

# Chapter 19 1

## Exudates and Animal Prey Characterize 2

### Slow Loris (*Nycticebus pygmaeus*, *N. coucang* 3 and *N. javanicus*) Diet in Captivity 4 and After Release into the Wild 5

Ulrike Streicher, Angelina Wilson, Rebecca L. Collins, 6  
and K. Anne-Isola Nekaris 7

**Abstract** We present dietary data for individuals of three species of slow loris 8  
rescued from the pet trade: *Nycticebus pygmaeus* released and radio-tracked in 9  
Vietnam and *N. coucang* and *N. javanicus* held in captivity in Indonesia. Contrary 10  
to popular belief that slow lorises are frugivores, our data support recent studies that 11  
slow lorises are one of few primates specialized for regular extractive gouging of 12  
plant exudates, and capable of consuming insect prey containing secondary com- 13  
pounds. These behaviors are present in juveniles as young as 4 months. This spe- 14  
cialized diet should be considered when maintaining captive individuals, and when 15  
planning reintroduction programs. 16

**Resume** Nous présentons des données sur le régime alimentaire de trois espèces de 17  
loris lents, obtenues sur des individus vendus sur les marchés locaux: *Nycticebus* 18  
*pygmaeus*, relâchés et radio-pistés au Vietnam, et captifs *N. coucang* et *N. javanicus* 19  
en Indonésie. Contrairement à la croyance populaire qui voit ces animaux comme 20  
frugivores, nos données indiquent que les loris lents sont parmi les rares primates 21  
spécialisés dans l'extraction d'exudats, et capables de consommer des insectes con- 22  
tenant des produits toxiques. Ces comportements sont déjà observés chez les juvé- 23  
niles de quatre mois. Ce régime alimentaire spécialisé devrait être pris en 24  
considération dans les élevages captifs, et les plans de réintroduction. 25

---

U. Streicher (✉)  
Endangered Primate Rescue Center, Cuc Phuong National Park,  
Nho Quan District, Ninh Binh Province, Vietnam  
e-mail: uli@mail.hut.edu.vn

A. Wilson • R.L. Collins • K.A.-I. Nekaris  
Nocturnal Primate Research Group, School of Social Sciences and Law,  
Oxford Brookes University, Oxford OX3 0BP, UK  
e-mail: Angelina.Wilson@traffic.org; collir678@yahoo.com; anekaris@brookes.ac.uk

## 26 Introduction

27 Slow lorises (Lorisidae: *Nycticebus*) are nocturnal primates ranging throughout  
28 Southeast Asia. All five *Nycticebus* species have recently been discovered to feed  
29 regularly on exudates that they obtain through active gouging (*N. bengalensis*,  
30 Swapna et al. 2010; *N. coucang*, Wiens et al. 2006; *N. javanicus*, Nekaris et al.  
31 2010; *N. menagensis*, Nekaris and Munds 2010 and *N. pygmaeus*, Starr et al. 2011).  
32 These same studies reveal that nectar, insects (including those containing secondary  
33 toxic compounds) and fruit also form part of their diets.

34 These new findings have not yet been applied to the dietary regimes of captive  
35 slow lorises, which have classically been modeled on that of the mainly frugivorous  
36 potto (*Perodicticus*) (Charles-Dominique 1977; Fitch-Snyder et al. 2001), a genus  
37 that can be up to six times heavier than the smallest slow lorises (Nekaris and Bearder  
38 2007). In captivity, slow lorises are usually maintained on fruit and vegetables, with  
39 some insects (Fitch-Snyder et al. 2001). Opportunities to access gum are usually pre-  
40 sented only through enrichment devices (Craig and Reed 2003), and zoo keepers  
41 report that slow lorises can cause considerable damage to the wood in their enclosures  
42 (Streicher 2004). Inappropriate captive diets may be linked to dental disease, obesity  
43 and low reproductive output (Streicher 2004). Furthermore, no data are available as  
44 to how diet develops ontogenetically in slow lorises, although youngsters seem to  
45 learn about food resources directly from their parents, either through active (visual)  
46 or passive (olfactory) observation (Wiens and Zitzmann 2003; Nekaris et al. 2010).

