Feeding on non-plant food items by Western hoolock gibbon (*Hoolock hoolock*)

The distribution and quality of food resources are generally recognized as the pre-eminent factors explaining much interspecific and intraspecific variation in the behaviour of non-human primates¹. The diet of non-human primates is characterized by large portion of plant items such as fruits, flowers and leaves and also contributes a small portion of nonplant food items². Primates that live in seasonal forests often show predictable responses of feeding to fluctuating resources³. Generally during the dry season, when preferred food resources become a limiting factor, primates often consume non-plant food items⁴. These mainly include insects, caterpillars and larvae as well as other items like bird's eggs, soil from salt-licks, termite nests, etc. which are seldom eaten by primate species, including gibbons and contribute only a small part of their diet⁴⁻⁶. Although the quantity of these food items is usually small in size, they provide larger amounts of energy, protein and fat per unit mass than most other food items of primates, such as fruits, flowers and leaves⁷. But, while studying the ecology and feeding behaviour of western hoolock gibbon (Hoolock hoolock) in an isolated forest patch of Hollongapar Gibbon Wildlife Sanctuary (HGWLS), Assam, we recorded high-scale feeding evidences on non-plant food items, particularly on insects by the species during the hot premonsoon (March-May) and monsoon (June-September) seasons, besides the presence of ripped fruits in their major food plants. This uncommon food items consumption may form a regular part of their diet in small fragmented and isolated forest patches.

H. hoolock is distributed in the monsoon evergreen and semi-evergreen rainforests of North East India, south of the Brahmaputra⁸, eastern Bangladesh, northwest Myanmar and west of the Chindwin River⁹. In NE India, gibbons are distributed in 22 protected areas, including 6 national parks and 16 wildlife sanctuaries in addition to several populations in non-protected areas¹⁰. Due to large-scale deforestation in primary habitats of *H. hoolock* in the entire distribution range, particularly in NE India, most of the gibbon population has become fragmented and isolated in small forest patches and the population has been declining drastically in the last two decades¹¹. As a result, the western hoolock gibbon has become endangered under the IUCN category in India and critically endangered in Bangladesh¹². It is also included in Appendix-I of CITES and listed in Schedule I of Wildlife (Protection) Act, 1972.

HGWLS is a small isolated forest patch covering an area of 20.98 sq. km and situated between 26°40"-26°45"N and 94°20"-94°25"E at an elevation of 100-120 m amsl. The sanctuary is surrounded by tea gardens, agricultural fields and small villages and is located in the south bank of the mighty Brahmaputra River system in Mariani area, Jorhat district, Assam, India. The forest type of HGWLS is 'Eastern Alluvial Secondary Semi-Evergreen Forest (1/2/2B/2S2)' under Moist Tropical Forest of India¹³. This is the only sanctuary in NE India which provides habitat for seven primate species, viz. Trachypithecus pileatus, Macaca assamensis, Macaca arctoides, Macaca leonina, Macaca mulatta, Nycticebus bengalensis and Hoolock hoolock¹⁴. Twenty-five groups of H. hoolock comprising 101 gibbons $(mean = 4.4 \pm SE \quad 1.1 \quad individuals \quad per$ group) were reported from sanctuary¹

We conducted a study on feeding ecology and behaviour of H. hoolock in two groups (group A-one adult male and one adult female; group B-one adult male, one adult female, one sub-adult male and one infant) for a period of one year from January to December 2011 in HGWLS after initial habituation of both the groups for three months. Selected groups were followed from dawn to dusk between 0600 and 1600 h for 12 days every month to collect field data on their basic feeding ecology, diet composition and behaviour via focal animal sampling^{16,17}. Instantaneous sampling (every five minutes) was used to quantify activity budget and behaviour. Continuous sampling was used every time the focal animal began to feed. The total observation time was 1440 h during the one-year study period, accounting 720 h for males and females belonging to both the groups. The different behavioural activities recorded were categorized as feeding, resting, travelling, calling and social behaviour. In the present study, 'feeding' refers to catching followed by chewing and then ingestion of plant and non-plant food items and this excludes the time for foraging, as it has been included under travelling. The focal animal was rotated between the adult male and female of the group every one hour. There was no significant variation in feeding time on nonplant food items between the selected groups and also between the sexes. Therefore, data of both groups were pooled together for final analysis. We calculated the percentage of the daily feeding time on different food categories to the total feeding time for each month, according to Gupta and Kumar¹⁸.

$$T_{\rm a} = \frac{N_{\rm a} \times 100}{N},$$

where T_a is the percentage time spent on activity *a*, N_a the number of records with activity *a* and *N* is the total number of records for the day.

