist convicted by a judge of cruelty to the monkeys in his Silver Spring laboratory, was convicted again at his retrial by a jury. He was fined $500.

The monkeys are still housed at the National Institutes of Health facility in Poolesville, Maryland. A lawsuit filed jointly by People for Ethical Treatment of Animals and the International Primate Protection League for custody of the monkeys awaits court action.
HUMAN GENITAL HERPES CASES IN YERKES CHIMPANZEEs

Three chimpanzees Pan troglodytes and two Pigmy chimpanzees Pan paniscus at the Yerkes Primate Center in Atlanta, Georgia, U.S.A. have developed cases of human genital herpes, a disease which has assumed epidemic proportions in the United States in recent years. A display poster on exhibit in the Center’s main facility asserts that the herpes developed “spontaneously.”

Some virologists ridicule this explanation. Yerkes scientists, asked to explain the outbreak at the recent Atlanta Congress of the International Primatological Society, proposed two further explanations: transmission of the virus by a Coca-Cola bottle and contamination of chimpanzees during a stay at Atlanta Zoo!

The Yerkes Primate Center publicity office, which loves to publicize occurences of previously-unseen diseases in primates as new “animal models” of human disease, has been strangely silent about the human genital herpes outbreak!

EXTRACTION OR REDUCTION?

Many primates have formidable canine teeth that can cause serious injury to humans and other animals. These species include baboons, gibbons, and macaques. In the past, the problem was often solved by extraction of all four canine teeth.

In general, it is best to allow an animal to keep its canines intact. However, there are occasions when something may have to be done about the problem (e.g. an animal attacking cagemates). Dr. Edward Shagam, an orthodontist from Mount Holly, New Jersey, specializes in zoological dentistry. His comments on this question follow:

I usually advise against removing canines unless absolutely necessary. I feel this way because without the tooth the alveolar bone in the area of the extraction site atrophies, which could cause not only a change in facial configuration due to lip drape, but, in some cases, a loss of social structure status in the animal’s community due to a lack of desire to fully defend. Therefore, canine reduction is the treatment of choice, which reduces some of the danger in handling while allowing the animal to continue with a complete dentition for alveolar stimulation and psychological well-being.

NEWS FROM INDONESIA

According to the Indonesian Nature and Science Newsletter (January 1982), many forest areas of the island of Sulawesi, Indonesia, (formerly known as the Celebes) have been utilized for commercial purposes. Trees were even cut down in nature preserves. As a result, several species of wild animals, including the Black monkey Macaca nigra, a species found only on Sulawesi, are threatened with extinction. Mr. Yahya Maulana, Director of Wildlife for Sulawesi, stated that the Lore-Lindu Nature Reserve in the center of the island would soon be established as a National Park.

The Newsletter also reports that several “protected” animals were confiscated in 1980 by government wildlife officials of Kalimantan (Indonesian Borneo). These included 6 orang-utans and 4 gibbons. Several of the animals were released in the Kutai Nature Reserve. Some of the animals were seized by Customs officials from foreign ships calling at East Kalimantan ports. Others were being kept as pets by residents of Samarinda and Bantong.
DISCORD MARS INTERNATIONAL PRIMATOLOGICAL SOCIETY MEETING

The International Primatological Society held its biennial conference in Atlanta, Georgia, U.S.A. from 8-14 August 1982. The Yerkes Primate Center was the official “host” for the conference.

However, Yerkes proved less than a hospitable host to the hundreds of primatologists who converged on Atlanta from all over the world.

Yerkes offered “tours” of its main facility, language center and field station. Before entering each facility, visitors were stripped of their cameras (ironical since Yerkes encourages reporters planning flattering stories to bring their cameras!). One person protesting this indignity was told by a glowing Dr. Frederick King, the Yerkes Director, to give up his camera or else “get back on the bus.” As it happened, the tour was a farce and there would have been nothing to photograph anyway! At the main facility, VISITORS NEVER SAW A SINGLE MONKEY OR A SINGLE ANIMAL INVOLVED IN AN EXPERIMENT. Instead, they were shown wall posters describing experiments. One poster showed a close-up of a monster baby monkey produced in a drug experiment. (Thirty monster monkey babies were created to serve as “models” for surgeons but no surgeon wanted to spend time repairing the deformed animals). Another poster showed a close-up of the penis of a chimpanzee that had become infected with human genital herpes. Besides the posters, visitors saw only a handful of baby apes in grim steel-barred cages.

Two visitors wanting to see the great ape housing were told by a Yerkes employee that they could see the cages from a grassy knoll outside the center. However, when the visitors (S. McGreal and a medical doctor from Florida) climbed the hill, they were dragged down by Yerkes employees, but not before they caught a glimpse of the ghastly and disgraceful row of tiny cages where so many gorillas, orang-utans and chimpanzees are living lives of misery.

Visitors to the Language Center (which houses a few chimpanzees used by the Rumbaugh-Savage team) were forced to submit to similar indignities. However, the scientists associated with the Field Station, most of whom study primate behavior, were friendly and informative, and expressed embarrassment over having to take cameras away from visitors.

