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Data on the diet of Lepilemur mittermeieri, a sportive lemur endemic to the northwest of Madagascar

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Key words

Sportive lemur, feeding ecology, Madagascar

Abstract

Mittermeier's sportive lemur (*Lepilemur mittermeieri*) is an endangered primate endemic to the Ampasindava peninsula,

in north-west Madagascar. *Lepilemur* are known to be folivores with a low metabolic rate, but no specific investigation of the diet of Mittermeier's sportive lemur has been reported. In 2015 and 2016, we conducted a field study of the species in two areas of the Ampasindava peninsula, involving direct observation of individuals equipped with radio-collars. We verified that Mittermeier's sportive lemur is a solitary forager. We identified a total of 77 tree species consumed and a large variation in the spectrum of species used within the two studied sites. Most of the plant material consumed was made of leaves, with few fruits.

Introduction

For small-bodied folivores, gaining enough energy and nutrients from a diet dominated by plant structural tissues may be challenging due to their high energy requirement (Kleiber, 1961; Martin, 1990; Eppley *et al.*, 2010). The lower limit of body mass for folivorous primates was predicted to be about 700g due to energetic constraints (Kay, 1984; Richard, 1985; Schmid and Ganzhorn, 1996). *Lepilemurs,* with their small adult body size and a diet high in leaves, are therefore at the lower limit of body size for folivorous primates (Nash, 1998). Their metabolic rate is among the lowest of most mammalian folivores recorded (Schmid and Ganzhorn, 1996). Müller (1985) suggested that the low metabolic rate of prosimians could represent a mechanism to cope with environmental constraints (Schmid and Ganzhorn, 1996).

Mittermeier's sportive lemur (Lepilemur mittermeieri) is one of 26 species of sportive lemurs, family Lepilemuridae (Mittermeier et al., 2010). This Endangered (Andriaholinirina et al., 2012), small-sized, nocturnal primate is endemic of the Ampasindava peninsula, in northwest Madagascar and although no previous investigation have been conducted into its diet it is thought to be mostly folivorous (Mittermeier, 2013; Schwitzer et al., 2013). The species inhabits two vegetation types of the Ampasindava peninsula: dense humid forests with low perturbation and older secondary forests. In the current context of forest degradation and habitat loss, a better understanding of the feeding ecology of Mittermeier's sportive lemur will help identify appropriate conservation measures.

The aim of this short note is to gain a preliminary understanding of the diet of Mittermeier's sportive lemur. Specifically, we identified which plant species are consumed at the scale of forest patches, and we investigated food selection at the scale of micro-habitat.

Methods

Study area, study sites and study period

This study was carried out in the Ampasindava peninsula, in northwest Madagascar (Fig. 1). Altitude ranges from 0-720 m with a rough, hilly terrain. The peninsula has a hot, humid/ sub-humid climate and is part of the Sambirano Domain (sensu Humbert, 1951). Because of the topography of the area, the climate of this region is more similar to that of the east coast of Madagascar than to that of other areas of the west coast (MBG, 2015; Rasoanaivo *et al.*, 2015; Tahinarivony *et al.*, 2017). There are four main vegetation types on the Ampasindava peninsula: dense humid forest with low perturbation, older secondary forests, young secondary forests and degraded areas. Mangroves also exist on the peninsula (Tahinarivony *et al.*, 2017).

We conducted this study on two different sites. Site A is located on the Andranomatavy Mountain and is covered by dense humid forests with low disturbance. Site B is characterized by older secondary forests (Fig. 1). The study was carried out during three months (April-June) of two con-

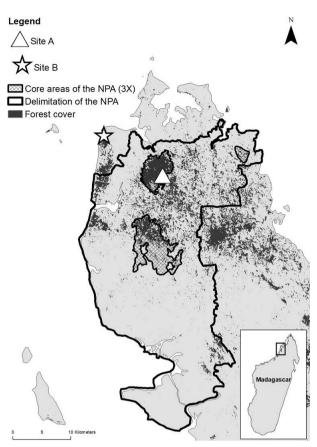


Fig. I: Map of the Ampasindava peninsula in north-west Madagascar with representation of the two study sites, forest cover, the New Protected Area (NPA) and the 3 core areas of the New Protected Area.

secutive years (2015 and 2016) corresponding to the end of the rainy season.

