

# Old World fruit bats can be long-distance seed dispersers through extended retention of viable seeds in the gut

# Louise A. Shilton<sup>1</sup>†, John D. Altringham<sup>1</sup>, Stephen G. Compton<sup>1</sup> and Robert J. Whittaker<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Biology, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK
<sup>2</sup>School of Geography, University of Oxford, Mansfield Road, Oxford OX1 3TB, UK

Seed dispersal and pollination by animals play a crucial role in the maintenance of forest ecosystems worldwide. Frugivorous bats are important pollen and seed dispersers in both the Palaeo- and Neotropics, and at least 300 plant species are known to rely on Old World fruit bats (Megachiroptera, Pteropodidae) for their propagation. However, rapid food transit times (generally less than 30 minutes) in frugivorous bats have been thought to limit their ability to disperse seeds to just a few tens of kilometres. Here we demonstrate regular daytime (>12 hours) retention of food and viable fig seeds (Ficus, Moraceae) in the gut of the Old World fruit bat Cynopterus sphinx: a behaviour not previously reported for any frugivorous bat. Field observations indicate that this behaviour also occurs in other genera. Old World fruit bats are highly mobile and many species undertake considerable foraging and migration flights. Our findings indicate that Old World fruit bats have the potential to disperse small seeds hundreds of kilometres. This necessitates a reappraisal of their importance in transporting zoochorous seeds to remote areas and facilitating gene flow between isolated populations of plants, both within mainlands and across ocean barriers.

**Keywords:** long-distance seed dispersal; Megachiroptera; tropical forest regeneration; gut passage; seed germination; *Ficus* 

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Animals play an important role in the dispersal of seed plants worldwide (Ridley 1930; van der Pijl 1982) and are crucial for the flow of plant propagules between isolated habitats (Cox et al. 1991; World Conservation Monitoring Centre 1992) and thus for the maintenance of forest ecosystems (Fleming & Heithaus 1981; Marshall 1983; Howe 1984; Whittaker & Jones 1994; Rainey et al. 1995). Of almost 1000 bat species worldwide, about 300 feed exclusively or primarily on plant products. Frugivorous bats are important pollen and seed dispersers in both the Palaeo- (van der Pijl 1982; Marshall 1983; Boon & Corlett 1989; Cox et al. 1991; Fujita & Tuttle 1991; Utzurrum & Heideman 1991; Mickleburgh et al. 1992; Whittaker & Jones 1994; Rainey et al. 1995; Eby 1996; Funakoshi & Zubaid 1997) and Neotropics (Fleming & Heithaus 1981). Old World fruit bats (Megachiroptera, Pteropodidae) are highly mobile (Webb & Tidemann 1996) and at least 300 plant species of nearly 200 genera are known to rely on them for either pollination and/or seed dispersal (Marshall 1983; Fujita & Tuttle 1991). Furthermore, these plants produce around 500 economically valuable products (Fujita & Tuttle 1991).

The colonization of remote islands by zoochorous plants has often been attributed almost entirely to birds (Ridley 1930; Docters van Leeuwen 1936; Carlquist 1967; Thornton 1996, p. 115). For instance, van der Pijl (1957) reported a 'peculiar disregard of bats' by early workers (see also Docters van Leeuwen 1936; Whittaker & Jones 1994). Feeding studies of some birds have shown that they can retain viable seeds in their gut for 'maximum' periods sufficient potentially to transport them several thousand kilometres (Proctor 1968). Similar studies of frugivorous bats have tended to report mean or mean minimum (our emphasis) food transit times (Fleming & Heithaus 1981; Tedman & Hall 1985; Boon & Corlett 1989; Laska 1990; Utzurrum & Heideman 1991; Eby 1996). Since food transit times in frugivorous bats are generally less than 30 minutes, these studies have lent weight to the assumption that bats are unable to transport seeds across distances exceeding those covered during a typical 30 minute commuting flight (Richards 1990; Whittaker Jones 1994; Eby 1996; Thornton 1994, 1996, pp. 126, 146; Thornton et al. 1996). A striking example of this is the recolonization of post-eruption Krakatau, Indonesia (Verbeek 1884). Although only about 40 km from mainland Java and Sumatra, the role of bats in transporting seeds there has repeatedly been underrated (Docters van Leeuwen 1936; Thornton 1994, 1996). despite the early arrival of bat-dispersed fig trees (Ficus, Moraceae) (Docters van Leeuwen 1936; Whittaker & Jones 1994; Thornton 1994, 1996; Thornton et al. 1996).