The conference agenda included an evening symposium to “honor” the late Harry Harlow, who developed infant deprivation as a field of primate research, and whose graduate students have “metastasized” all over the country, each devising his own special techniques to inflict despair, madness, and grief on primates. On the day of the symposium, demonstrators carrying “primates’ rights” signs picketed the Colony Square Hotel. The demonstration received excellent television publicity, but was totally ignored by the Atlanta newspapers, both owned by the same publisher and both of which refuse to publish a word critical of Yerkes.

Before the evening symposium, which was to be addressed by 5 male “deprivilogists,” members of the audience were handed a pamphlet asking “Whom do you honor?” prepared by Mobilization for Animals. The leaflet contained photos of deprived baby monkeys in Harlow-style gadgets like the “pit of despair,” a picture of a “monster mother” bashing in its baby’s head, etc. The pamphlet’s text consisted of extracts from Harlow’s publications (e.g. “We built a surrogate mother that would rock so violently that the baby’s head and teeth would rattle,” “we built our porcupine mother: on command this mother would eject brass spikes all over the ventral surface of its body,” “In our study of psychopathology, we began as sadists trying to produce abnormality.”) The leaflet stated that, “We believe that Harlow’s work illustrates a lack of ethical consideration and judgement so enormous that it must be condemned, not honored.”

The Yerkes Primate Center was disturbed that anyone should question Harlow’s work. Special “security men” were hired to “handle” the leafleters. One of the goons weighed over 300 pounds and reacted with amusement when a demonstrator suggested he carry Harlow’s prototype Snoop off the platform to continue his tedious lecture from the hotel swimming pool. One young leafetter was threatened by an elderly researcher who started shouting hysterically, “You dirty little punk! I worked with Harlow for years and I’d like to punch your nose in!”

Dr. Frederick King observed the incident: he was grinning gleefully and made no attempt to intervene to protect the rights of a demonstrator peacefully using his democratic right of free expression.

Are the Yerkes Primate Center primates in good hands? One wonders. Totally hidden from public and professional view (apart from a few insiders and “tame” media types) by an apparently paranoid administration, they live their entire lives at the mercy of the authoritarian and secretive Dr. King and his henchmen.

DISPUTE OVER MONKEY ISLAND PLANS

Residents of Key Largo, Florida, U.S.A. have organized a group called Preserve Rodriguez Key to try to prevent the establishment of a monkey research and breeding colony on Rodriguez Key, a beautiful small island 1.5 kilometers off the coast of Florida. Initial plans called for construction of cages to house 7,000 monkeys.

The organizer of the project is a Mr. Melvin Laney, whose background is unclear although some key residents believe he is associated with the Charles River Company. The Charles River Company currently operates two Rhesus monkey island breeding projects off the coast of Florida (Loggerhead Key, also known as Key Lois, and Raccoon Key).

In May 1982, Mr. Laney applied for permission from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers to convert a rusting submerge barge (currently home to many tropical fish) into a dock. Fearing that this would be the first step towards establishment of the monkey colony, Preserve Rodriguez Key purchased the barge.

Barney Whitener, President of Preserve Rodriguez Key, considers that the establishment of a monkey research colony on the island would “completely destroy the area” which is currently home to large numbers of sea-birds. He notes that aerial photographs show that the monkeys on Loggerhead (Lois) and Raccoon Keys have completely destroyed these islands’ vegetation.

Whitener also feared that a hurricane would destroy the monkeys. The island is low-lying and consists of 150 acres of mangroves. It is sometimes completely under water at high tides in stormy weather. Laney claims that the monkeys’ cages would be on pilings, and thus safe. IPPL considers it more likely that, even if the waves did not submerge the cages, the cages could be swept away and become tombs for the incarcerated monkeys.

Whitener has also suggested that, since parts of Rodriguez Key project into the John Pennekamp State Park at low tide, the State of Florida should acquire the island and add it to the park.

Members interested in Preserve Rodriguez Key’s work may contact:

Preserve Rodriguez Key
The Harborage
Key Largo, FL 33037, U.S.A.
BANGLADESH MONKEY DISPUTE MAKES LAWYERS RICH

The IPPL Newsletter (May 1982) reported on the harassment to which the impoverished nation of Bangladesh has been subjected by the U. S. State Department because of its expulsion of a U. S. monkey dealer in 1979. In spite of pressures which went as far as threats to cut off "aid," Bangladesh has not permitted the resumption of monkey trading by MOL Enterprises (the Oregon company expelled in 1979) or any other dealer.