Individuals studied

To allow continuous focal observation on known individuals, we studied 15 individuals equipped with radio-tracking transmitters (Biotrack-Dorset-UK PIP3 Tag-cable tie collar; weight < 4.5g) (for the detailed method see Wilmet *et al.*, 2019).

Micro-habitat characterisation

We collected floristic data for four home ranges of the 15 Mittermeier's sportive lemurs studied. Within site A, sizes of home range I and home range 2 were 2.97ha and 0.77ha respectively (Wilmet *et al.*, 2019). Within site B, sizes of home range 3 and 4 were 1.15ha and 1.96ha respectively (Wilmet *et al.*, 2019). We conducted an exhaustive sampling of every tree with a circumference above 15cm in these home ranges. Herbarium material was collected for the different tree species and identified to genus by botanists at Tsimbazaza Botanical Garden in Antananarivo (Parc Botanique et Zoologique Tsimbazaza).

Feeding observation

Data on plants consumed by Mittermeier's sportive lemurs were obtained by direct observation on 15 individuals using the focal sampling method (Altmann, 1974) during radiotracking nights. Records were made every time an individual was observed feeding. Systematic observations were difficult due to limited visibility at night. The feeding frequency of different dietary items was taken to estimate their prevalence in the diet. The number of times a focal individual was observed feeding on each item was recorded but the duration of each event was not considered. Once an individual was observed eating, the part of the plant consumed was recorded (leaf or fruit) and a sample of the tree was taken as a herbarium specimen. Plant identification at genus level was undertaken by botanists at Tsimbazaza Botanical Garden in Antananarivo.

Data analysis

To characterize the micro-habitat of four Mittermeier's sportive lemurs, we evaluated the distribution of species abundance. As diversity indexes (such as Shannon index, etc.) underestimate the species richness in tropical forests (Walter and Moore, 2005), we used non-parametric estimators to compare the species diversity of four home ranges. We computed estimated species richness using three non-parametric estimators: the bias-corrected ChaoI, Chao2 (based on incidence) and JackknifeI (based on abundance) (Chiarucci et al., 2003; Dove and Cribb, 2006; Poulin, 1998; Walther and Martin, 2001) using Estimates S9.1.0 (Colwell, 2013). It is best to use multiple estimators as concurrence between their individual values can lend support to results.

We established a list of species identified as feeding plants, we then calculated the frequency of their consumption and the number of different individuals feeding on each species.

Results

Micro-habitat characterization

The diversity of tree species for each home range varied from 45 to 74 species. The largest home range (located in site A) is characterized by a lower species richness than the others (Fig. 2).

Among the most abundant species, only one species (*Garcinia decipiens*) is shared between the four nocturnal home ranges (Tab. 1). Some species, such as *Calandia cerasifolia*, are present at high density (among the 10 most abundant) in only one nocturnal home range (home range 1) (Tab. 1). Moreover, a species abundant in one home range of site A may not be abundant in another nocturnal home range of site A. When comparing this data set with the observations of species consumed by Mittermeier's sportive lemurs (Appendix 1 & 2), it appears that 9 of those species consumed (*Garcinia decipiens*, *Trilepsium madagascariensis*, *Throphis montana*, *Ixora mocquerysii*, *Rinorea angustifolia*, *Ochna pervilleana*, *Mammea punctata*, *Kaya madagascariensis and Coptosperma* sp.) are among the 24 most abundant species in the four home ranges (Tab. 1).

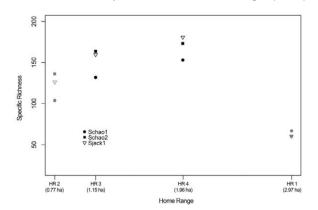


Fig. 2: Species richness of four home ranges (HR) calculated through three non-parametric indicators. Indicators Chao1(Schao1) and Chao2 (Schao2) are based on incidence and indicator Jackknife1 (Sjack1) is based on abundance. Size of each home range (HR) is given in bracket.

Tab. 1: Ten most abundant tree species within each of the four home ranges investigated. Species in bold correspond to consumed species. Home ranges (HR) I and 2 are located in site A and home ranges 3 and 4 in site B.

