The Ecology, Biogeography and Conservation of the Uakaris, *Cacajao* (Pitheciinae)

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Key Words

Amazonia · Cacajao · Colobinae · Diet · Glacial refugia · Habitat selection · Metachromism · Seasonal migration

Abstract

With the sakis (Pithecia) and the bearded sakis (Chiropotes), the uakaris (Cacajao) constitute the cebid subfamily, Pitheciinae. The most recent revision recognized six Cacajao subspecies in two species, confined to the Amazon basin. Before 1970 most field information derived from 19th century travellers. Studies still lag behind those of other cebid genera. This paper summarises the known ecology of Cacajao, and identifies future research and conservation priorities. The relevance of Pleistocene refugia and metachromism in analysing its biogeography is discussed. Range size remains obscure but, with the exception of C. c. calvus, may be extensive, as all other subspecies appear to migrate in the dry season from flooded riverine forest to terra firme. Observed group size ranges from 5 to 50, indicating the operation of a fissionfusion society. Social organization appears to be multi-male and non-hierarchical. This accords with the minimal sexual dimorphism. The highly developed canines function primarily as fruit openers. Cacajao is a dietary specialist on hard-shelled fruit, and appears unique among Amazonian cebids in its dependence (at least seasonally) on riverine forests. Hunting may be a problem locally, but local taboos sometimes offer protection. They appear vulnerable to habitat disturbance. On the Rio Negro, the range of C. m. melanocephalus appears to have greatly diminished. To ensure protection of viable populations, the inferred dietary dependence on seasonal migration may require accommodation. Research priorities include the status, habitat preference, diet and social ecology of all taxa except C. c. calvus. A more complete knowledge of the biogeography of the genus would be valuable.

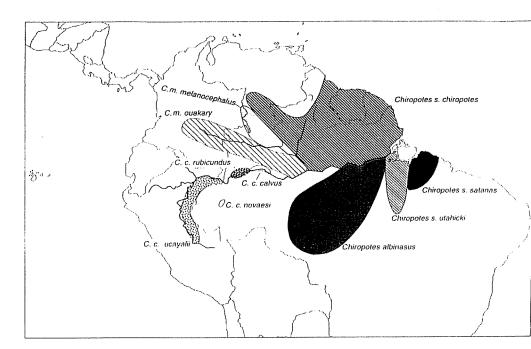


Fig. 1. Geographic distribution of the genera *Cacajao* and *Chiropotes*. Locality data from Hershkovitz [4, 74] and Boubli [28].

Introduction

The genus *Cacajao* is one of the least known of Neotropical primate genera. Uakari biology has been reviewed by Fontaine [1] and Whitehead [2], and extensive bibliographies provided by Ayres [3] and Hershkovitz [4]. Barnett is preparing an updated review. This paper stresses the relevance of past, as well as existing factors, to the full understanding of the ecology, biogeography and conservation of this neglected, but fascinating genus (appendix). Priorities for further study are identified.

The most recent revision of the genus [4] recognized two species, *Cacajao calvus* with four subspecies (*calvus. rubicundus. ucayalii, novaesi*), and *Cacajao melanocephalus* with two (*melanocephalus, ouakary*). The distribution of these six forms is given in figure 1. Uniquely among New World primates, uakaris possess a tail less than one-third of the head and body length [4]. This abnormal character for an arboreal mammal led early Western scientists to assume the tail was docked or self-mutilated [5]. Uakaris are the largest members of the subfamily Pitheciinae and are the largest non-prehensile-tailed South American primates. Adult males weigh some 3 to 4 kg, females being slightly smaller. There is little gross or dental sexual dimorphism [6], though the head of male *C. calvus* appears larger, because the temporal muscles bulge more above the skull [7]. The pronounced fleshy, globular, occipital swellings present in male *Chiropotes* are absent in *Cacajao*, as is pelage sexual dichromatism, which occurs in *Pithecia*. Hill [8], however, indicates that there may be skin sexual dichromatism in *C. c. rubicundus*, with the female face being more pink than the scarlet face of the male.

