Title	Spatial patterns in the diet of the Japanese macaque Macaca fuscata and their environmental determinants
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Citation	Mammal Review (2015), 45(4): 227-238
Issue Date	2015-10
URL	http://hdl.handle.net/2433/202756
Right	This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Tsuji, Y., Ito, T. Y., Wada, K. and Watanabe, K. (2015), Spatial patterns in the diet of the Japanese macaque Macaca fuscata and their environmental determinants. Mammal Review, 45: 227–238, which has been published in final form at http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/mam.12045. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving.; The full-text file will be made open to the public on 24 AUG. 2016 in accordance with publisher's 'Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving'.; This is the Accepted Author Manuscript. Please cite only the published version.
Type	Journal Article
Textversion	author

REVIEW

Spatial patterns in the diet of the Japanese macaque *Macaca fuscata* and their environmental determinants

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ABSTRACT

1. We aimed to ascertain the environmental determinants of the diets of Japanese macaques *Macaca fuscata* in relation to geographical variables (latitude and elevation) and environmental variables (annual rainfall, mean temperature, snow

characteristics, and normalized difference vegetation index [NDVI], a proxy for primary productivity).

2. We collected dietary data from the entire range of Japanese macaques (29 study sites), and extracted each dietary component to determine spatial patterns over the species' range and between forest types. We then conducted model selection to identify the environmental determinants of staple diets and dietary diversity.

3. Japanese macaques' diets were mainly composed of (1) foliage, (2) fruits and seeds, and (3) bark and leaf buds, throughout the entire range. Percentages of bark and buds were greater in deciduous forests than in evergreen forests; significant differences in the proportions of the other two major components and in dietary diversity were not observed in different forest types.

4. Macaques inhabiting forests with higher NDVI and with less snow fed more on fruits and seeds, and a high dietary diversity was observed. In snowy forests, macaques inhabiting higher elevation fed more on foliage, while those inhabiting lower elevations fed mainly on bark and buds.

5. When studying spatial patterns in the feeding behaviour of mammals, both environmental and geographical variables should be treated equally, since the effect of environmental variables may be independent of the effect of geographical variables. In addition, more emphasis should be placed on snow characteristics, because snow cover leads to decreased availability of terrestrial food items and to increased energy costs (for locomotion and body temperature regulation), which can affect feeding behaviour and dietary diversity.

variation

INTRODUCTION

Diet composition is one of the most important aspects of mammalian ecology. Diet influences spatial distributions, social and foraging behaviour, and the body size of animals, and ultimately affects population parameters (Sugiyama & Ohsawa 1982, Iriante et al. 1990, Gende & Quinn 2004, Zalewski & Bartoszewicz 2012). Feeding behaviour, therefore, can be a target of natural selection (Schoener 1971, Stephens & Krebs 1986). Diet studies at local scales, particularly those based on long-term research, have contributed to our understanding of diet-mediated traits, such as home range utilization, inter-group and intra-group competition, and mortality and birth rates (Hill & Agetsuma 1995, O'Donoghue et al. 1998, Tsuji & Takatsuki 2012). However, a complete view of a species' feeding ecology also requires the identification of factors that affect feeding behaviour throughout the species' entire range, because the distribution and abundance of the main food sources often exhibit biogeographical variation (Bojarska & Selva 2012, Díaz-Ruiz et al. 2013). Without studies on spatial variation in diet and associated environmental determinants, we cannot understand fully the ecological adaptations of mammal species with wide geographical ranges.

Many researchers have investigated geographical variation in mammalian diet composition and/or dietary diversity over the last few decades (*Genetta genetta*, Virgós et al. 1999; *Papio* spp., Hill & Dunbar 2002; *Lutra lutra*, Clavero et al. 2003, Remonti et al. 2009; hylobatids, Elder 2004; *Meles meles*, Virgós et al. 2004; *Felis silvestris*, Lozano et al. 2006; *Martes* spp., Zalewski 2004, Zhou et al. 2011; and *Vulpes vulpes*, Díaz-Ruiz et al. 2013). Several researchers have demonstrated significant regional variation in diet composition and/or diversity in relation to changes in latitude and elevation, and between forest types (Zalewski 2004, Lozano et al. 2006, Remonti et al.