Rank-	HR I	HR 2	HR 3	HR 4
ing	(2.97ha)	(0.77ha)	(1.15ha)	(1.96ha)
I	Garcinia	Rinorea	Mammea	Garcinia
	decipiens	angustifolia	punctata	decipiens
2	Grangeria	Grangeria	Memecylon	Memecyclon
	porosa	porosa	perditum	perditum
3	Trilepisium ma-	Garcinia	Rinorea	Mammea
	dagascariensis	decipiens	angustifolia	Þunctata
4	Calantica cerasifolia	Gaertnera NA	Suregada boiviniana	Grangeria Þorosa
5	Macarisia ellipticifolia	Trilepisium madagas- cariensis	Ochna pervilleana	Rinorea angustifolia
6	Treculia mada-	Treculia mada-	Cleistanthus	Cleistanthus
	gascariensis	gascariensis	suarezensis	suarezensis
7	Breonia c	Broenia	Thecacoris	Ochna
	apuronii	capuronii	cometia	þervilleana
8	Homalium sp.	Ixora mocque- rysii	Xylopia buxifolia	Kaya mada- gascariensis
9	Trophis	Burasaia mada-	Garcinia	Xylopia
	montana	gascariensis	decipiens	buxifolia
10	lxora	Garcinia	Lasiodiscus	Coptos-
	mocquerysii	commersonii	pervillei	perma sp.

Feeding ecology

Individuals always foraged alone. In total, 77 tree species were identified as food resources: 49 species in the coastal site, 32 species in the inland sites, with only two species shared between site A (dense humid forests with low disturbance) and site B (older secondary forests) (Appendix I & 2). Typically, it was the leaves that were most frequently consumed, but fruits were also eaten from four species (*Coptosperma* sp.; *Dypsis* sp.; and two unknown) (Appendix I & 2).

Concerning the frequency of consumption for the plant species, six species comprised 45% of all feeding observations (Tab. 2). Out of those most frequently consumed species, only two (*Trilepsium madagascariensis* and *Coptosperma* sp.), are among the ten most abundant species (Tab. 1). Another four species (*Secamone* sp.; *Sorendeia madagascariensis*, *Dypsis* sp.; *Dichapetalum pachypus*) were frequently observed as food species but were not among the most abundant species (Tab. 1).

Discussion

The study confirms that Mittermeier's sportive lemur is a solitary forager. As expected, leaves are the part of the tree most frequently consumed, but fruits are also eaten (Appendix 1&2). This has also been observed for other *Lepilemur* species such as Hawks' sportive lemur (*L. tymerlachsoni*) (Sawyer *et al.*, 2015), northern sportive lemur (*L. septentrionalis*) (Dinsmore *et al.*, 2016), white-footed sportive lemur (*L. leucopus*), weasel sportive lemur (*L. mustelinus*), red-tailed sportive lemur (*L. ruficaudatus*), Gray's sportive lemur (*L. dorsalis*) and Sahamalaza sportive lemur (*L. sahamalazensis*) (Hladik and Charles-Dominique, 1974; Nash, 1998; Thalmann, 2001; Ganzhorn et al., 2004; Seiler, 2012). In the case of Mittermeier's sportive lemur we do not have sufficient data to investigate seasonality or correlation with local phenology.

The specific diversity of leaves consumed is high. Individuals observed were feeding on 77 species of trees. A similarly varied diet was observed for Sahamalaza sportive lemur for which Seiler (2012) found that at least 42 tree species were consumed. We found no correlation between tree species use and their relative frequency within the home ranges investigated. Nor could differences in choice of species between patches be correlated to local forest composition. This suggests adaptability to local conditions, but no true opportunism, as most numerous species were not significantly favoured. In contrast, the white-footed sportive lemur, which feeds mainly on a small number (three) of plant species (Nash, 1998), uses the most abundant plant species (Dröscher and Kappeler, 2013), a clear opportunist behaviour.

Our findings have significant implications for the conservation of Mittermeier's sportive lemurs. They appear to have a high potential of adaptation to local conditions but nevertheless depend on a variety of trees providing the needed resources at the right time. Preservation of the forest climate and diversity is thus probably the key to its survival.

Acknowledgments

We thank the Ministère de l'Environnement et des Eaux et Forêts de Madagascar for allowing us to carry out research in the new protected area of the Ampasindava peninsula. We are grateful to professors from the Département de Paléontologie et d'Anthropologie Biologique de la Faculté des Sciences (Department of Paleontology and Biological Anthropology) of the Antananarivo University for their collaboration and for the field assistance of Tahiriniaina Randriarimanga (Tahiry) and Simon Razafindramoana. We thank Prof. Patrick Ranirison and Dr. Brice Funk Lee Rakotorasafy for their help and advice. We thank Prof. Harifidy Rakoto Ratsimba for his precious help in Madagascar. We thank the Madagascar Biodiversity Partnership for the capture of lepilemur and collar placement in April 2015. We thank our research field assistants; DD, Antony and Mila. We thank Dr. Félicien Tosso for his help for data analysis. The field missions were possible thank to grants and funding from the Fondation Leopold III, AEECL, Nature +, Mohamed Bin Zayed Fund, FNRS-FRIA and Liège University, Gembloux Agro-Bio Tech.