47 An understanding of the feeding behavior of slow lorises is crucial, as they are  
48 amongst the most common primates in the Southeast Asian pet trade (Nekaris and  
49 Nijman 2007). To improve their suitability as pets, many slow lorises have their  
50 anterior incisors and canines removed by traders (Nekaris and Munds 2010).  
51 Juvenile lorises are prevalent in the trade, and both adults and juveniles may be  
52 confiscated many miles from their capture localities and released into areas with  
53 unfamiliar food resources. If animals survive transport to one of South-east Asia's  
54 many rescue centers, it is common practice to release them directly into the wild  
55 without a period of adjustment (Collins and Nekaris 2008). Knowledge of how res-  
56 cued slow lorises select their captive diet, whether all age classes gouge, and what  
57 they eat when released is hitherto lacking. To address these issues, we present data  
58 on the diet of three slow loris species (*N. pygmaeus*, *N. coucang* and *N. javanicus*)  
59 confiscated from the pet trade.

## 60 Methods

### 61 *Released Slow Lorises: Vietnam*

62 Streicher collected dietary data from four reintroduced *N. pygmaeus* individuals  
63 which had been held in captivity for several months at the Endangered Primate  
64 Rescue Center (EPRC), Cuc Phuong, Vietnam. All animals were captured as adults,  
65 so all had previous experience of wild food sources. Full details of their release are

described in Streicher and Nadler (2003). The individuals were equipped with radio transmitters. Before dusk, an observer arrived at the sleeping site and observed *N. pygmaeus* from a distance of 5–15 m from the beginning of the active period for a few minutes to 2 h over 163 days. Each animal was radio tracked for 4–6 weeks from the date of release. Data were collected *ad libitum* (Altman 1974).

***Captive Slow Lorises: Sumatra***

The other authors collected data from 2 April to 17 June 2007 at Pusat Penyelamatan Satwa (PPS), Lampung, Sumatra on twelve *N. coucang* (two adults and ten juveniles) and one adult *N. javanicus*. The *N. coucang* had been rescued from the pet trade 2 weeks prior to the study, and the *N. javanicus* had been at PPS for 3 months. By the third week, all juveniles ate solid food. The outdoor enclosure was comprised of two neighboring chambers (2 m × 2 m × 2 m), with *N. javanicus* in one and *N. coucang* in the second. It had an open floor with natural ground and foliage and was thickly furnished with natural branches at all levels. Slow lorises were fed six times nightly. In addition to insects and reptiles that entered the enclosure naturally, 23 types of food were offered (Table 19.1). We recorded all dietary selections and

Food items presented to <i>N. javanicus</i> and <i>N. coucang</i> , and their reactions to these items: ++ instantly accepted; + accepted with hesitation; -- refused		Food type	<i>N. javanicus</i>	<i>N. coucang</i>	
	t1.1				t1.7
	t1.2				
	t1.3	<i>Fruits</i>			t1.8
	t1.4	Duku	++	++	t1.9
	t1.5	Banana	++	++	t1.10
	t1.6	Ripe kiwi	++	++	t1.11
		Orange	+	++	t1.12
		Green grape	--	+	t1.13
		Red grape	+	--	t1.14
		Guava	--	+	t1.15
		Corn	--	--	t1.16
		Raisin	--	--	t1.17
		Avocado	--	--	t1.18
		<i>Animals</i>			t1.19
		Moths	++	++	t1.20
		Crickets	++	++	t1.21
		Yellow-vented bulbul	++	++	t1.22
		Mealworms	+	+	t1.23
		Millipede	++	--	t1.24
		Chicken eggs (raw)	++	--	t1.25
		Quail eggs (raw)	--	++	t1.26
		Cooked chicken	--	--	t1.27
		Ants	--	--	t1.28
		<i>Other</i>			t1.29
		Honey	--	+	t1.30
		Yoghurt	--	--	t1.31
		Peanuts	--	--	t1.32
		Baby formula	+	+	t1.33

82 modeled food tests after Hladik (1979). We recorded observations nightly from  
83 19:00 to 05:00 over 153 h.