Habitat

Uakari ecology appears to be strongly influenced by riverine forest variation in its Amazon Basin habitat. Amazonian rivers fall into three categories: white-water, black-water and clear-water. White-water rivers originate on the eastern slopes of the Andes, and derive their café-au-lait colour from the erosion of a geologically young formation. Black-water rivers flow over the more ancient Guyana Shield, where the rocks are now poor in soluble or erodable materials [9]. A hydrologist has even described the contents of the Rio Negro as 'slightly contaminated distilled water' [10]. Such rivers are coloured dark brown by their high humus content, and are quite acid (due to humic acids), but the lack of suspended silt denies them the complex system of creeks, islands and levees that border white-water rivers [3, 11]. These are replaced by a gentle slope to higher ground. Clear-water rivers drain savannas rather than forest, and are effectively less acid black-water rivers without the leaf litter and hence the tannins [10].

Amazonian river levels may vary annually by as much as 11 m. High-ground forests are never inundated and are called terra firme. Lowland forests are subject to flooding for up to nine months. Those bordering black-water rivers are termed igapó [12], those along white-water rivers, várzea [13]. These seasonally flooded forests are unique in that fish are the principal agents of fruit dispersal and predation [10]. Consequently, most of their trees fruit during the flood season [10, 12, 14]. The wide floodplain of várzea is a much more heterogeneous and diverse habitat than are the thin ribbons of igapó [3, 13].

There are some indications of a habitat divergence between the two Cacajao species. C. melanocephalus appears exclusive to black-water river areas, and its avoidance of várzea is quite marked. Rylands [pers. commun. to A.A.B., 1989] reported that the species was absent from the Rio Padauari, a small white-water tributary on the north bank of the Rio Negro, but that it was present on the neighbouring Rio Preto, a black-water river. Ayres [3] working on Lake Mamirauá, a predominantly white-water area, saw C. melanocephalus there, but noted that all records were in the vicinity of neighbouring black-water lakes [11]. Most C. calvus subspecies seem restricted to várzea and adjacent inter-fluvial terra firme. Putative records of C. calvus from nominally black-water rivers, usually have a hydrological explanation. For example, the Rio Jacurapá, a small black-water tributary of the Rio Içá where Mittermeier and Coimbra-Filho [15] observed C. c. rubicundus in igapó forest, may fluctuate between black- and white-water, depending on the season and relative flow rates of its feeder streams. Most, if not all, records of C. c. ucayalii, however, have been in terra firme forest [16, 17] or in Mauritia flexuosa swamps [17]. Sightings reported by Heymann [18] were also in terra firme forest [E.W. Heymann, pers. commun.]. C. c. ucayalii populations between the Tahuayo and Yavari Mirim rivers in northeastern Peru probably do not inhabit flooded forest which is absent there except on the banks of the Tahuayo [E.W. Heymann, pers. commun.].

Figure 2 shows recorded localities for the subspecies of *Cacajao*. *Cacajao* c. rubicundus is absent from the margins of the lower Juruá in Brazil [19]. C. c. ucayalii rarely occurs in riverside vegetation on the Rio Ucayali, Peru [17, 20]. C. melanocephalus is restricted to the tributaries of the Rio Negro [21, 22]. These accounts corroborate Mittermeier and Coimbra-Filho's [15, p. 144] conclusion that 'all uakaris appear to avoid the margins of larger rivers'. Cunha and Barnett [23, 24] and Barnett

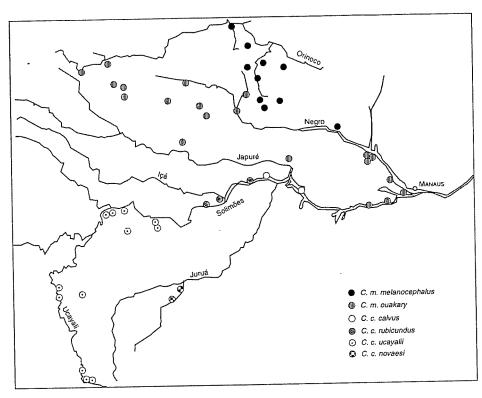


Fig. 2. Geographic distribution of recorded localities for the subspecies of the genus *Cacajao*. Data from Hershkovitz [4] and Boubli [28].

and Cunha [25], however, found *C. m. ouakary* alongside the lower Uaupés where the river is at least 1,500 m wide. Maps in Rylands [26] indicate that this species has also been recorded from the mainstream Rio Negro in the Barcelos region. Local informants told Fontaine [1] that red uakaris tend to avoid river banks in the dry season, when they move to aguajal (swamp forest dominated by the palm *M. flexuosa*). Cunha and Barnett [23] failed to find *C. melanocephalus* in the igapó forests of small black-water rivers and 'lakes', but did find it in the taller igapó along the side of large rivers.