It was established that hoolock gibbons are mainly frugivorous in nature and largely feed on plant items, particularly on fruits¹⁹. Interestingly, we observed that *H. hoolock* spent a considerable fraction of their monthly feeding time on non-plant food items (Figure 1), viz. insects, caterpillars, bird eggs (Dicrurus macrocercus, Dicrurus leucophaeus, Dicrurus remifer), etc., besides feeding on plant items which contribute 9.7% of the total average annual feeding time. During one year observation, gibbons consumed more than ten species of insects, but due to difficulty in collection of specimen, only a few of them could be identified (Table 1 and Figures 2 and 3 a). Non-plant food items feeding incidents were recorded throughout the year, except in January and highest consumption was recorded in July (Figure 1) during summer. Both adult male and female gibbons were observed feeding on nonplant food items. Daily time spent on feeding of non-plant food items varied from 5 to 115 min with average 29.52 \pm 11.56 min and it varied significantly (t = 11.94, df = 83, P < 0.05). Variation in monthly time spent on non-plant food items was also highly significant (F = 4.861, df = 11, P < 0.05).

It was observed that gibbons got active in the morning at 0600 h during the premonsoon and monsoon period (March-September) and fed on their preferred plant foods (viz. Ficus lepidosa, Artocarpus chaplasha, Sapium baccatum, Ichnocarpus frutesens, etc.) between 0630 and 0900 h. During this period, they generally complete their duet (voice/songs of adult gibbons are known as duet). After 0900 h onwards with the increasing intensity of sunlight, gibbons were observed feeding on caterpillars and insects. Two peaks of insect feeding were recorded in a day-first between 0900 and 1100 h (forenoon) and second between 1330 and 1430 h (afternoon).

H. hoolock was observed feeding on black ant eggs and larvae by destroying the nests on the trees with its hands (Figure 4). To avoid biting by the ants, they frequently shake their hands at regular intervals while feeding on the eggs from the hives. Das⁵ reported that hoolock gibbons also consume insects from the rolled dry leaves of trees, specially spiders (Arachnida) and that they collect large insects (treehoppers) by unfolding the dry leaves and eating them directly. During the study period, gibbons were found to feed on insects from the plant species like Vatica lanceaefolia, Lagerstroemia speciosa, Ilex godjam, Chukrasia tabularis and Dysoxylum gobara. In the month of May, caterpillars of Drury's Jewel (Cyclosia papilionaries) feed on the leaves of V. lanceaefolia (Figure 3 b), a medium-sized tree belonging to the family Dipterocarpaceae and found abundantly (density 227 individuals/ha)²⁰ inside the sanctuary. Gibbons extensively feed on caterpillars of C. papilionaries, even when they are at the pupal stage.

Insect feeding by hoolock gibbons in fragmented habitats of Assam does not follow any particular seasonal trend⁶. In the present study, it was recorded throughout the year, except January. This may reveal some important aspects of their feeding ecology, adaptations and availability of insects. The maximum time (29.73%) spent on insects feeding was recorded in July (Figure 1) during summer. The gibbons catch the caterpillars and insects with their long hands and consume them within seconds. Insects were the second preferred food items of gibbons after *Artocarpus chaplasha* dur-

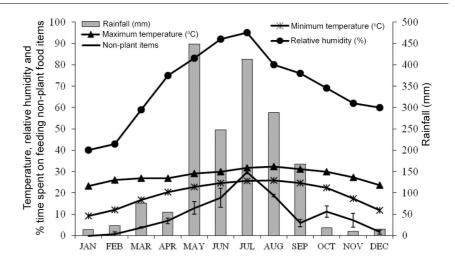


Figure 1. Relationship between climatic condition and monthly average feeding time spent (%) on non-plant food items by *Hoolock hoolock* at HGWLS, Assam.



Figure 2. A leaf insect (Microcentum sp.) consumed by H. hoolock.

Table 1. List of insects fed by Hoolock hoolock in HGWLS, Assam

| English name | Scientific name | Family |
|----------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|
| Leaf insect | Microcentum sp. (Figure 1) | Tettigoniidae |
| Weaver's red ant | Oecophyllas maragdina | Formicidae |
| Black ant | Lasius niger | Formicidae |
| Drury's Jewel | Cyclosia papilionaries (Figure 2 a) | Zygaenidae |
| Muga silk worm | Antheraea assamensis | Saturniidae |
| Tasar silk worm | Antheraea mylitta | Saturniidae |
| - | Erasmia pulchella | Zygaenidae |
| Winged white termite | Odontoterme assamensis | Termitidae |

ing the monsoon season, although they have sufficient fruiting trees available in the habitat during these months. The feeding times spent on major preferred fruiting trees in July were *A. chaplasha* (47%), *Olea dioica* (6.86%), *F. lepidosa* (5.23%) along with some other food plant species. During summer, temperature reaches up to 32.4°C and relative humidity corresponds to 95% in the study

area (Figure 1). These hot and humid environmental conditions generally favour the metamorphosis of large number of insects, thereby increasing the availability of the insects population during wet and warm periods. Kakati⁶ has reported that overall insect feeding comprised 6% of the annual diet of gibbon in fragmented forest of Assam, which is lower than the present study (9.73%). Further,

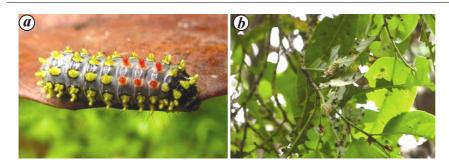


Figure 3. *a*, A caterpillar of *Cyclosia papilionaris* (Drury's Jewel) consumed by *H. hoolook. b*, A caterpillar of *C. papilionaris* feeding on leaves of *Vatica lanceaefolia*.