## 84 **Results**

### 85 *Released Slow Lorises*

86 Streicher recorded 27 feeding bouts by solitary *N. pygmaeus*. Eleven observations  
87 (40%) involved insect prey, including Hymenoptera and Hemiptera. Insect feeding  
88 occurred at heights <10 m. *Nycticebus pygmaeus* fed on gum eight times (30%) and  
89 on unidentifiable plant exudates eight times (30%); seven of these bouts occurred at  
90 heights over 8 m. Feeding on fruit was never observed.

91 *Nycticebus pygmaeus* searched for animal prey by moving slowly along branches  
92 with their noses near the substrate. They caught insects with one or both hands,  
93 clinging with both legs to the branch or standing bipedally. Pygmy lorises licked  
94 some smaller insects, including ants, off branches. Larger insects were eaten head  
95 first, the wings were dropped and other parts were disposed of by fierce head shak-  
96 ing. Head shaking also followed when an *N. pygmaeus* was bitten by its prey.  
97 Hunting in general was a rapid event. Only when a pygmy loris found a large insect  
98 or a number of insects in the same place did it spend several minutes feeding (e.g.  
99 the devouring of a large cricket required 20 min).

100 Whilst feeding on gum, pygmy lorises remained stationary while intensely lick-  
101 ing a single trunk or branch for 1–20 min. They consumed exudates from *Spondias*  
102 *axillaris* (Anacardiaceae), *Sapindus* sp. (Sapindaceae), *Vernicia montana*  
103 (Euphorbiaceae) and *Saraca dives* (Fabaceae). When animals licked the branches of  
104 *S. dives*, no sounds were audible, suggesting the food sources were on the surface.  
105 For all other species, gum scraping was accompanied by intense sounds of scratch-  
106 ing and breaking bark. Animals fed with the body orthograde, clinging with all four  
107 extremities to the tree. One pygmy loris returned to the same site several times.

108 In full blossom *S. dives* carried large bundles of orange flowers. Pygmy lorises  
109 inspected these intensively and probably consumed the nectar. Of the few observa-  
110 tions of wild pygmy lorises at Cuc Phuong National Park, two were made in *S. dives*  
111 in bloom. (Robertson, personal communication)

### 112 *Captive Slow Lorises*

113 Results of food tests are presented in Table 19.1. Both *N. javanicus* and *N. coucang*  
114 consumed animal prey eagerly. Slow lorises caught prey by stalking it and rapidly  
115 lunging forward to grab it with one or two hands. They caught yellow-vented bul-  
116 bulbs (*Pycnonotus goiavier*) within 30–50 s, instantly killed them by biting the neck

and consumed all parts, including the bones and beak. Four juveniles grouped together to catch one bird that escaped but was swiftly killed by the adult female, who then shared it with them. Interestingly, although *N. coucang* rejected ants as food, they allowed them to crawl onto their hands, feet and limbs and shook or rubbed them off.

*Nycticebus javanicus* and *N. coucang* accepted fruit, especially duku (*Lansium domesticum*) and banana (*Musa* sp.). Fruit was consumed slowly, and even if instantly accepted, animals only ate small pieces, returning to it throughout the night. Sharing of fruit and animal prey occurred with no aggression.