The dispute has led to 3 separate lawsuits being filed:
1) A suit filed on 12 October 1981 by Bert Vieceli, a former MOL employee who had negotiated the original contract and sought its implementation in the course of 68 visits to Bangladesh in 1976 and 1977. The suit demanded that MOL Enterprises implement its monkey-export contract with Bangladesh but demanded no compensation.
2) An "anti-trust" and "unfair competition" suit filed by MOL Enterprises on 10 May 1982 against Hazleton Laboratories Corporation. Hazleton is one of the major importers of non-human primates to the United States, running the company "Primalabs." The suit claims that officials of Hazleton entered into a conspiracy to "eliminate plaintiff as a competitor in the market for the sale of Rhesus monkeys for medical research" by seeking for itself "exclusive access to importation of Rhesus monkeys from the nation of Bangladesh." Further, "pursuant to said conspiracy, defendants thereafter bribed and deceived officials of Bangladesh in order to secure the officials' willingness and agreement to cancel the contract between plaintiff MOL and Bangladesh." In addition, according to the suit, Hazleton officials allegedly "falsely disparaged plaintiff's integrity, business reputation, import abilities, and contract performance." MOL requested damages totaling 70 million U. S. dollars, plus attorneys' fees.

As of the time of writing (September 1982) Bangladesh is adhering to its policy of legal protection for monkeys. IPPL thanks our members for the many letters they have written to help save the lives of the 71,000 monkeys under dispute. These letters have had a positive impact. Ms. Nancy Kinney recently received an encouraging reply to her letter to General H. M. Ershad, Chief of State of Bangladesh. The General noted that he had received many letters on the monkey issue and appreciated her concern for the monkeys of Bangladesh "even if it is half the world away from you." He noted that the Rhesus monkey population of Bangladesh is threatened with extinction and that, "Like you, I believe in life and freedom for God's creations."

BOOK REVIEW

by Lynn Dolwick

**EXTINCTION: THE CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF THE DISAPPEARANCE OF SPECIES**
by Paul and Anne Ehrlich.

Extinction is an urgent plea to mankind to stop the destruction of nonhuman organisms now, before an irreversible catastrophe befalls humanity and puts an end to civilization as we know it. Although extinctions have always occurred naturally, species are now disappearing much more rapidly than new ones are being formed. By the year 2000 a short 18 years away, as many as one-fifth of the species on earth may have been exterminated. The Ehrlichs cite four prime arguments for saving other species. The first three — compassion for other living things, intrinsic interest, economic value — are easily understood by most people. For those who are not moved by these reasons, the fourth argument may prove persuasive because human survival is at stake. It concerns the indirect benefits provided by other species that humans require in order to survive. The authors explain how natural ecosystems support human life "through an array of absolutely essential, free public services," which cannot be assessed in monetary terms. They include cleansing the atmosphere of impurities and providing oxygen, controlling the climate, providing fresh water and fertile soils, breaking down waste products, biological pest control, and pollination. It is a mistake to believe that natural ecosystem services can readily be replaced by man-managed systems. They require very large amounts of capital, energy, materials, manpower and especially an understanding of all the complex interactions that take place in the ecosystem. "How will these essential services be compromised by extinctions?" the authors ask.

Other species also provide us with more obvious, direct benefits, which we need to survive. Plants contain chemicals that are effective in treating many diseases. Investigation of the medicinal potential of plants has barely begun, and yet the tropical rain forests, which contain the largest "reservoirs" of higher plant species, are being destroyed at the rate of 25 acres per minute. Many plants will be exterminated before they can be investigated, and future generations will be robbed of their potential benefits.

Food is the greatest direct benefit man derives from other organisms. The domesticated plants and animals that we use for food have been bred over the centuries from wild species. Wild plants are always evolving better ways to resist the pests that attack them, and these desirable genetic characteristics are infused into their domestic cousins through plant breeding. With the destruction of natural areas, countless plants and their irreplaceable genetic raw material, that might have been developed as crops, are also destroyed.

Man endangers other life forms through overexploitation for furs and products, the wildlife trade, predator poisoning, paving, plowing, digging, drying, blowing up, cutting down, spraying, and even recreation. The illegal traffic in wildlife is a multi-million dollar business in the United States alone, and this does not include plants or products made from endangered materials. Smugglers are rarely caught and the penalties are insignificant.

What can we do? Good protective laws exist but they, too, are threatened under the present U. S. administration. The Clean Air Act is being assailed by the "dirty air coalition," a group of congressmen backed by the polluting industries and the Reagan Administration.

Despite the book's predictions of disaster, its message is not one of total hopelessness. The authors have developed a conservation strategy by which we can save ourselves and the other creatures of our world. It calls for international cooperation in population control, preservation of sizable habitats containing intact ecosystems, and limits to economic growth.

If you sometimes feel overwhelmed while battling the destroyers, read Extinction and your commitment will be renewed. Our beautiful world is fighting for its life and all the life it contains. It needs our help now more than ever.
CHILDREN OF THE GODS
by Cyril Rosen
Mr. Rosen represents IPPL in the United Kingdom

There are still small areas, pockets of tradition, where old ways survive to the benefit of humans and animals. Such a tradition may be found at the twin villages of Boabeng Fiema in Ghana, West Africa. Wildlife here is under no pressure from humans. In these villages the animals are cherished for religious reasons.

Each spring, the people of Boabeng Fiema celebrate in honor of their god, Daworah, the Spirit of the Stream. The stream is sacred and so are the forest and its animals. The result is an almost-virgin forest and a wildlife population virtually unchanged since before the coming of Man.