2009, Díaz-Ruiz et al. 2013), and have interpreted these relationships as originating in global patterns of availability and diversity of primary food items, such as fruits (Elder 2004, Ting et al. 2008, Moles et al. 2009) and animal prey (Owen 1990, Villafuerte et al. 1998). However, several investigators have failed to find any spatial patterns in diets (Roper & Mickevicius 1995, Virgós et al. 1999). Research has suggested that the proximate mechanism underlying the relationship between geographical variables and feeding is mediated by the effects of climatic conditions, such as temperature and rainfall, on food availability. Hylobatids, for example, in habitats with abundant rainfall, feed more on fruits and less on foliage (Elder 2004). Baboons (*Papio* spp.) spend less time feeding and more time moving in habitats with higher temperatures, and they feed less on fruits in mountainous forests (Hill & Dunbar 2002). However, few researchers have investigated the environmental determinants of spatial patterns in diet composition (Hill & Dunbar 2002, Bojarska & Selva 2012), and whether dietary plasticity is related to the environment is still unclear.

The Japanese macaque *Macaca fuscata* is a primate species that is widely distributed within the Japanese archipelago (Nakagawa et al. 2010). Environmental conditions vary markedly within the geographical range of this species, and Japanese macaques occupy a variety of habitats, from warm temperate to cool temperate regions in latitude, and from the seashore to alpine forests in elevation (Nakagawa et al. 2010). Since food availability and climatic conditions vary not only temporally but also regionally, we hypothesize that the foraging strategies of macaques should vary throughout their range in response to their habitat. For example, the time spent feeding by macaques in northern Japan, in a habitat where food availability is lower, was 1.7 times the time spend feeding in southern Japan (Agetsuma & Nakagawa 1998).

Previous review works of Japanese macaque diets have found spatial trends in their food composition in relation to folivory and frugivory. Uehara (1977) revealed a relationship between forest flora and the diet compositions of 11 different populations, and Tsuji et al. (2013) found that Asian macaques including *Macaca fuscata* that live at high latitudes feed mainly on foliage and less on fruits and seeds, or animal matter, which can be partly explained by differences in annual rainfall and temperature. However, as with other mammals, the environmental determinants that explain the spatial patterns in Japanese macaque diet composition and diversity throughout its geographical range have not been elucidated. This species is the northernmost extant non-human primate, and severe environmental conditions may affect its diet. Wada (1964), Suzuki (1965), and Majolo et al. (2013) highlighted the importance of snow characteristics on the activity and feeding behaviour of macaques inhabiting high latitudes, particularly during the winter. Dietary diversity of Japanese macaques in northern latitudes and at high elevations may be low, since the potential abundance of food in such environments is low (Rosenzweig 1995, Zhou et al. 2011). For example, the dietary diversity of *Lutra lutra* (Eurasian otter) and *Felis silvestris* (wildcat) is lower in northern habitats than in the Mediterranean region (Clavero et al. 2003, Lozano et al. 2006). Similar spatial patterns in diet may also be found in macaques.

In this study, we conducted a comprehensive review of spatial patterns in dietary habits of the Japanese macaque. Specifically, we (1) test whether environmental variables explain spatial patterns in diet composition and diversity, as geographical variables and forest types do, and (2) identify the environmental determinants of the spatial patterns observed in macaque diets.

METHODS

Literature compilation and standardization of dietary data

We conducted a web-based survey of studies in which the diet composition of Japanese

macaques was quantified, by using two search engines: ISI Web of Science

(http://apps.webofknowledge.com/) and Google Scholar (http://scholar.google.co.jp/).

We searched for the key words "Japanese macaque", "Japanese monkey", and "*Macaca

fuscata*", in combination with "diet", "feeding", "food", and "foraging" (in English

and Japanese). We also sought information on the topic from informal discussions with

experts on Japanese macaques, and summarized available dietary items in each study

site (shown in Tsuji et al. 2011, 2012). In order to standardize our data set, we excluded

studies lasting less than one year, and those that contained no information on food

categories. Following these criteria, we had information from 29 sites that covered the

entire range (30.34–41.15º N in latitude and 60–2340 m in elevation) of the Japanese

macaque (Fig. 1). Among them, 13 sites were in deciduous forests and 16 sites in

evergreen forests.

We classified food items into seven categories: (1) foliage (including young and

mature leaves, shoots of woody plants, and herbaceous plants), (2) flowers (including

flower buds), (3) fruits and seeds (including berries and nuts), (4) bark and leaf buds

(buds hereafter), (5) fungi, (6) animal matter, and (7) others (including roots, sap, bulbs,

honey, seaweeds, and unidentified items). We did not consider provisioned food and

agricultural products because these items are not of natural origin. To assess the diet

compositions of Japanese macaques, we calculated the relative percentage for each food

category (that is, %category $i = n_i / \sum n \times 100$, n = number of food items in a category).

We calculated food diversity using the Shannon–Wiener index (H'), obtained by using

the following formula (Begon et al. 2006):

$$H' = -\sum p_{\mathrm{i}} \cdot \log p_i,$$

where p_i represents the proportion of food category i.