Seasonal Migration

Though frequently regarded as an inhabitant of riparian and flooded forest, evidence is accumulating that *Cacajao* is, at least regionally, a seasonal migrant to terra firme forest. Such movements follow patterns of food availability in flooded and terra firme forest.

In Colombia, Defler [27] noted that, while other species of primate were attracted to, but not dependent on, the wet-season abundance of fruit in the igapó, this resource appeared crucial for *Cacajao*. *C. m. ouakary* 'was almost constantly over the water of

the igapó at the early stages of the annual flooding cycle in June and July, when a strong flux of fruit is available'. As 'the foods in the igapó become exhausted, *Cacajao* begin to forage farther inland. By December and January, they are making wide foraging loops away from the igapó; I have seen them up to 1.5 km inland from the edge of the igapó' [27, p. 53]. In Brazil, 9 of 12 interviewees informed Cunha and Barnett [23] that *C. m. onakary* occurred in igapó only during the winter months when rain is heaviest and waters at their highest. At other times it was said to move either to terra firme forest or to unknown or unspecified areas. Mittermeier and Coimbra-Filho [15] received similar intelligence. Boubli [28] observed *C. m. melanocephalus* away from riversides. Fontaine [29] firmly believed and Heymann [30, pers. commun.] strongly suspects that seasonal or periodic movements by *C. c. ucayalii* also occur. *C. c. calvus* cannot seasonally migrate between seasonally flooded and permanently dry forest types, as it is restricted to a huge fluvial island.

Several studies [31–33] have shown seasonal changes in ranging behaviour and diet for primate species of the Amazonian terra firme forests. Four such species seasonally migrated between várzea and terra firme on the Tapajós river, and Branch [34] attributed it to shifts in food availabilty. Seasonal migrations between habitats have been recorded in Africa [35] and Asia [36]. Jolly [37] believed Allen's swamp monkey (Allenopithecus nigroviridis) to be the Old World Cacajao analogue. The Zaïrian swamp forests which it inhabits are permanently inundated and the species has not been recorded undergoing any form of seasonal migration [38, 39].

Diet

Preliminary data indicate a uniformity of diet in all uakaris. Like bearded sakis, they are now regarded as hard-fruit dietary specialists [11, 40–42]. Morphologically, this is indicated by their exceptionally robust and divergent canines.

Over an 18-month period, the staple 13% of nearly 100 plant species in the diet of *C. c. calvus* was found to be the hard-shelled fruit of *Eschweilera turbinata* [3]. Seeds of immature fruit from trees and lianas totalled some 67% of feeding observations, with 43.8% of the diet being from one liana and four tree species. Almost half the feeding records were from plants with large (10–100 g) fruits. Most of these had hard or thick shells, and 82% were selected for young seeds. Seventy percent of small (1–10 g) fruits were selected for their mature pulp. The biochemical constituents varied. Ayres [11] concluded that *C. c. calvus* adopts a mixed-feeding strategy to maximise nutrient intake and minimise handling times. He inferred that *Cacajao* is a frugivore specialising on immature seeds.

Over a twelve-month period, Aquino [17] recorded *Cacajao c. ucayalii* feeding on the fruits of some 50 tree species, of which the most important were *Couma macrocarpa* (Apocynaceae), *Schistostemon* spp. (Humiraceae), *Eschweilera* spp. (Lechythidace), *M. flexuosa, Pouteria* spp. (Sapotaceae), *Rhigospira quadrangularis* (Apocynaceae) and *Parahancornia peruviana* (Apocynaceae). The majority of these have hard-shelled fruits. Seeds constituted 51% of the diet, fruit mesocarps 26%. The ripeness of the fruit was unrecorded. In Peru, the thick-shelled fruits of four tree species were eaten [16]. The seeds were ingested of three (*Micrandra spruceana:* Euphorbiaceae, *Parkia oppositifolia:* Mimosaceae and an unidentified species), of the seven plant species the fruits of which Heymann [30] recorded in its diet. Local

inhabitants informed Fontaine [29] that *C. c. ucayalii* fed on species of *Inga* (Mimosaceae) and various Rubiaceae, including *Bothriospora corymbosa*, *Duroia longifolia* and *Warscewiczia coccinia*. The plant parts eaten were not specified.