Two species of monkeys live here, the Colobus and the Mona guenon. They have derived great benefit from the human respect for their forest. The villagers have even set up their own monkey sanctuary run by Mr. Akowuah. Mr. Akowuah was born in Boabeng Fiema and has the highest regard for his monkey charges. He has a special relationship with “Tokto,” a Mona monkey whose territory borders Mr. Akowuah’s house. Although completely wild, Toko shows no fear of the Akowuah family and commonly visits them to feed on fruit specially left out for him.

Last year, a young Mona monkey was killed by a wandering hunter. The poacher was caught and fined. In these villages, the monkeys are regarded as the stream god’s children and the Mona was buried with honor. The monkey’s body is wrapped in calico and sheepskin before being placed in a miniature coffin. A libation is poured in the presence of the elders and the god Daworah is begged for forgiveness for the murder of one of his offspring. Only the sons of the Chief are permitted to carry the coffin to the graveyard where it is buried with full ritual.

At Boabeng Fiema we learn how man and animals can live together in harmony to their mutual benefit. Because the forest is protected, the stream continues to thrive and the region remains fertile.

IPPL has bestowed an Honorary Life Membership on Mr. Akowuah, and, as a thank-you from the monkeys of the forest, we have donated 4 mattresses for the comfort of future visitors to these remarkable villages. These mattresses were specially made to fit local beds and were donated by IPPL member Sister Mayenne Bell of Sheffield. British Caledonian Airways generously conveyed the mattresses free of charge from London to Accra. Valerie Sackey, IPPL’s Ghana Representative, arranged their forwarding to Boabeng Fiema.

MAN THE PREDATOR

The Malden Evening News, (13 July) published an account of experiments conducted at Tufts University in Medford, Massachusetts, U.S.A. by Klaus Miczek, a psychologist.

Miczek specializes in studies of “animal aggression” and the effects of psychoactive drugs on animals. Some of the experiments involve adding a strange animal to a cage containing an established social group. The primates used are squirrel monkeys. Drugs such as marijuana were administered to the monkeys (it made them less aggressive), amphetamines (which caused “bizarre behavior” such as jerky movements, turning in circles, and finger-shaking), “angel dust” (which seemed to provoke attacks from other animals), and alcohol, (which showed “what the layman has known for a long time,” i.e. that it can enhance aggression at low to moderate doses, and depress aggression at higher doses).

According to the News, Miczek “cautions against extrapolating the conclusions of his various studies directly to humans.” He also stated that life in the laboratory (for the monkey) is better than life in the wild, because:

The conditions that we create for the animals here are better than nature. There are no torrential rainstorms. The animals are totally provisioned and cared for every single day. They don’t have to undergo periods of starvation. And, best of all, there are no predators.

Miczek appears ignorant of the fact that the tropical rain forests provide a rich variety of food for primates.

Ms. Elaine Nazzaro, an IPPL member, in a letter published in the Malden News on 23 July 1982, denounced the use of primates in studies of aggression and drug abuse. She noted that, “People that have drug and alcohol problems have voluntarily used these substances: they have not been forced to take them in a confined enclosure against their will.” She suggested that Miczek should attend meetings of Alcoholics Anonymous to learn about the effects of alcohol on people, but noted that, “he wouldn’t get any federal grant money for this.”

(Miczek is funded by the National Institute of Alcohol and Drug Abuse). Experimentation into the effects of “recreational drugs” on animals is an increasingly popular area for research; it is not clear where the experimentalists are getting their “controlled substances” and how much, if any, is leaking out of the laboratories.

Ms. Nazzaro disputed Miczek’s claim that, “there are no predators” in the laboratory, commenting that, “I think Mr. Miczek is a very dangerous predator.”

MALAYSIAN GROUP CALLS FOR MONKEY EXPORT BAN

Encik S. M. Mohammed Idris, President of Friends of the Earth (Malaysia) has called for a total ban on monkey exports. He drew attention to the fact that Malaysian dealers are selling monkeys for $15-26 (U.S.) per animal, and that U.S. dealers then resell the monkeys for $250-300 (U.S.).

Referring to U.S. threats to cut off “aid” to Bangladesh unless it exports monkeys, Idris commented, “What the U.S. did recently was to threaten to starve this densely-populated country of peace-loving Muslims, just because Bangladesh granted protection to its threatened wildlife.”

Idris noted that there is no accurate population data about Malaysia’s monkey populations. He stated that:

The Bangladesh experience is a lesson to learn for all developing countries. This shows how a country like the United States will bully a small country over an issue like monkeys. Monkeys are protected in most parts of the world — yet the attraction of money can even change policies of governments.