<sup>†</sup>Present address: Department of Forestry, School of Resource Management and Environmental Science, Australian National University, ACT 0200, Australia (louise.shilton@anu.edu.au).

When studying fruit bats in Indonesia (West Java, Krakatau and Sebesi Island), bats captured around dusk were often observed to defecate dark, viscous faeces, which occasionally contained seeds, and which typically lacked the colour and texture of the fruits eaten that characterizes fresh fruit bat faeces (Thomas 1988). Seventeen bats, almost certainly captured before feeding that day, produced such faeces: seven *Cynopterus sphinx*, three *C. titthaecheilus*, two *C. horsfieldi*, four *Rousettus amplexicaudatus* and a single *R. leschenaulti*.

During preliminary captive feeding trials with seven wild-caught C. sphinx in Bogor, West Java, bats were observed to defecate before feeding on 16 occasions. These faeces were dark and viscous, resembling those observed in the field, and readily distinguished from the usual faeces of rapidly processed food. We supplied fig seeds with food, since fruit bats regularly consume figs in the wild (Docters van Leeuwen 1936; van der Pijl 1957; Fleming & Heithaus 1981; Fujita & Tuttle 1991; Utzurrum & Heideman 1991; Mickleburgh et al. 1992; Whittaker & Jones 1994; Rainey et al. 1995; Eby 1996; Funakoshi & Zubaid 1997). These observations of gut-retained food, sometimes voided in up to five or six separate faeces, appeared to explain the occasional occurrence of small numbers (1–7) of fig seeds of a Ficus species provided in the previous trial. Seeds of a single Ficus species only were used in any one feeding trial (i.e. on any one evening). The seeds of the species used (F. heterophylla, F. ribes, F. septica and F. variegata) can be distinguished on the basis of seed-coat texture and seed morphology (unpublished data).

These observations of wild and captive pteropodid bats led us to hypothesize that they retain food in their gut through the day, most probably their last feed of the previous night, and that this retained food may include seeds. We conducted a series of experiments to test this hypothesis.

# 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

# (a) Animal housing

Seven C. sphinx, six males and one female, were captured using mist-nets in the Royal Botanic Garden, Bogor (106° 45′ E, Bats were housed individually in  $(450 \,\mathrm{mm} \times 600 \,\mathrm{mm} \times 800 \,\mathrm{mm})$  in ambient light and temperature conditions (average annual temperature in Bogor is 25 °C; Wernstedt 1972). Cages were sufficient to enable limited flight, since the wingspan of C. sphinx is around 400 mm (L. A. Shilton, unpublished data). Water was provided ad libitum, and a vitamin and mineral supplemented maintenance diet (cf. Barnard 1995, p. 92) of 150 g of chopped papaya with small amounts of other cultivated fruits was supplied between dusk (18.00) and dawn (06.00). Bats were allowed two weeks to adjust to captivity, before experimental trials commenced. During feeding trials faecal material was collected for examination when uneaten food was removed. At release, 78 days after capture, bats weighed within 1.8% of their capture weight  $(75.3 \pm 13.36 \,\mathrm{g, mean} \pm \mathrm{s.d.}, n = 7).$ 

#### (b) Do fruit bats retain food throughout the day?

In the first experiment we conducted seven trials without seeds to test for daytime gut retention of ingested food. Bait was used in three trials; fresh-cut ripe, odorous, papaya was suspended outside each cage, serving as an olfactory stimulus. Empty feeder bowls were put in position at 18.00, as usual, since the bats may have learnt to associate this act with the availability of food. Food was not supplied to the bats until either all the bats had produced faeces of gut-retained food or until at least midnight (00.00), whichever event came first. We checked for gut-retained faeces each hour. Uneaten food was removed at dawn, and so the duration of food retention was estimated using 06.00 as the latest possible time for food ingestion. We thus report the period of food retention in the gut of *C. sphinx* over and above the approximately 12 h daytime resting period.