Figure 4. *a*, Adult female *H. hoolock* destroying ant hive. *b*, Adult female *H. hoolock* feeding on ant eggs.

the site-specific seasonal variation in insects feeding by gibbons was also recorded, which varied from 3.6% to 8.0% in the wet season (end March-September) and 0.9% to 13% in the dry season (October-February). Similar observation of highest insect feeding was also recorded in Hanuman langur (Presbytis entellus) in July, when temperature and rainfall were recorded at maximum levels²¹. It is also reported that most primate species consume a small quantity of insect matter in their diet, but the same may increase to more than 90% of the diet when insects are ample and easily captured²² due to the influence of climatic conditions.

Hamilton and Busse²² observed the facultative trend towards increased carnivory of chacma baboons, *Papiour sinus* in the Namib Desert, Namibia and reported that the species shifted their almost complete dietary habit to insectivory due to an outbreak of grasshoppers. It is reported that chacma baboon fed up to 72% of all time allocated to feeding on scale insects (Homoptera; Coccidae) due to enormous outbreak on mopane trees in Okavango Swamp forest, Botswana during the summer season. However, the adjacent troops of baboon, without this insect food resource in the area, sustained an exclusively vegetarian diet during the same period²³. This evidence for food preference and a choice for animal matter gives an idea of preference for insectivory whenever insect resources are available. Shaffer²⁴ reported that the sakis monkey in Guyana travelled towards caterpillar host trees during the caterpillar breeding season, and tracked and exploited this foreseeable annual resource. Thus the quantity of insect matter in primate diets can be altered dramatically throughout the year due to palatable and accessible prey species which often occur seasonall y^{23} . In the present study, availability of insects was observed to be less during the winter season, which resulted in lowest insect feeding during this period, and no insect feeding in January (Figure 1). Insects may provide disproportionate nutritional benefits as a source of animal protein, which is higher digestible than plant protein²⁵. Insects are particularly valuable because they provide certain amino acids, vitamins (such as vitamin B₁₂) and minerals, including iron (Fe) and manganese (Mn) that may be absent in plant food items^{25,26} According to micronutrient hypothesis, primates select animal foods to secure essential micronutrients, especially vitamin B_{12} (ref. 26), as this is unavailable in higher plants²⁷. It has been reported that many captive primate species enter into hypovitaminosis B_{12} when maintained on vegetarian diets²⁸.

McGrew²⁹ has reviewed the primate insectivory and its potential role in early human dietary habits. The study classifies the primates into four categories based on different grades of insectivory. The consumption of insects is widespread among non-human primates, and their entomophagy depends on their body size. The smaller primates such as galagos (Galago crassicaudatus and Galago senegalensis), pottos (Perodicticus potto) and tarsiers (Tarsius spectrum) are obligate insect eaters; their diet is composed mainly of insects belonging to the orders Lepidoptera, Orthoptera and Hymenoptera respectively³⁰. The diets of mediumbodied primates such as red colobus monkeys (Procolobus tephrosceles) and blue monkey (Cercopithecus mitis) consist mainly of young leaves, flowers and unripe fruit; they are also known to eat insects less frequently than small primates¹⁹. The diet of the large-bodied great apes also has an insectivorous component³¹, besides their frugivory and folivory components. Earlier studies conducted in the same site reported that the diet of *H. hoolock* consists of about 0.1% animal prey32, which is very low compared to that value estimated in the present study (9.7%, annual average). The present study reveals that *H. hoolock* preferred non-plant food items during the pre-monsoon and monsoon periods, even if the species is frugivorous in nature. It is reported that primates are known to prefer non-plant food items generally during the scarcity of favourable major food plants⁴, but the present evidences indicate preference for insects as food, irrespective of limiting factors of plant food availability. A probable reason behind this rare observation may be the maximum outbreak of insects during the hot and humid conditions in the sanctuary resulting in high abundance of insect population and easy availability. Nonhuman primates are known to choose animal matter generally when it is available and frugal relative to other foods³³. However, a scientific explanation for this rare feeding strategy of hoolock gibbon is important. Therefore, a detailed investigation of the diet by applying molecular methods to faecal samples for the detection of different non-plant food items consumed by H. hoolock is required.

SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENCE

Moreover, seasonal outbreak or availability of insect populations needs to be analysed for better understanding of feeding strategy of the species and conservation of species in this highly isolated forest fragment.

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