Following Idris’ statement, which received wide publicity in the Malaysian press, a defense of the monkey trade and monkey exploitation supposedly written by Dr. Nordin Hassan of the University Kebangsaan Malaysia appeared in the New Sunday Times, (25 July 1982). Dr. Hassan was involved in the now-defunct “Malaysian Primate Research Program” funded by the U.S. National Cancer Institute. Hassan’s article consisted of long, unattributed passages copied from the U.S. National Primate Plan and a recent WHO pro-primate exploitation statement, and concluded that, “There are (sic) adequate legislation in Malaysia to effectively control and regulate the trade in primates.” It appears that Hassan is being well-rewarded for his anti-primate statements, which have so endeared him to foreign primate-using interests that he has recently received trips to Switzerland and the United States.
The purpose of this report is to provide information indispensable for the control and prevention of possible future attempts to import apes illegally to Japan by study of importations that occurred during the ten years prior to Japan's joining the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES) in November 1980. Among the aspects studied were the number of apes imported, the origin of the apes, and the uses to which the animals, especially the chimpanzees, were put.

Japan is a major importer of nonhuman primates and has been the largest importer of apes since the United States began to regulate such trade through its Endangered Species Act and CITES. This study reflects the growing interest of Japanese primatologists in conservation. Although we would have liked to include all nonhuman primates in our project, for the moment we have limited our study to anthropoid apes, (gibbons, orangutans, chimpanzees, and gibbon).

INFORMATION SOURCES

Our project, which is financially supported by the World Wildlife Fund (Japan), is collecting data on the number of imported apes, their sex and age, origin (wild-caught or captive-bred), death rate (from importer to destination), country of origin, port of shipment, dealers involved, and purpose of import.

The import statistics provided in Japanese Exports and Imports by Commodity and Country, published by the Japanese Tariff Association, are compiled by the Customs Bureau of the Ministry of Finance. They include a section on "saru" (monkeys and apes), which gives the monthly number of nonhuman primates imported. However, these tables are of limited utility as all primate species are lumped together rather than grouped according to species.

Importers are required to submit a copy of their invoices to the Ministry of International Trade and Industry. If it were possible to study these documents, details of species involved in individual shipments could be determined. However, these documents are considered secret and are not available to the public. Even if they were available, considerable time and effort would be required to analyze them.

On two occasions in the past, the Quarantine Section of the Ministry of Public Welfare compiled import statistics for monkeys and apes, because nonhuman primates share some infectious diseases and parasites with humans. The first compilation occurred at Haneda Airport Quarantine Station, and the second at Narita International Airport. (After the opening of Narita Airport in 1978, most international flights were switched from Haneda to Narita.)

The first statistics, compiled at Haneda, cover the 15-month period from January 1971 to March 1972. They contain information on the species, number, country of origin and port of embarkation of imported primates. However, the report on the total number of primates imported by each dealer does not specify the numbers of each species imported in most cases. Hence, it is not clear which dealer(s) handled apes apart from gorillas. Table I summarizes the Haneda statistics.

The Narita Airport Quarantine Station tabulated primate imports from January 1979 to December 1980 as a yellow fever control measure. We compared the statistical data with the raw data (health certificates) and adjusted the statistical table to include some unrecorded animals. Table 2 summarizes the Narita statistics.

In order to determine the actual use of imported apes, we decided to make enquiries of animal dealers. For this purpose, we obtained a list of animal importers from the president of the Japanese Animal Importers' Association (JAIA). The dealers are listed in Table 3.

Uses of the imported apes fall into three categories: 1) medical and psychological experimentation; 2) exhibition at zoos and circuses, and 3) the pet trade. Dr. Shigeo Honjo is preparing a report on the first aspect, and we did not study it in detail. It is difficult to collect information on the pet trade: we plan to look into this next year by means of a survey.

The Japanese Association of Zoological Gardens and Aquariums (JAZGA) lists the number of each species kept by its member institutions in its Journal. Table 4 shows the ape holdings of these institutions over the period 1971-80. In addition, JAZGA published a report on non-affiliated institutions which kept wild animals: this data also appears in Table 4.

NUMBERS IMPORTED

During the 15-month period in 1971-72 for which figures were kept by health authorities, 17 gorillas, 49 chimpanzees, and 6 gibbons passed through Haneda Airport. During the two-year period (1979-80) for which figures were kept at Narita, 4 gorillas, 30 chimpanzees, and 74 gibbons were imported (see Table 2).

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Table 1. Import of Apes to Japan: Jan 1971 - Mar 1972 (Quarantine Section, Haneda Airport)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Port of Shipment</th>
<th>Reported Country of Origin</th>
<th>Consignee</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gibbon</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>?Chugoku Shokuhin</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chimpanzee</td>
<td>Freetown</td>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Aritake Chojuten</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amsterdam, Netherlands</td>
<td>Cameroun</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Miami, USA</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Kenya</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>Gorilla</td>
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<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>Aritake Chojuten</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td>Cameroun</td>
<td>Keihin Chou Boeki</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td></td>
<td>Aritake Chojuten</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
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<td>17</td>
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Table 2. Import of Apes to Japan: Jan 1979 - Dec 1980 (Quarantine Section, Narita Airport)

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<td>17</td>
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</table>
Although no figures are available for the period April 1972-December 1978, Dr. Geza Teleki has been able to provide information on the numbers of chimpanzees shipped from Sierra Leone, West Africa, to Japan. During the 5-year period 1973-1977, 190 infant chimpanzees were shipped (for an average of 38 per year). Other possible sources of chimpanzees may have been Liberia and the Cameroun; often, these animals would be transshipped through the Netherlands.