#### (c) Can seeds be retained in the gut?

We used seeds of two *Ficus* species, *F. septica* and *F. variegata*, to test whether seeds could be retained in the gut for longer than 12 h. Figs of both *Ficus* species are commonly consumed by *Cynopterus* bats (Thornton 1996; Funakoshi & Zubaid 1997), including *C. sphinx* (L. A. Shilton, unpublished data), in the wild. Both *Ficus* are functionally dioecious, thus figs were picked from a single female (seed-producing) tree of each species. Figs were collected at the same time and stored at 4 °C in a refrigerator for a maximum of 7 d.

Figs were selected for use in trials on the basis of ripeness and the stage of seed development. The small seeds, averaging 1.23 mm in length for both F. septica and F. variegata (s.d. = 0.08 mm, n=10, F. septica; s.d. = 0.07 mm, n=10,F. variegata) (L. A. Shilton and J. M. Watt, unpublished data), were removed from figs and mixed with chopped papaya. A sample of approximately 200 seeds was kept for a control (noningested) treatment. Nine trials were conducted with seeds of F. septica on five evenings and F. variegata on four evenings. On the first two nights the seed content of six F. variegata figs (each containing 700-800 seeds) and then 12 F. septica figs (each containing 600-700 seeds) were used. The next seven trials used the seed content of 20 figs, providing each bat with the seed content of approximately 2.5 figs. F. septica figs were used on four evenings and F. variegata figs on three evenings. Faeces of gutretained food were removed before food was supplied each evening, and rapidly passed faeces were collected at 06.00 the day following the feeding trial. Seeds were separated from faeces by washing in a fine (0.5 mm<sup>2</sup>) mesh sieve, identified using a binocular microscope and counted.

#### (d) Can seeds germinate after retention in the gut?

In order for zoochorous plants to colonize areas after internal transport, their seeds must be able to germinate after gut passage. We therefore attempted to germinate seeds from the nine feeding trials described in the previous paragraph. Seeds were from three treatments: control (non-ingested), ingested (generally defecated within 1 h) and retained (in the gut >12 h). Seeds were sown on dampened filter paper in sterile Petri dishes under a 12 h light:12 h dark cycle. Seeds from each ingested and retained treatment (replicated across bats) were identified under a binocular microscope before sowing; all retained seeds were of the Ficus species provided the previous evening. Each retained seed was sown, as numbers were small (1-118 seeds in faeces of gut-retained food), whereas a random subsample of approximately 200 seeds was sown from control and ingested treatments (table 1). High moisture content was maintained in Petri dishes by regular watering. Germination was recorded as the extension of the hypocotyl more than 1mm beyond the exocarp (cf. Murphy et al. 1993). Each germinated seed was counted and removed at approximately 3-day intervals. We used the

Table 1. Probabilities of germination of Ficus septica and F. variegata seeds

(Probabilities of germination, from logistic regression analysis, of control (non-ingested), ingested (generally defecated within 1 h) and retained (in the gut > 12 h) F. septica and F. variegata seeds supplied to seven Cynopterus sphinx. Mean germination probability is shown with lower and upper 95% confidence intervals in square brackets. Large confidence intervals for retained seeds are due to small seed numbers.)