Tab. 2: List of the plant species most frequently consumed during observation time: site location, plant family, genus, part of the plant consumed number of observations, percentage of total number of observations (196), number of individuals observed eating the plant. The species name is in bold when the tree is among the most abundant species in the home ranges studied.

Site	Family	Genus species	Part of the plant	# observed	%	Number of individuals observed eating
A&B	Apocynacea	Secamone sp.	leaf	33	17	9
A&B	Moraceae	Trilepsium madagascariensis	leaf	17	9	5
A&B	Anacardiaceae	Sorendeia madagascariensis	leaf	12	6	5
Α	Arecaceae	Dypsis sp.	fruit	10	5	3
Α	Dichapetalaceae	Dichapetalum pachypus	leaf	10	5	4
Α	Rubiaceae	Coptosperma sp.	fruit	7	4	3

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Appendix 1: List of plant species consumed by *L. mittermeieri* in site A. The two species marked by an asterix are shared with site B.

	Plant Species – feeding observation – Site A				
No.	Family	Genus species	Part of the plant eaten	Year of ob- servation	
I	Anacardiaceae	Sorindeia mada- gascariensis	Leaf	2015	
2	Apocynaceae	Mascarenhasia arborescens	Leaf	2015	
3	Apocynaceae *	Secamone sp.*	Leaf	2015	
4	Apocynaceae	Landolphia myrtifolia	Leaf	2016	
5	Apocynaceae	Landolphia sp.	Leaf	2016	
6	Arecaceae	Dypsis sp.	Fruit	2015 + 2016	
7	Celastraceae	Mystroxylon aethiopicum	Leaf	2015	
8	Convolvulaceae	Merremia myriantha	Leaf	2016	
9	Convolvulaceae	Merremia peltata	Leaf	2016	
10	Dichapetalaceae	Dichapetalum madagascariense	Leaf	2015	
11	Dichapetalaceae	Dichapetalum pachypus	Leaf	2015	
12	Euphorbiaceae	Drypetes sp.	Leaf	2015	
13	Euphorbiaceae	Securinega seyrigii	Leaf	2015	
14	Fabaceae	Abrus precatorius	Leaf	2015	
15	Fabaceae	Entada pervillei	Leaf	2015	
16	Fabaceae	Clitoria lasciva	Leaf	2016	
17	Fabaceae	Dalbergia sp.	Leaf	2016	
18	Icacinaceae	Demostachys sp.	Leaf	2015	

	Plant Species – feeding observation – Site A					
No.	Family	Genus species	Part of the plant eaten	Year of ob- servation		
19	Malvaceae	Grewia cuneifolia	Leaf	2015		
20	Malvaceae	Grewia sp.	Leaf	2015		
21	Melicaeae	Malleastrum boivinianum	Leaf	2015		
22	Moraceae	Trophis montana	Leaf	2015		
23	Moraceae *	Trilepisium mada- gascariensis *	Leaf	2016		
24	Ochnaceae	Ochna greveanum	Leaf	2015		
25	Oleaceae	Noronhia candicans	Leaf	2015		
26	Rubiaceae	Coptosperma sp.	Fruit + Leaf	2015		
27	Rubiaceae	Peponidium sp.	Leaf	2015		
28	Rubiaceae	Ixora mocquerysii	Leaf	2015		
29	Sapindaceae	Macphersonia gracilis	Leaf	2016		
30	Vebenaceae	Clerodendron sp.	Leaf	2016		
31	Violaceae	Rinorea angustifolia	Leaf	2015		
32	NA	NA	Fruit	2016		

Appendix 2: List of plant species consumed by *L* mittermeieri in site B. The two species marked by an asterix are shared with site A.