Since infant chimpanzees are normally caught by killing the mother, and the infants frequently die of capture-related trauma, at least twice, and probably many times more, chimpanzees died to provide these animals. In addition, a large number of captured chimpanzees probably died prior to shipment. The annual export of approximately 38 infant chimpanzees from Freetown to Japan probably represented an actual loss of 100-300 chimpanzees. A population of 100 chimpanzees is equivalent to 2 large-sized units of chimpanzees. At this rate of exploitation, the whole chimpanzee population of Tanzania (about 2,000 according to a study by T. Kano) could become extinct within 20 years.

For the gorilla, now facing extinction and also caught by mother-killing (and often the killing of entire groups to obtain the babies), the number of animals imported (17 in 15 months of 1971-72) represents a serious threat.

The trade in gibbons requires special attention. There was a dramatic increase in importations between 1971-72 (6 reported animals) and 1979-80 (74 animals). It is highly likely that a new smuggling itinerary was established in the interval between these periods, but, until the final disposition of the gibbons becomes known, the reasons for the increase are unclear.

When we asked the president of the Japanese Animal Importers' Association about imports of apes, he answered that they imported 14 and 52 (total 66) chimpanzees in 1979 and 1980 respectively: 2 and 6 (8) gorillas, and 20 and 43 (63) gibbons. In the case of chimpanzees and gorillas, the number of animals reportedly imported exceeded the numbers reported at Narita Airport by more than 100 percent. According to officials of the Narita Airport Quarantine Station, the import of monkeys and apes to Japan is mainly by air, and the import via Haneda Airport in 1979-80 was limited to few, if any, Formosan macc Raus from Taiwan. Two possible reasons for these discrepancies are 1) that chimpanzees and gorillas were mostly imported by airports other than Haneda or Narita or via sea or 2) that they were imported under the names of other primates (false declaration, a common wildlife smugglers' trick). This point has not been clarified yet.

Oddly, the sole consignees of chimpanzees (Kasho Company and Koizumi African Safari) recorded at Narita Airport (Table 2) are NOT members of the Animal Importers' Association. If these names are not pseudonyms for JAIA members, then it appears probable that 66 + 30 chimpanzees, 8 + 4 gorillas and 63 + 32 gibbons were imported in 1979-80. [Editor's note: IPPL has received several unsubstantiated reports of orang-utans being smuggled by sea to Japan on logging company ships operating around the island of Borneo.]

**SOURCE OF ANIMALS**

**Chimpanzees**

Table I reports that, in 1971-72, 30 chimpanzees were shipped from Freetown, Sierra Leone, to Japan. Thirteen were stated to have originated in East Africa and been transshipped from Miami. These statements appear improbable because Kenya is outside the natural distribution of chimpanzees, and Tanzania has banned chimpanzee exports for many years. The remaining 6 were shipped from the Cameroun via Amsterdam to the dealer Aritake Chojuten.

We were unable to determine which dealers received the 30 chimpanzees from Sierra Leone. However, since the only dealers reported to have obtained primates from Sierra Leone in the lumped import statistics were Aritake Chojuten (65 animals) and Kawahara Choju Boeki, it appears that these dealers received the chimpanzees.

During 1979-80 (see Table 2), as many as 25 chimpanzees were reportedly shipped from Freetown by the dealer Franz Sitter to the Kasho Company. According to Dr. Geza Teleki, these animals were shipped AFTER Sierra Leone banned all export of chimpanzees.

We learned to our surprise that at least 2 rare pigmy chimpanzees had been imported to Japan. It had been thought that this species had never been imported to Japan. The export of this species from Zaire, to which its distribution is limited, is forbidden. The sole exception to this regulation occurred when President Mobutu allowed the export of 5 animals to the Yerkes Primate Center in the United States on a loan agreement. However, Dr. Takayoshi Kano of the University of the Ryukus discovered one pigmy chimpanzee kept in a travelling

| Table 2. Import of apes to Japan: Jan 1979 - Dec 1980 (Quarantine Section, Narita Airport) |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Species**                      | **Port of Shipment** | **Reported Country of Origin** | **Consignee**     | **Number** |
| Gibbon                           | Vientiane       | ?                | Aritake Chojuten | 14        |
|                                 | Vientiane       | ?                | Safeways Ltd.    | 10        |
|                                 | Vientiane       | Laos             | Keihin Choj Boeki | 6         |
|                                 | Vientiane       | ?                | Yoshioka Co. Ltd. | 20+       |
|                                 | Vientiane       | Indonesia        | Endoh Pet Imports | 12        |
|                                 | Vientiane       | Laos             | Ieshima Zoological Garden | 12+ |
| **Total**                        |                 |                  |                 | 74 (32+)  |
| Chimpanzee                       | Karachi, Pakistan | ?                | Kasho Company    | 25+       |
|                                 | Tampa, USA      | ?                | Lipko's Comedy Chimpanzees | 4+ |
|                                 | Toronto, Canada | ?                | c. o H. Uchida Company | 1+       |
| **Total**                        |                 |                  | Koizumi African Safari | 30 (30+)  |
| Gorilla                          | Vienna, Austria | ?                | Keihin Choj Boeki | 2         |
|                                 | Rome, Italy     | ?                | Yoshiika Shokai   | 1+        |
|                                 | Stuttgart, W. Germany | ?                | Aritake Chojuten | 1         |
| **Total**                        |                 |                  |                 | 4 (1+)     |

*: Imports by non-JAIA member
menagerie (AD Kikaku) in Okinawa. The zoo manager informed Dr. Kano that the animal had been obtained from a Belgian dealer with Aritake Chojuten serving as broker for the shipment.