| seed treatment  | no. of samples | no. of seeds      | germination<br>probability |
|-----------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| Ficus septica   |                |                   |                            |
| control         | 9              | $212.1 \pm 107.9$ | 0.38 [0.33,0.44]           |
| ingested        | 35             | $246.5 \pm 113.4$ | 0.51 [0.48, 0.54]          |
| retained        | 26             | $10.9 \pm 23.3$   | 0.41 [0.27, 0.57]          |
| Ficus variegata |                |                   | . , ,                      |
| control         | 6              | $202.2 \pm 40.3$  | 0.94 [0.91,0.97]           |
| ingested        | 28             | $224.3 \pm 47.5$  | 0.93 [0.91,0.94]           |
| retained        | 17             | $9.2 \pm 12.4$    | 0.99 [0.70,0.99]           |

proportion of seeds that had germinated by day 28 in analysis, since 95% of seedlings of these *Ficus* species that germinated from topsoil samples from Krakatau did so within 29 days of sowing (Whittaker *et al.* 1995).

#### (e) Statistical analyses

Logistic regression analysis was conducted to estimate and test treatment effects on seed germination probability, at day 28, in both *Ficus* species. Heterogeneity between trials, and between bats in trials (dispersion parameter=7.251 for *Ficus septica* and 4.540 for *F. variegata*) was adjusted for by using variance ratio statistics. Statistical computation was done using Genstat<sup>TM</sup> 5 Release 3 (Genstat 5 Committee 1993).

#### 3. RESULTS

#### (a) Daytime gut retention of food

Bats became active shortly before dusk, making frequent short flights within their cage. This activity did not induce defecation, which occurred between dusk and 01.00~(>12~h~to~>18~h~gut~retention). Furthermore, the time of defecation was not accelerated by the presence of odorous bait on three nights. Retained food was voided 1-3~h after dark (>12~h~to~>15~h~gut~retention) by at least five of the seven bats on these three evenings, and  $6.6\pm0.8$  bats produced retained faeces in the seven trials. We concluded that these fruit bats regularly, perhaps routinely, retain ingested food in the gut from one night to the following evening.

## (b) Daytime gut retention of ingested seeds

When the seed content of six F variegata and 12 F septica figs was supplied to the seven bats, seeds were present in the gut-retained faeces of one bat and three bats, respectively. When the seed content of 20 figs was supplied, seeds were present in 79.6% of retained food faeces in these seven trials. Food was retained >12 h in the gut of  $6.78 \pm 0.4$  bats in the nine trials, compared with  $6.6 \pm 0.8$  bats in the seven trials without seeds. Thus, ingestion of seeds did not affect whether food was retained in the gut,

and despite relatively low provisioning of seeds in these experiments, compared to the number of figs and seeds that might be ingested in the wild (cf. Morrison 1980; Thomas 1984), bats frequently retained seeds of *F. septica* and *F. variegata* in the gut for  $>12 \,\mathrm{h}$  ( $5.6 \pm 0.8 \,\mathrm{bats}$ , n=7). In several instances, food and seeds were retained  $>18 \,\mathrm{h}$ .

#### (c) Seed germination

Table 1 shows the mean germination probabilities of control, ingested and retained seeds with lower and upper 95% confidence intervals. The two species germinated at very different levels, with F. septica germination probability being consistently lower than F. variegata, and there was a significant (p=0.004) difference between treatments within Ficus species. Treatment effects were significant in F. septica (p<0.001), but there was no treatment effect in F. variegata (p=0.12).

Seeds retained in the gut of *C. sphinx* > 12 h germinated at least as well as non-ingested control seeds in both *Ficus* species. Thus, although confidence intervals are large due to the small seed numbers in this treatment, gut retention of these small *Ficus* seeds does not appear to adversely affect seed viability, and seeds retained in the gut > 12 h have the potential to germinate and establish after gut passage.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