In Venezuela, Lehman and Robertson [21, 22] observed *C. m. melanocephalus* eating the 'heavily armoured fruit' of *Manilkara bidentata* or *M. zapota* (Sapotaceae) and of *Mauritia flexuosa* (Palmae). The former have shell thicknesses of 7 mm, the latter of 10 mm. In Brazil, Boubli [43] observed *C. m. melanocephalus* eating seeds of unripe fruits of *Cunaria* sp. (Euphorbiaceae). Defler [27] has reported *C. m. ouakary* feeding on immature *Eschweilera* sp. in Colombia. In each case, the animals broke open the fruits to eat the seeds.

Cunha and Barnett [23, 24] recorded three dietary items for *Cacajao m. ouakary* in Brazil. The fruit of one (*Gomphiluma gomphifolium*), is small and soft, while that of another, also a Sapotaceae (either *Labatia macrocarpa* or *Pseudolabatia penicillata*) is the size and shape of a tennis ball, with a hard shell up to 4 mm thick. The walls of the fruit of *Swartzia polyphylla* (Papilionaceae) are up to 10 mm thick, but are spongy [24, 25]. Local Tucano indians told them that these monkeys also fed on unripe fruits of *Aldinia latifolia* (Caesalpiniacaeae), and the ripe fruits of *Manilkara surinamensis* and *Hevea* sp. (Euphorbiaceae, probably *H. spruceana*). Though an *Eschweilera* species (*E. tenuifolia*) was quite common at their Uaupés river study site, Barnett and Cunha [25] observed no uakaris feeding on it, nor evidence of attributable seed predation. Local informants reported that this species was not eaten by *C. m. ouakary*.

Gut proportions indicate that *C. melanocephalus* may be more folivorous than *C. calvus* [44, 45]. Despite the success of this method in predicting diet, Cunha and Barnett [23] countered that the low-crowned molars with nearly obsolete cusps of *Cacajao* seem ill-adapted to masticate the small, thick and tough leaves of igapó trees. Leaves, important to most *Pithecia* [46], are a minor item in the diet of both *Chiropotes satanas* [47] and *C. albinasus* [48]. The food passage rate in *Pithecia* is unusually slow for a pitheciine [46]. Those for *Cacajao* and *Chiropotes* [49] are both typical for frugivores. Perhaps the gut modifications are to facilitate the digestion of seeds or unripe fruit.

In the dry season, Ayres [3] observed *C. c. calvus* eating caterpillars and taking nectar. Ayres [11] found large numbers of noctuid caterpillars in the stomachs of *C. c. calvus* and *C. m. melanocephalus*. Captive *C. c. rubicundus* eat invertebrates [50, 51]. Similar behaviour has been reported in wild *Chiropotes* [52, 53], and in captive wild-caught *Pithecia* [54, 55]. Insectivory in *Chiropotes* is most common in the dry season [56]. *C. c. calvus* plucked seeds and seedlings from the seasonally exposed floor of várzea forest [11], and Aquino [17] reported *C. c. ucayalii* feeding on epiphytes (including bromeliads) at this time. *Pithecia albicans* increases the proportion of leaves in its diet during the seasonal scarcity of fruit [56, 57].

The dry season folivory adopted by *P. albicans*, and the extensive dry season insectivory practised by *Chiropotes* and *C. calvus* may not be an option for *C. melanocephalus*. Compared to those of terra firme or várzea, leaves of igapó forest trees are smaller, heavier, and have a lower nutrient concentration [58]. As the white sand soils on which igapó grows are exceptionally nutrient-poor [13], their foliage may be predicted to contain high levels of secondary compounds deterrent to folivores [59]. This might render not only the leaves, but also folivorous insects ingesting plant-derived toxins, inedible to an occasional or facultative folivore and/or insectivore.