The other individual was obtained as a cadaver from Aritake Chojuten by a researcher at Osaka University. The body was that of an infant pigmy chimpanzee. Further, a University of Tokyo student who helped us with this survey was informed by an employee of Aritake Chojuten that the dealer had a pigmy chimpanzee in stock when she happened to meet the employee by chance. Since laypersons find it difficult to tell the difference between pigmy and common chimpanzees, it is possible that the 30 chimpanzees imported in 1979-80 may have included some pigmy chimpanzees. Alternatively, the animals may have been imported under the name of some other primate species.

Dr. Geza Teleki commented on the smuggling of the chimpanzees from Zaire in a letter to Dr. Kano:

There is a fair amount of chimpanzee trade from Zaire even though this nation claims to legally restrict exports of this ape. The chimps leave Kinshasa (usually by TAP, the Portuguese airline) and go to a major wildlife dealer in the town of Waterloo in Belgium. The man’s name is René Corten, and he has a representative in Kinshasa who pays students going overseas for schooling to carry out “pet” chimpanzees. Several shipments have arrived in Belgium this year [1980] and the latest one, including 13 such “pets” was confiscated by Belgian authorities. The students of course know nothing about the legalities involved and often express surprise when customs officers in Belgium discover 3-4 infants in a small box that is supposed to contain only one legal “pet.” Corten has an import permit to bring 200 chimps into Belgium per year, most of which apparently come from Zaire, and these are sold to buyers from many countries. I would not be surprised if Japan had been getting some of its chimp supply for medical research by this illegal route, as Corten does not tell buyers how he obtained the chimps originally. I have no idea whether these shipments included any pigmy chimps.

One of the main sources of chimps going to Japan in the past has been the dealer called Franz Sitter, based in Freetown, Sierra Leone, which has now officially banned export of chimps. Nonetheless, Sitter admitted to me in May this year [1980] that he is shipping 17 chimps to the Kasha Company despite the export ban.

Gorillas

Of the 17 gorillas imported in 1971-72 (see Table 1), 14 were reported to have been “captive-born” in the Netherlands and shipped from Amsterdam: twelve of these gorillas were imported by Aritake Chojuten and 2 by Keijin Choju Boeki. [Editor’s note: the International Zoo Yearbook reports no captive births of gorillas in Dutch zoos during 1971 or 1972]. The remaining three were wild-born in the Cameroun and shipped from Amsterdam to Aritake Chojuten.

In 1979-80, 2 gorillas were shipped by the Austrian dealer Heini Demmer to Keijin Choju Boeki, and 1 each to Yoshikawa Shokai and Aritake Chojuten.

The 14 gorillas reported as having been “born in the Netherlands” in 1971-72 may have been smuggled from Central Africa to the Netherlands and transshipped from Amsterdam to Japan as “zoo-born in the Netherlands.”

Gibbons

The 6 gibbons imported in 1971-72 were reported to originate in and have been shipped from Singapore (see Table 1). Since gibbons do not inhabit Singapore, the true origin of these animals is unknown.

All the 74 gibbons imported in 1979-80 (see Table 2) were shipped from Vientiane by the “Laotian Zoo.” The consignees were Yoshioka (20 animals), Aritake Chojuten (14) Endoh Pet Imports (12), Ise-shima “Zoo,” (not a zoo but an animal dealer) (12), Safeway (10) and Keijin Choju Boeki (6). The gibbon trade was distributed among a larger number of dealers than either the gorilla or chimpanzee trade.

According to Dr. Shirley McCrell of the International Primate Protection League, the “Laotian Zoo” is not a zoo but an office of smugglers, based in Vientiane, operating the “Laos Connection.” According to Dr. McCrell, the Thai dealer collects the gibbons and other endangered wildlife totally banned from export by Thailand’s wildlife authorities, and takes them by road to Nong Khai and across the Mekong River to Laos. There the animals are shipped to various destinations from Vientiane on Laotian documents, which are readily available.

USES

As mentioned earlier, the only information we have concerning the uses of imported apes are the records of apes kept by the Japanese Association of Zoological Gardens and Aquariums between 1971 and 1980, and by non-JAIGA members in 1979. (Table 4.)

Over the past ten years, the number of apes kept by JAIGA members has gradually increased: chimpanzees have shown a 60 percent increase, gorillas 30 percent, gibbons 40 percent and orang-utans 30 percent (Table 4). The causes of the increases are unclear. Whether it reflects reproduction in captivity or new purchases is not known because we have no data on births, deaths, or internal trade in apes. We are planning to make enquiries of the institutions concerned.