Frugivorous bats have an unusual mode of fruit processing by which the fruit is largely handled externally: the fruit pulp is squeezed between the palate and the tongue to extract and ingest the juice (Morrison 1980; Thomas 1984; Bonaccorso & Gush 1987; Charles-Dominique 1991). Despite external fruit handling, frugivorous bats have been reported to swallow as much as 80% of the tiny seeds of figs (Morrison 1980). Only small seeds are ingested by frugivorous bats as the gastrointestinal tract of frugivorous bats is narrow (Docters van Leeuwen 1935; Boon & Corlett 1989; Richards 1990). Seeds up to a maximum of 5 mm may be ingested by Pteropus conspicillatus, the spectacled flying-fox, since the anterior lumen of the oesophagus is about 5 mm in diameter in this species (Richards 1990). P. poliocephalus, the greyheaded flying-fox (700-950 g), ingested seeds up to a maximum size of 4.2 mm during captive feeding studies (Eby 1996). The gullet of some Cynopterus species is 2-2.5 mm in diameter (Docters van Leeuwen 1935). Thus, Cynopterus bats may be expected to spit out seeds greater than 2.5 mm. C. brachyotis, the lesser dog-faced fruit bat, ingested and dispersed seeds of 2.3 mm in greatest diameter in Singapore (Boon & Corlett 1989).

Fleshy fruits, including figs, are often low in protein and lipids, but high in carbohydrates (e.g. Martínez del Rio & Restrepo 1993; Conklin & Wrangham 1994). Frugivorous bats generally consume large quantities of fruit each night, often in excess of their own body mass (Morrison 1980; Thomas 1984, 1988; Izhaki et al. 1995), and thus must pass digesta rapidly through the gut. Various studies have documented rapid food transit times, frequently of less than 30 min, and usually less than 1 h, between food ingestion and the initial defecation in frugivorous bats (Docters van Leeuwen 1935; Nelson 1965; Morrison 1980; Fleming & Heithaus 1981; Utzurrum

1984; Tedman & Hall 1985; Boon & Corlett 1989; Laska 1990; Charles-Dominique 1991; Utzurrum & Heideman 1991; Eby 1996), with passage times largely unaffected by the fruit being eaten (Richardson et al. 1987).

Laska (1990) reported mean gut-passage times of 22 min in Carollia perspicillata to 34 min in Phyllostomus discolor. In Old World fruit bats gut-passage times have been reported to be similarly rapid (Docters van Leeuwen 1935; Utzurrum 1984; Tedman & Hall 1985; Boon & Corlett 1989; Utzurrum & Heideman 1991; Eby 1996). Utzurrum & Heideman (1991) reported gutpassage times of 20-45 min in Nyctimene rabori and Ptenochirus jagori fed on ripe F. chrysolepis figs. Boon & Corlett (1989) reported gut-passage times of 11-15 min in captive C. brachyotis that averaged 37 g in body mass. Although Richardson et al. (1987) found C. brachyotis and Pteropus vampyrus to have mean gut-passage times of 7.5 h and 5.5 h, respectively, they concluded that both species had an extremely rapid passage of food, with tiny polymer bead markers first appearing within 30 min of ingestion.

As far as we are aware, the behaviour of retaining food in the gut through the daytime resting phase has not previously been reported for any frugivorous bat. Laska (1990), in his study of gut passage in three frugivorous phyllostomid species (Carollia perspicillata, Phyllostomus discolor and Sturnira lileum), found no evidence for daytime food retention. However, it is conceivable that the use of a chocolate-brown food dve to mark ingested food (banana) could have masked whether initial defecations were of gut-retained food, since these defecations are characteristically dark. Furthermore, gut retention of food during the daytime rest phase could also explain observations such as those of Charles-Dominique (1991, p. 248) of C. perspicillata producing the first defecation just 5 min after ingestion of food, in the beginning of the evening when the bat is very active. Since digestive efficiency is often low in fruit bats (e.g. Morrison 1980; Thomas 1984; Tedman & Hall 1985), the behaviour of retaining food in the gut during the daytime resting phase may enable increased nutrient assimilation from the last feed, and thus confer a nutritional benefit to the bat.