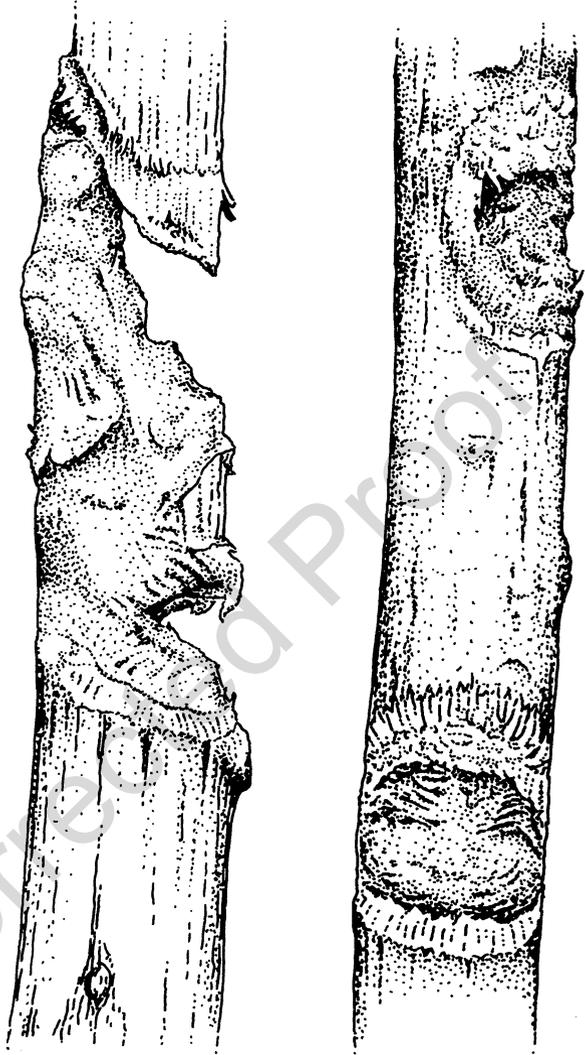
Although no exudates could be derived from the timber of their enclosures or from fresh branches that were placed there daily, both species of all age classes gouged and chewed daily at a rate of 2.9 times per hour (see also Nekaris et al. 2010). Gouging was accompanied by audible bark breaking and could be heard even when animals entered dense foliage. Gouging resulted in deep holes measuring on average 2.5-cm diameter and 0.6-cm deep in the substrate (Fig. 19.1).

## Discussion

*Nycticebus* has previously been assumed to be largely frugivorous (Chivers and Hladik 1980). Our study contributes to the growing volume of literature that fruits form only part of slow loris diets. Released *N. pygmaeus* did not consume any fruit during the observation period. Before their release at EPRC, *N. pygmaeus* (350–600 g) chose invertebrates over other food items and mostly rejected fruit, boiled eggs and vegetables (Streicher 2004). In the case of the larger *N. javanicus* (650–1,000 g) and *N. coucang* (600–750 g), some fruits were consumed, but animal prey was always preferred. These differences could be a result of physiological requirements. Hladik (1979) postulated that strepsirhines in this size range must utilize a variety of food sources, since they are too large to be able to maintain themselves merely on insects, which they consumed with far more enthusiasm and familiarity in our study.

[AU1] Based on its sympatry with *N. bengalensis* and on morphological characteristics, Ratajszczak (1998) and Ravosa (1998) suggested that *N. pygmaeus* is insectivorous. Although Wiens et al. (2006) viewed insects as unimportant to *N. coucang*, invertebrates including ants were nevertheless present in >90% of feces they analysed, including up to 20 ants in a single sample. The closely related slender loris is mainly faunivorous, and its capture mode is identical to that observed in slow lorises (Nekaris and Rasmussen 2003). All slow lorises in our study captured insects single handedly or bimanually with stereotyped movements typical for prosimians and specifically adapted to catch rapidly moving or flying insects (see also Hladik 1979; Nekaris and Rasmussen 2003). Feeding similarities between slender and slow lorises extend to the consumption of noxious prey including Hymenoptera, usually avoided by other strepsirhines (Hladik 1979). Although our captive slow lorises did not consume ants, it is possible they were engaging in passive “anting”. Common in

**Fig. 19.1** Examples of branches gouged by *N. coucang*, showing the typical gnawing pattern for this genus (drawing by H. Schulze)



158 birds and some monkeys (Weldon 2004), several species of *Loris* and *Nycticebus*  
159 have now been observed to allow ants to crawl over their limbs (Kumara et al. 2005)  
160 and even to rub ants into their fur before consuming them (Nekaris personal obser-  
161 vation). One use of secondary compounds may be to keep the body free of ticks.  
162 Indeed, no loris in the Sumatra study had any ectoparasites, and of a sample of 51  
163 *N. pygmaeus* studied at EPRC, only one animal was infested with lice (Streicher  
164 2004). How lorises use the secondary compounds sequestered from their noxious  
165 prey deserves further study.