Terra firme forests are botanically more diverse than igapó [60], and in central Amazonia have a dry season peak in availability of immature fruits [14, 31]. Cunha and Barnett [23] suggested this might induce dry season migration from the adjacent igapó by a fruit- and seed-eating specialist like *C. melanocephalus*. Among the alternative sources of food exposed in the igapó during this period, are the eggs from the nesting beaches of river turtles (*Podocnemis* spp.) which *C. melanocephalus* has been seen raiding [Clare and Clare, pers. commun. to A.A.B., 1991]. The significance of this resource in its annual diet is unknown.

There are strong similarities between the diets of *Chiropotes* and *Cacajao* in, for example, the high proportion of unripe seeds in their diet and the importance of members of the Lecythidaceae [11, 61–63]. This, and their allopatry (fig. 1) were factors which led Ayres [11] to propose that the two taxa are fluvial/terra firme sister taxa, occupying the same ecological niche in their respective forest types. Electrophoretic analysis of blood proteins led Schneider et al. [64] to propose that the two formed a clade within the subfamily Pitheciinae, with *Pithecia* more distantly related.

Social Organization

Ayres [3] reported multi-male groups for *C. c. calvus*. From the high degree of tolerance shown by same-sex adults in captivity (such as minimal food competition), Fontaine [50] speculated that free-living *C. c. ucayalii* live in age-graded or multi-male groups with many or all of equal rank. Cunha and Barnett [23] presented preliminary data which indicate a similar social organization in *C. m. ouakary*. The absence of an inter-male dominance hierarchy accords with the data of Kay et al. [6] who reviewed the correlation between social structure and canine sexual dimorphism in platyrrhine monkeys. Cunha and Barnett [23] found that some male *C. m. ouakary* made threat displays (pilo-erection and vocalizations) while the rest of the troop withdrew. This indication of some inter-sexual behavioural variation parallels the distraction displays in *Pithecia* recorded by Johns [45].

Group Size

Uakaris have been recorded in both small and large groups. *C. melanocephalus* occurs in groups of from 4 to 100 individuals. Most groups number about 50 [15, 23, 25, 27]. *C. c. calvus* [3], *C. c. rubicundus* [65] and *C. c. ucayalii* [16, 17] have similar group sizes, with a maximum of 120 in *C. c. ucayalii* [17]. Both *C. c. calvus* troops [3] and *C. c. ucayalii* troops [16, 30] frequently subdivide to forage. Smaller groups are probably subdivisions of larger ones. Large groups may be temporary aggregations of more than one group [27].

Mixed-Species Associations

Associations have been reported between C. melanocephalus and Saimiri sciureus and/or Cebus apella, or with Cebus albifrons [15]. C. c. ucayalii has frequently been seen with S. sciureus and Lagothrix lagothricha, and occasionally with Pithecia

monachus, C. apella and C. albifrons [17, 20, 30]. Ayres [3] reported mixed groups of C. c. calvus and C. c. rubicundus. The lack of interspecific associations in C. m. ouakary noticed by Cunha and Barnett [23], however, was not contradicted by direct questioning of local informants.

Biogeography

From his studies of South American mammals, especially primates, Hershkovitz [4, 66, 67] coined the term 'metachromism' for trends in pelage and skin colouration. He believed they represented a non-adaptive long-term evolutionary process, commencing with agouti colour (which he regarded as primitive), and terminating with complete bleaching to albinotic. Brandon-Jones' initial resistance to this concept gave way to qualified acceptance when his systematic revision of the Asian Colobinae confirmed that they were subject to comparable chromatic successions [68–71]. The Asian colobines, however, display a more limited colour sequence which can be expressed simplistically as black to grey to brown and, sometimes, onwards to red and albinotic.

In the simple-nosed Asian Colobinae, the predominantly black-pelaged populations in such sequences inhabit areas identifiable as glacial refugia by an abundance of endemic species, and the presence of others whose closest relatives are geographically remote. The areas occupied by brown, red and albinotic morphs cannot be so categorized. It is inferred that black pelage is an ancestral rather than a primitive character, and that the black-pelaged populations were the sole survivors of a species whose preglacial distribution was fragmented by the cold dry climate accompanying the glaciations. The implication is not that mammals are relentlessly evolving towards an albino future, but that albinism is the end-product of the relatively short-term period of recolonization as the rainforest and its inhabitants reclaim the areas vacated during the glaciation. Integumental colour variation in the Asian colobines indicates that the blackish colour may be irretrievable in populations which have acquired the red or albinistic condition, but that some of the brownish species, notably Semnopithecus (Trachypithecus) obscurus, appear to be reverting to the pre-glacial colour. The integumental colour dilution appears to be an unstable process associated with rapid dispersal into post-glacially regenerating habitat.