Seeds retained in the gut of C. sphinx for > 12 h, could potentially be dispersed to areas over 300 km from the parent plant, if the bats were to fly continuously at  $25 \,\mathrm{km} \,\mathrm{h}^{-1}$  (the speed at which they commute over water; L. A. Shilton and C. Tidemann, unpublished data). Since dispersal events do not need to be frequent to be effective (Carlquist 1967), seeds retained in the gut in this way may be sufficient to establish populations of plants in remote areas. Although migratory flights have not, to our knowledge, been reported for C. sphinx, many species of Old World fruit bat are known to undertake seasonal migrations (e.g. Ratcliffe 1931; van der Pijl 1957; Marshall 1983; Thomas 1983; Eby 1996) and demonstrate extensive nomadic behaviour (e.g. Nelson 1965; Webb & Tidemann 1996) in a number of regions. Large Pteropus species may commute distances up to 50 km (van der Pijl 1957) during their nightly searches for food patches at speeds of  $40 \,\mathrm{km} \,\mathrm{h}^{-1}$  (Richards 1990). Furthermore, it is well documented that frugivorous bats defecate during flight (e.g. Docters van Leeuwen 1935; Boon & Corlett 1989),

and this behaviour has been observed in Cynopterus spp., Rousettus amplexicaudatus and Pteropus vampyrus in Indonesia, and *Pteropus poliocephalus* in Australia (personal observation). Furthermore, P. poliocephalus captured around dusk, before foraging, at a camp devoid of food resources (C. Tidemann, personal communication), defecated retained food (L. A. Shilton, personal observation), suggesting that the behaviour of retaining food in the gut during the daytime rest phase may be widespread in Megachiroptera.

On Krakatau, Cynopterus bats were observed to commute over water between islands (2-5 km) around dusk (personal observation), indicating that these small pteropodid bats may transport gut-retained seeds to new localities. Furthermore, the early arrival of Cynopterus spp. on Krakatau after the volcanic sterilization of the islands in 1883 provides evidence for longer movements by these bats, since the nearest source for the colonists are the islands Sebesi and Sebuku (12 and 20 km from Krakatau, respectively) (Thornton 1996; Whittaker & Jones 1994).

The role of Pteropus species in localized seed dispersal and pollination in the South Pacific Islands has led to the hypothesis that these animals may be of key importance in maintaining the structure of these ecosystems, where there is a paucity of other vertebrate frugivores (Cox et al. 1991; Rainey et al. 1995). Our findings indicate a greater role for Old World fruit bats in long-distance dispersal of small seeds than has been thought possible, highlighting both the importance of further research on these animals and the value of conserving them in a world where forest habitats are becoming increasingly fragmented.

We thank Chris Tidemann for helpful suggestions and Sue Barnard, Boeadi, Ibnu Maryanto, Tukirin Partomihardio, Augustinus Suyanto, Ian Thornton, Jon Watt and Nicola Webb for discussion. L.A.S. was funded by a University of Leeds Boothman, Reynolds and Smithells Scholarship and is grateful to Bat Conservation International, Inc., for financial support. This paper is based (in part) on material collected while S.G.C., L.A.S. and R.J.W. were participants in the Royal Society's S.E. Asia Rainforest Research Programme (Programme Publication No. A/270). This research benefited from a Leverhulme Trust grant awarded to S.G.C. and R.J.W. and constitutes Krakatau Research Project Publication No. 55. We are grateful to LIPI and Puslitbang Biologi for permission to conduct research in Indonesia, and three anonymous referees for comments on the manuscript.

#### REFERENCES

Barnard, S. 1995 Bats in captivity. Springville, CA: Wild Ones Animal Books.

Bonaccorso, F. J. & Gush, T. J. 1987 Feeding behaviour and foraging strategies of active phyllostomid fruit bats: an experimental study. J. Anim. Ecol. 56, 907–920.

Boon, P. P. & Corlett, R. T. 1989 Seed dispersal by the lesser short-nosed fruit bat (Cynopterus brachyotis, Pteropodidae, Megachiroptera). Malayan Nat. 7. 42, 251-256.