Gum and plant exudates, extracted through active gouging, were also essential foods for the slow lorises observed in this study. Exudates were the foods most frequently consumed by *N. pygmaeus*. Captive wild-caught Sumatran *N. coucang* began “practising” gouging behavior from 4 months of age; the fact that the branches did not contain gum supports the interpretation of gouging as a stereotyped behavior and implies that exudate consumption in the wild begins at an early age (Hladik 1979). Active stimulation of exudate flow by gouging trees has previously been documented for some callitrichines, *Cebuella* and *Callithrix* (Coimbra-Filho and Mittermeier 1978) and the fork-marked lemur, *Phaner (furcifer) pallescens* (Petter et al. 1971). Stimulating exudate flow by scraping gum at the same location every night maintains a renewable food supply. Gum contains high concentrations of carbohydrates (Bearder and Martin 1980; Hladik 1979) and some strepsirhines, such as the lesser bushbaby (*Galago moholi*) and the thick-tailed bushbaby (*Otolemur crassicaudatus*), are able to subsist on gum alone when other foods are scarce (Bearder 1987). Being available all year round, gum is a reliable food, and consumption of exudates has now been observed year round for three slow loris species (Nekaris et al. 2010). Consequently, when considering a slow loris reintroduction project, sites containing gum-producing trees should be chosen, and only slow lorises with teeth should be reintroduced.

*Nycticebus pygmaeus* in this study foraged alone, whereas *N. coucang* shared food peacefully. However, *N. pygmaeus* housed together at Cuc Phuong Rescue Centre also engaged in food sharing. Captive slow lorises are normally held alone or in pairs, mainly due to fear of fighting (Fitch-Snyder et al. 2001). Knowing that some slow lorises can be housed together without aggression is important for captive management, especially as numbers of animals confiscated from the pet trade are increasing. Providing ample live prey and gouging opportunities may facilitate social grouping.

Slow lorises clearly show numerous morphological and physiological adaptations for processing animal prey and harvesting and consuming plant exudates. The myth that these animals are frugivores should at last be quashed for the sake of their health in captivity and for designing reintroduction programs.

**Acknowledgments** We thank J. Masters, J. Ratsimbazafy and C. Scheepers for organizing the Prosimians International Congress. The following people helped with the study: Vietnam, T. Nadler, Dao Van Khuong, Truong Quang Bich, Do Huu Lap, Nguyen Manh Hiep and Le Thien Duc; Indonesia, P. Agus, F. den Haas, A. Knight, E. Rahadian, K. Sanchez and K. Sudaryatmo. The Andreas Stihl Stiftung, International Animal Rescue Indonesia and Oxford Brookes University provided financial support. Comments from two reviewers improved the manuscript.

**References**

Altman J (1974) Observational study of behaviour: sampling methods. *Behaviour* 49:227–267  
 Bearder SK (1987) Lorises, bushbabies and tarsiers: diverse societies in solitary foragers. In: Smuts BB, Cheney DL, Seyfarth RM, Wrangham RW, Struhsaker TT (eds) *Primate societies*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, pp 11–24