Cacajao inhabits a region thought to have been deforested by the cold dry periods of the glaciations, and which includes several presumed glacial refugia [72]. Applying conclusions drawn from the Asian colobines, may, therefore, assist in investigating the biogeography of the genus. Although their geographic distribution (fig. 2) is irregular, the six Cacajao taxa recognized by Hershkovitz [4] can be arranged into a chromatic succession. The predominantly black C. m. melanocephalus represents the most saturated form, and C. c. calvus the most dilute. C. m. melanocephalus is restricted to a small area of southern Venezuela and adjacent Brazil [28]. It apparently intergrades with C. m. ouakary whose distribution extends south-westwards to the Río Japurá, westwards into Colombia, and south-eastwards to the Rio Negro-Rio Solimões confluence. The slight dilution in pelage colour on the upper part of the back in C. m. melanocephalus, intensifies in C. m. ouakary to a reddish yellow, with a reddish suffusion throughout most of the black of the rest of the body. In C. c. rubicundus, which has a small distribution on either side of the mouth of the Río Japurá, the black is almost completely supplanted by red, and the reddish colour on the upper part of the

back by yellow. This dorsal colour substitution is more uniform in *C. c. ucayalii*, which occurs along the east bank of the Río Ucayali and below the Río Amazonas near Iquitos. The orange-buff pelage colour of *C. c. novaesi* (not personally examined), from near the mouth of Río Tarauacá tributary of the Río Juruá, culminates in the almost complete albinism of *C. c. calvus*, which is distributed on the Amazon between *C. c. rubicundus* and *C. m. ouakary*.

It is conceivable that *Cacajao* has dispersed along the pathway suggested by the above chromatic succession. The distribution of *C. m. melanocephalus* coincides with that of previously identified refugial populations [72]. The disproportionately larger distribution of *C. m. ouakary* perhaps represents the comparatively pronounced first stage of population expansion. The next stage, *C. c. rubicundus*, however, represents an anomalous constriction in the dispersal from *C. m. ouakary* to *C. c. ucayalii*. The reality of this constriction remains to be confirmed by an intensive survey of primate distribution on the Río Içá and Río Putumayo. Available evidence suggests the genus then re-expands in distribution as *C. c. ucayalii*. The tiny reported distribution of *C. c. novaesi* is probably an artefact of inadequate surveying, and it would be very instructive to learn whether there are populations further downstream on the Río Juruá, and whether these are intermediate with *C. c. calvus*.

The near circular dispersal route implied by this interpretation appears less paradoxical when it is appreciated that the location of inferred glacial refugia indicates the presence of a dry zone in central south Amazonas during the Pleistocene glaciations. Rainforest regeneration would have been correlated with the gradual post-glacial recession of this dry zone. A population to the west of it would predictably skirt round it in the manner displayed by C. c. ucayalii. As the climate moistened, rainforest would have concentrically encroached further, thus accounting for the location of the palest populations. Doubtless this interpretation is over-simplified, and the reddish pelage colour of the golden snub-nosed monkey, Pygathrix roxellana, for example, demonstrates that presumed glacial refugial primates can display such colour [71]. It and one or more populations of C. calvus may be analagous in having originally evolved as the product of a chromatic succession as described above, and having subsequently become isolated by encirclement by a cold dry climatic zone inimical to their habitat requirement. The remission of such climatic barriers could explain why C. calvus populations are more morphologically discrete from each other than a conventional clinal subspecific distribution would predict, with troops containing both red and white individuals reported in the contact zone between their geographic ranges [3].