Carlquist, S. 1967 The biota of long-distance dispersal. V. Plant dispersal to Pacific Islands. Bull. Torr. Bot. Club 94, 129-162.

Charles-Dominique, P. 1991 Feeding strategy and activity budget of the frugivorous bat Carollia perspicillata (Chiroptera: Phyllostomidae) in French Guiana. J. Trop. Ecol. 7, 243–256.

- Conklin, N. L. & Wrangham, R. W. 1994 The value of figs to a hind-gut fermenting frugivore: a nutritional analysis. *Biochem. Syst. Ecol.* 22, 137–151.
- Cox, P. A., Elmqvist, T., Pierson, E. D. & Rainey, W. E. 1991 Flying foxes as strong interactors in South Pacific Island ecosystems: a conservation hypothesis. *Conserv. Biol.* 5, 448–454
- Docters van Leeuwen, W. M. 1935 The dispersal of plants by fruit-eating bats. *Gardens Bull.*, *Straits Settlement* **9**, 58–63.
- Docters van Leeuwen, W. M. 1936 Krakatau, 1883 to 1933. Ann. Jardin Bot. Buitenzorg, 46-47, 1-506.
- Eby, P. 1996 Interactions between the grey-headed flying fox *Pteropus poliocephalus* (Chiroptera: Pteropodidae) and its diet plants—seasonal movements and seed dispersal. DPhil thesis, University of New England, Australia.
- Fleming, T. H. & Heithaus, E. R. 1981 Frugivorous bats, seed shadows, and the structure of tropical forests. *Biotropica* 13, 45–53.
- Fujita, M. S. & Tuttle, M. D. 1991 Flying foxes (Chiroptera: Pteropodidae): threatened animals of key ecological and economic importance. *Conserv. Biol.* 5, 455–463.
- Funakoshi, K. & Zubaid, A. 1997 Behavioural and reproductive ecology of the dog-faced fruit bat *Cynopterus brachyotis* and C. horsfieldi in a Malaysian rainforest. Mamm. Stud. 22, 95–108.
- Genstat 5 Committee 1993 Genstat<sup>TM</sup> 5 Release 3 reference manual (ed. R. W. Payne and 10 others). Rothamsted Experimental Station, Lawes Agricultural Trust. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Howe, H. F. 1984 Implications of seed dispersal by animals for tropical reserve management. Biol. Conserv. 30, 261–281.
- Izhaki, I., Korine, C. & Arad, A. 1995 The effect of bat (Rousettus aegyptiacus) dispersal on seed germination in eastern Mediterranean habitats. Oecologia 101, 335-342.
- Laska, M. 1990 Food transit times and carbohydrate use in three phyllostomid bat species. Z. Saugetierkunde 55, 49–54.
- Marshall, A. G. 1983 Bats, flowers and fruit: evolutionary relationships in the Old World. *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* **20**, 115–135.
- Martínez del Rio, C. & Restrepo, C. 1993 Ecological and behavioral consequences of digestion in frugivorous animals. *Vegetatio* **107**, 205–216.
- Mickleburgh, S. P., Hutson, A. M. & Racey, P. A. 1992 Old World fruit bats. An action plan for their conservation. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.
- Morrison, D. W. 1980 Efficiency of food utilization by fruit bats. *Oecologia* **45**, 270–273.
- Murphy, S. R., Reid, N., Yan, Z. & Venables, W. N. 1993 Differential passage time of mistletoe fruits through the gut of honeyeaters and flowerpeckers: the effects on seedling establishment. *Oecologia* 93, 171–176.
- Nelson, J. E. 1965 Movements of Australian flying foxes (Pteropodidae: Megachiroptera). *Aust. 7. Zool.* **13**, 53–73.
- van der Pijl, L. 1957 The dispersal of plants by bats (chiropterochory). *Acta Bot. Neerl.* **6**, 291–315.
- van der Pijl, L. 1982 *Principles of dispersal in higher plants*, 3rd edn. Berlin, Heidelberg, New York: Springer.
- Proctor, V. W. 1968 Long-distance dispersal of seeds by retention in digestive tract of birds. Science 160, 321–322.
- Rainey, W. E., Pierson, E. D., Elmqvist, T. & Cox, P. A. 1995 The role of flying foxes (Pteropodidae) in oceanic island