- 208 Bearder SK, Martin RD (1980) *Acacia* gum and its use by bushbabies, *Galago senegalensis*  
209 (Primates: Lorisidae). *Int J Primatol* 1:103–128
- 210 Charles-Dominique P (1977) Ecology and behaviour of the nocturnal primates. Prosimians of  
211 equatorial West Africa. Duckworth, London
- 212 Chivers DL, Hladik CM (1980) Morphology of the gastrointestinal tracts in primates: comparisons  
213 with other animals in relation to diet. *J Morphol* 166:337–386
- 214 Coimbra-Filho AF, Mittermeier RA (1978) Tree-gouging, exudate-eating and the “short-tusked”  
215 condition in *Callithrix* and *Cebuella*. In: Kleimann DG (ed) The behaviour and conservation of  
216 the Callithrichidae. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, pp 41–46
- 217 Collins R, Nekaris KAI (2008) Release of greater slow lorises (*Nycticebus coucang*), confiscated  
218 from the pet trade, to Batutegi Protected Forest, Sumatra, Indonesia. In: Soorae PS (ed) IUCN  
219 Global re-introduction perspectives. IUCN/SSC Reintroduction Specialist Group, Abu Dhabi,  
220 UAE, pp 192–195
- 221 Craig J, Reed C (2003) Diet-based enrichment ideas for small primates. *Int Zoo News* 50(1):16–20
- 222 Fitch-Snyder H, Schulze H, Larson L (2001) Management of lorises in captivity. A husbandry  
223 manual for Asian lorises (*Nycticebus* & *Loris* spp.). Center for Reproduction in Endangered  
224 Species (CRES), Zoological Society of San Diego, San Diego
- 225 Hladik CM (1979) Diet and ecology of prosimians. In: Doyle GA, Martin RD (eds) The study of  
226 prosimian behaviour. Academic, New York, pp 307–357
- 227 Kumara HN, Kumar S, Singh M (2005) A novel foraging technique observed in slender loris  
228 (*Loris lydekkerianus malabaricus*) feeding on red ants in the Western Ghats. *India Folia*  
229 *Primatol* 76:116–118
- 230 Nekaris KAI, Bearder SK (2007) The strepsirrhine primates of Asia and mainland Africa: diversity  
231 shrouded in darkness. In: Campbell C, Fuentes A, MacKinnon K, Panger M, Bearder SK (eds)  
232 Primates in perspective. Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp 24–45
- 233 Nekaris KAI, Munds RA (2010) Using facial markings to unmask diversity: the slow lorises  
234 (Primates: Lorisidae: *Nycticebus*) of Indonesia. In: Gursky S, Supriatna J (eds) The primates of  
235 Indonesia. Springer, New York, pp 383–396
- 236 Nekaris KAI, Nijman V (2007) CITES proposal highlights rarity of Asian nocturnal primates  
237 (Lorisidae: *Nycticebus*). *Folia Primatol* 78:211–214
- 238 Nekaris KAI, Rasmussen DT (2003) Diet and feeding behaviour of the Mysore slender loris. *Int J*  
239 *Primatol* 24:33–46
- 240 Nekaris KAI, Starr CR, Collins RL, Navarro-Montes A (2010) Comparative ecology of exudate  
241 feeding by Asian slow lorises (*Nycticebus*). In: Burrows A, Nash L (eds) The evolution of  
242 exudativory in primates. Springer, New York, pp 155–168
- 243 Petter J-J, Schilling A, Pariente G (1971) Observations eco-ethologiques sur deux lemuriens mal-  
244 gaches nocturnes: *Phaner furcifer* et *Microcebus coquereli*. *Terre Vie* 118:287–327
- 245 Ratajczak R (1998) Taxonomy, distribution and status of the lesser slow loris *Nycticebus pyg-*  
246 *maeus* and their implications for captive management. *Folia Primatol* 69(suppl 1):171–174
- 247 Ravosa MJ (1998) Cranial allometry and geographic variation in slow lorises (*Nycticebus*). *Am J*  
248 *Primatol* 45:225–243
- 249 Starr CR, Nekaris KAI, Streicher U, Leung L (2011) Field surveys of the threatened pygmy slow  
250 loris (*Nycticebus pygmaeus*) using local knowledge in Mondulkiri Province, Cambodia. *Oryx*  
251 45:135–142
- 252 Streicher U (2004) Aspects of the ecology and conservation of the pygmy loris *Nycticebus pyg-*  
253 *maeus* in Vietnam. Unpublished PhD thesis. Ludwig-Maximilians Universität, Germany
- 254 Streicher U, Nadler T (2003) Re-introduction of pygmy lorises in Vietnam. *Reintroduction News*  
255 23:37–40
- 256 Swapna N, Radakrishna S, Gupta AK, Kumar A (2010) Exudativory in the Bengal slow loris in  
257 Trishna Wildlife Sanctuary, Tripura, northeast India. *Am J Primatol* 72:113–121
- 258 Weldon PJ (2004) Defensive anointing: extended chemical phenotype and unorthodox ecology.  
259 *Chemoecology* 14:1–4
- 260 Wiens F, Zitzmann A (2003) Social dependence of infant slow lorises to learn diet. *Int J Primatol*  
261 24:1008–1021
- 262 Wiens F, Zitzmann A, Hussein NA (2006) Fast food for slow lorises: is low metabolism related to  
263 secondary compounds in high-energy plant diet? *J Mammal* 87:790–798