	Plant Species – feeding observation – Site B				
No.	Family	Genus species	Part of the plant eaten	Year of ob- servation	
I	Anacardiaceae	Abrahamia sambiranensis	Leaf	2015	
2	Aphloiaceae	Aphloia theiformis	Leaf	2016	
3	Apocynaceae	Petchia madagas- cariensis	Leaf	2015	
4	Apocynaceae *	Secamone sp. *	Leaf	2015 + 2016	
5	Apocynaceae	Carissa septen- trionalis	Leaf	2015	
6	Apocynaceae	Uvaria decaryana	Leaf	2015	
7	Bignoniaceae	Phyllarthron sp.	Leaf	2016	
8	Buxaceae	Buxus macrocarpa	Leaf	2015	
9	Capparidaceae	Tylachium umangii	Leaf	2015	
10	Capparidaceae	Crateva excelsa	Leaf	2016	
11	Celastraceae	Salacia madagas- cariensis	Leaf	2015	
12	Clusiaceae	Garcinia decipiens	Leaf	2015	
13	Clusiaceae	Mammea punctata	Leaf	2015	
14	Dichapetalaceae	Dichapetalum leucosia	Leaf	2016	
15	Dilleniaceae	Tetracera mada- gascariensis	Leaf	2015	
16	Ebenaceae	Diospyros impressinervis	Leaf	2015	
17	Erythroxylaceae	Erythroxylum retusum	Leaf	2015	
18	Erythroxylaceae	Erythroxylum nitidulum	Leaf	2016	
19	Euphorbiaceae	Wielandia bojeriana	Leaf	2015	
20	Euphorbiaceae	Dryptes thouarsii	Leaf	2015	
21	Euphorbiaceae	Wielandia platyrachis	Leaf	2015	
22	Euphorbiaceae	Euphorbia sp.	Leaf	2016	
23	Euphorbiaceae	Claoxylon sp.	Leaf	2016	
24	Euphorbiaceae	Thecacoris sp.	Leaf	2016	
25	Fabaceae	Viguieranthus ambongensis	Leaf	2015	
26	Achariaceae	Prockiopsis calcicola	Leaf	2016	
27	Melastomata- ceae	Memecylon perditum	Leaf	2016	

	Plant Species – feeding observation – Site B				
No.	Family	Genus species	Part of the plant eaten	Year of ob- servation	
28	Melastomata- ceae	Memecylon bakerianum	Leaf	2016	
29	Meliaceae	Khaya madagas- cariensis	Leaf	2015	
30	Moraceae	Treculia madagas- cariensis	Leaf	2015	
31	Moraceae *	Trilepisium mada- gascariensis *	Leaf	2016	
32	Myristicaceae	Brochoneura acuminata	Leaf	2015	
33	Myrtaceae	Syzygium cumini	Leaf	2016	
34	Ochnaceae	Ochna pervilleana	Leaf	2015	
35	Olacaceae	Anacolosa sp.	Leaf	2016	
36	Phyllanthaceae	Meineckia sp.	Leaf	2016	
37	Pittosp.oraceae	Pittosporum senacia	Leaf	2016	
38	Poaceae	Nastus sp.	Leaf	2015	
39	Rubiaceae	Polysphaera acuminata	Leaf	2015	
40	Rubiaceae	Coffea tetragona	Leaf	2016	
41	Rubiaceae	Coffea dubardii	Leaf	2016	
42	Rubiaceae	lxora sp.	Leaf	2016	
43	Rubiaceae	Coffea sp.	Leaf	2016	
44	Rutaceae	Melicope sp.	Leaf	2016	
45	Salicaceae	Homalium nudiflorum	Leaf	2015	
46	Sapotaceae	Capurodendron sp.	Leaf	2016	
47	Violaceae	Rinorea angustifolia	Leaf	2015	
48	NA	NA	Fruit	2016	

Urgent action needed: the forgotten forests of the Lavasoa-Ambatotsirongo-rongo Mountains, southeast Madagascar

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When we think of important areas of biodiversity within Madagascar, we tend to focus on the more well-known national parks and special reserves. The truth is, however, that there are many small fragments scattered across this island that hold a significant wealth of biodiversity that are in critical need of attention and immediate conservation actions. One such system is a group of six small forest fragments within the Lavasoa-Ambatotsirongorongo mountains in the extreme southeast of Madagascar. From east to west, these include Ambatotsirongorongo, Bemanasa, and Grand Lavasoa (Fig. I). This last fragment is further divided into four fragments that are all in relatively close proximity.

Though this forest used to be continuous across the mountain range, the majority has disappeared and only these six small fragments remain on the southern side of the three main summits. According to Andrianjaka and Hapke (2015), these