- ecosystems of the Pacific. In *Ecology, evolution and behaviour of bats* (ed. P. A. Racey & S. M. Swift), pp. 47–62. London: Oxford Science Publications.
- Ratcliffe, F. N. 1931 The flying fox (*Pteropus*) in Australia. *Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR)*, Bulletin **53**, 1–81.
- Richards, G. C. 1990 The spectacled flying-fox, *Pteropus conspicillatus* (Chiroptera: Pteropodidae), in North Queensland. 2. Diet, seed dispersal and feeding ecology. *Aust. Mamm.* 13, 25–31.
- Richardson, K. C., Stuebing, R. B. & Normah, H. K. 1987 Alimentary tract morphology and digesta transit of some Malaysian chiropterans. *Indo-Malayan Zool.* 4, 399–412.
- Ridley, H. N. 1930 The dispersal of plants throughout the world. Ashford: L. Reeve & Co.
- Tedman, R. A. & Hall, L. S. 1985 The morphology of the gastrointestinal tract and food transit time in the fruit bats Pteropus alecto and P. poliocephalus (Megachiroptera). Aust. J. Zool. 33, 625–640.
- Thomas, D. W. 1983 The annual migrations of three species of West African fruit bats (Chiroptera: Pteropodidae). *Can. J. Zool.* **61**, 2266–2272.
- Thomas, D. W. 1984 Fruit intake and energy budgets of frugivorous bats. *Physiol. Zool.* **57**, 457–467.
- Thomas, D. W. 1988 Analysis of the diets of plant-visiting bats. In *Ecological and behavioral methods for the study of bats* (ed. T. H. Kunz), pp. 211–220. Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution Press.
- Thornton, I. W. B. 1994 Figs, frugivores and falcons: an aspect of the assembly of mixed tropical forest on the emergent volcanic island, Anak Krakatau. S. Aust. Geogrl 7. 93, 3–21.
- Thornton, I. W. B. 1996 Krakatau. The destruction and reassembly of an island ecosystem. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Thornton, I. W. B., Compton, S. G. & Wilson, C. N. 1996 The role of animals in the colonization of the Krakatau Islands by fig trees (*Ficus* species). J. Biogeogr. 23, 577–592.
- Utzurrum, R. C. B. 1984 Fig fruit consumption and seed dispersal by frugivorous bats in the primary tropical rain forest of Laka Balinsasayao, Negros Oriental, Philippines. Dumaguete City, Philippines. MSc thesis, Silliman University.
- Utzurrum, R. C. B. & Heideman, P. D. 1991 Differential ingestion of viable vs nonviable *Ficus* seeds by fruit bats. *Biotropica* **23**, 311–312.
- Verbeek, R. D. M. 1884 The Krakatoa eruption. *Nature* **30**, 10–15.
- Webb, N. J. & Tidemann, C. R. 1996 Mobility of Australian flying-foxes, *Pteropus* spp. (Megachiroptera): evidence from genetic variation. *Proc. R. Soc. Lond.* B 263, 497–502.
- Wernstedt, F. L. 1972 World climate data. Lemont, PA: Climate Data Press.
- Whittaker, R. J. & Jones, S. H. 1994 The role of frugivorous bats and birds in the rebuilding of a tropical forest ecosystem, Krakatau, Indonesia. J. Biogeogr. 21, 245–258.
- Whittaker, R. J., Partomihardjo, T. & Riswan, S. 1995 Surface and buried seed banks from Krakatau, Indonesia: implications for the sterilization hypothesis. *Biotropica* 27, 346–354.
- World Conservation Monitoring Centre 1992 Global biodiversity. Status of the earth's living resources (ed. B. Groombridge). London: Chapman & Hall.