Table 3. List of Primate Dealers Belonging to Japanese Animal Importers’ Association (JAIGA).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Company</th>
<th>Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aritake Chojuten Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>4-6, Muromachi, Nihonbashi, Chuo-ku, Tokyo 103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asada Choju Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>2-54-16, Sangenjaya, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo 154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arakawa Bird Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>3, Neribeicho, Kanda, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ishihara Choju Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>3-20-6, Toshima, Kitaku, Tokyo 114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endoh Pet Imports</td>
<td>2-1-16, Shikahama, Adachi-ku, Tokyo 123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kawahara Bird - Animal Trading Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>3-1-14, Mita, Shiba, Minato-ku, Tokyo 105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keihin Choju Trading Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>1-3-7, Matsukagecho, Naka-ku, Yokohama-shi 231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sakura Trade Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>20-1, Nishikiri, Minamiyamanouchi, Shimozuchu, Inazawashi 492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sakai Pet Center</td>
<td>1-41, Okumotocho, Sakai-shi, Osaka 591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safeways Ltd.</td>
<td>2-1-10, Arai, Nakano-ku, Tokyo 165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasaka Pet Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>2-2, Maizuru, Fukuoka-shi 810</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14
CONCLUSION

Much work remains to be done, but it is clear that some Japanese dealers have imported chimpanzees, gorillas and gibbons smuggled from their habitat countries, which banned such export, to third countries, which do not, from whence they were shipped on to Japan. Even if the actions of the Japanese dealers were not technically illegal, the dealers cannot escape blame, assuming that they knew of the illegal operations of their trading partners. Even if the dealers had not known of the illegality of the smuggling routes used, they must bear the blame for their lack of consideration for the situation wildlife now faces. The Japanese dealer involved in the import of chimpanzees from Sierra Leone after the country banned such shipments, deserves blame, even though at that time Japan had not signed the Endangered Species Convention.

Follow-up study plans include:
1) efforts to study the number of apes imported between April 1972 and December 1978,
2) further study of the uses of imported apes,
3) study of the subsequent history of the imported apes,
4) an investigation of the laws and regulations on the cap-
ture, hunting and trade in apes of the exporting countries and habitat countries.

For 1), The Narita Airport Quarantine Station has promised us that they will arrange the health certificates for apes for easy perusal. We plan to repeat our request to the Ministry of International Trade and Industry for perusal of copies of invoices.

For 2) and 3), we are planning a questionnaire. The President of the Japanese Animal Importers’ Association has suggested that Uehara contact each member dealer separately for information on ape imports prior to Japan’s joining the Endangered Species Convention. We also plan to contact zoos for data on births, mortality, purchase, and sale of apes.

We plan to obtain material regarding the relevant laws from groups like IPPPL and TRAFFIC, and the relevant authorities in the countries concerned.

Acknowledgements: The investigation was financially supported by the World Wildlife Fund (Japan). We should like to thank the Quarantine Station at the Haneda International Airport (Ministry of Public Health), the Japanese Animal Importers’ Association, and others for their help in collecting this data.

Table 4. The Number of Anthropoid Apes Kept by the Member Institutions of Japanese Association of Zoological Gardens and Aquariums (JAZGA).

<table>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gibbon</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>134</td>
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<tr>
<td>Orang-utan</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chimpanzee</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gorilla</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>45</td>
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The Number of Anthropoid Apes Kept by Non-JAZGA Institutions (1979)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<td>Gibbon</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orang-utan</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chimpanzee</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gorilla</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MYSTERY CASE NO. 13

The Comparative Pathology Bulletin (May 1982) ran the photograph reproduced here as "Mystery Case No. 13" and asked readers to guess what had brought the monkey to such a condition. The animal had lost weight, and the hair on his face, chest, and neck had fallen out. The lips, nostrils, and eyelids were swollen. One clue was given: the monkey had been exposed to an "environmental pollutant." Readers were invited to turn to Page 5 for the answer.

It turned out that the monkey (so deformed as to be unidentifiable but probably a Rhesus monkey, as that was the species used by the experimenter in question), had been exposed to 2, 3, 7, 8, -tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin by James Allen and fellow-researchers at the Wisconsin Primate Center, Madison, Wisconsin, U.S.A. Dioxin was an ingredient of Agent Orange, the notorious substance used in the U.S. chemical defoliation programs to strip the forests of Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia. It is certain that many primates and other wild animals and birds were exposed to this substance and died hideous deaths, or, if they survived, produced deformed offspring. Long-term effects of dioxin exposure are now showing up in U.S. veterans of the Vietnam War and their children.

Allen used to receive over $300,000 annually in federal grants for his experiments involving exposure of primates to toxic substances. However, his grants were suspended in 1979 after it was revealed that he was using grant funds to take his girlfriends on skiing trips to Utah and Colorado — while his monkeys rotted away in Wisconsin. Subsequently, Allen took a position with a private laboratory.
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