C. m. melanocephalus with its diluted dorsal pelage area, is an unsatisfactory candidate as the principal glacial relic population of the genus. This begs the question of relationships with other genera. The most closely related extant genus is Chiropotes, a genus which is distinguished only by its smaller skull and longer tail. Such differences have been considered inadequate to separate, for example, the Asian colobines, Nasalis and Simias at more than subgeneric level [73]. The relative insignificance of tail length is highlighted by its observed variation in Chiropotes satanas chiropotes. Two Natural History Museum, London specimens (ZD.1910.5.4.3 and 1910.9.29.5, with undoubtedly intact tails, but regrettably without field measurements) from the River Supinaam, Guyana, have tail lengths measured along the bone in the study skins of about 290 mm, while that of a third specimen (ZD.1910.9.29.4) from the same locality is the more typical 350 mm. These Guyana skins also seem to have a consistently paler dorsal pelage colour than NHM skins of the same subspecies from Brazil,

and less-pronounced temporal hair clumps. This opens the possibility that the melanic *Chiropotes s. satanas* or *C. albinasus* (whose geographic distributions are shown in fig. 1) is the earliest glacial relic population of *Cacajao* and *Chiropotes*, and that these taxa are congeneric, if not consubgeneric. Modern Asian primate distribution was moulded by at least two dry glacial periods [68, 70, 71], the first more severe than the second. The subordinate status to *C. s. satanas* and/or *C. albinasus* of *C. m. melanocephalus* as a glacial relic, might result from it existing as such during only the second dry period.

Conservation

Uakaris are listed as Indeterminate/Vulnerable by the IUCN [75] and are in Appendix I of CITES. Over much of their range their status is unknown. Typical densities vary from 2.5 [76] to 47 [77] individuals per square kilometre, but can be much lower [20, 29]. This variation results partly from differences in productivity between various habitat types [9, 59, 78], but human impacts are important [17, 20, 29].

The uakari's riparian habitat makes it especially vulnerable to hunting [21, 22, 27]. It may be preferentially hunted [20–22, 27, 79] or taken only when other species are unavailable [25]. In some places, local hunting taboos protect *Cacajao* and high densities are achieved [77]. Elsewhere, it has been almost extirpated by hunting [17, 18, 29, 80, 81].

Uakaris are captured and used for live bait by hunters of big cats on the lower Rio Negro [15]. The former pet trade in uakaris has now largely ceased as a commercial enterprise [15, 21, 82, 83], although it still affects some *C. c. ucayalii* populations in Peru [18]. Uakaris fare poorly in close confinement, and are therefore not favoured as laboratory animals [84].

C. melanocephalus declines in areas of degraded igapó [79]. The effects of habitat disturbance such as logging and oil exploration, have not been objectively examined in Cacajao, but neither Chiropotes nor Pithecia thrive in such disturbance [85]. C. c. ucayalii is threatened by logging and other non-sustainable forms of forest resource exploitation which threaten uakari populations through both habitat disturbance and through removal of important food sources (notably Mauritia flexuosa and Couma macrocarpa) [17, 20, 29]. Red uakaris have bred in captivity [86], but Cacajao is poorly represented in zoological collections. No captive breeding programmes exist, so conservation efforts will have to be restricted to the wild. Currently, only the future of C. c. calvus seems assured, as its population is protected by the special status and high profile of the Mamirauá Ecological Station [87]. Other national parks within the range of Cacajao taxa, such as Pico de Neblina, are far from secure [21, 22, 28].

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Appendix: Research Priorities

Ecology

The reality of seasonal migration. (All taxa, except C. c. calvus.)

Habitat influences on group density. (All taxa.)

Seasonal variation in group size. (All taxa, except C. c. calvus.)

Further data on diet and its selection. Dietary influences on social structure. (All taxa, except C. c. calvus. Priority investigation of C. c. novaesi.)

The validity of the black-water/white-water habitat divergence. Priority investigation of the area between the Japura and Negro.

Reproductive season, inter-birth intervals and age at sexual maturity.

Biogeography

The distributional limits, especially the eastern and western ones for C. m. melanocephalus and C. m. ouakary. The validity of the Rio Negro as the southern barrier for C. m. melanocephalus. To confirm or refute reports of an all-black uakari on the Rio Curicuriari.

To confirm or refute reports of C. c. calvus south of the Rio Solimões.

The reality or the restricted known distribution of C. c. novaesi.

Status and Conservation

Population estimates. (All taxa.)

Estimates of sensitivity to hunting, logging, eco-tourism. (All taxa.)

Recent extinctions: Comparison of current distributions with those derived from museum specimens.

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