Variable selection

We extracted information on latitude (with 0.1° resolution) and mean elevation (with 10

m resolution) from the source study or from Google Earth (http://earth.google.com) if

geographical information was not provided in the study. We defined latitude and

elevation as 'geographical variables'.

We obtained data on annual mean temperature (with 0.1°C resolution), mean annual

rainfall (in mm), mean annual length of the period with snow cover (mean number of

months with snow cover), and the mean snow depth (in cm) from November to March,

which is winter in most parts of the Japanese archipelago (Tsuji 2010). Means of these

values for the years 1980–2012, as measured from the nearest weather stations to each

study site, were taken from the website of the Japan Meteorological Agency

(http://www.data.jma.go.jp/). We used the normalized difference vegetation index

(NDVI) as an index of primary productivity. NDVI has strong statistical associations

with forest biomass and productivity (Pettorelli et al. 2005, 2011), and has been used to

estimate habitat quality (Ito et al. 2005, 2006; reviewed by Pettorelli et al. 2005, 2011).

NDVI ranges between -1 and +1; positive values indicate the existence of plants and are

related to plant biomass, whereas NDVI values less than 0 are generally indicative of

non-vegetated surfaces such as barren land, rock, water, or ice (Pettorelli et al. 2005,

2011). We downloaded 16-day composite and 250-m resolution NDVI data for each

study site from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), Goddard

Space Flight Center (http://modis-land.gsfc.nasa.gov/vi.html). For each study site, we calculated mean values of the NDVI within a circle with a radius of 2.5 km (ca. 19.6 km^2), which represented a Japanese macaque's mean home range size (Takasaki 1981, Hanya et al. 2006), and calculated the mean of 16 NDVIs from 2002, 2007, and 2012 in spring (7–22 April), summer (26 June to 11 July), autumn (30 September to 15 October), and winter (1–16 January). We extracted the mean NDVIs using the geographical information system software ArcGIS, version 10.1 (ESRI, California, USA).

We defined mean temperature, rainfall, snow depth, snow duration, and NDVI as 'environmental variables'.

Statistical analysis

We compared diet composition and geographical and environmental variables between two forest types (deciduous forests and evergreen forests, see Fig. 1) using the Mann–Whitney U-test.

In order to identify the environmental determinants of spatial patterns in dietary traits, we treated the percentages of each food category as response variables, and the 2 geographical variables and 5 environmental variables as explanatory variables, and conducted a series of generalized linear model analyses to select the best-fit models (based on Akaike's information criterion; Akaike 1973). We treated any models with a difference in Akaike's information criterion of less than two as identical (Burnham & Anderson 2002). Before performing model selections, we computed the variance inflation factors for the 7 explanatory variables, in order to check for the effects of multicollinearity (Kutner et al. 2004), but none of the variables was omitted since all

variance inflation factors were less than 10. For the generalized linear models, we assumed that the error structure of the response variables followed a Gaussian distribution, since none of the response variables' distributions were significantly different from normal (Shapiro test, $P > 0.05$). We used R v.2.15.2 (Anonymous 2012) and the "MASS" package for conducting the statistical analyses.

RESULTS

Differences in geographical and environmental variables and diets between forest types

With the exception of annual rainfall, the geographical and environmental variables differed significantly between forest types (latitude: $U = 208.0$, $P < 0.001$; elevation: $U = 161.5$, $P = 0.012$; annual rainfall: $U = 79.0$, $P = 0.282$; mean temperature: $U = 5.0$, $P < 0.001$; snow depth: $U = 205.0$, $P < 0.001$; snow duration: $U = 208.0$, $P < 0.001$; NDVI: $U = 49.0$, $P = 0.012$; Table 1). Deciduous forests tend to be located in mountainous northern regions, with lower temperatures, more snow, and longer winters, and with lower primary productivity than evergreen forests (Table 1).

The diet of the Japanese macaque over its entire range is mainly composed of foliage (26%), fruits and seeds (24%), and bark and buds (25%); flowers (6%), fungi (2%), animal matter (4%) and other items (13%) constitute a much smaller percentage of the diet (Table 1). Among the 7 dietary categories, there were significant differences in the percentage of bark and buds ($U = 200.0$, $P < 0.001$), which was higher in deciduous forests, and in the percentage of other items ($U = 51.5$, $P = 0.023$), which was higher in evergreen forests (Table 1). There were no significant differences in any other dietary categories (percentage of foliage: $U = 77.0$, $P = 0.245$, percentage of flowers: U

= 63.5, *P* = 0.079, percentage of fruits and seeds: *U* = 76.5, *P* = 0.236, percentage of

fungi: *U* = 143.0, *P* = 0.090, percentage of animal matter: *U* = 102.5, *P* = 0.905), or in

dietary diversity (*H'; U* = 90.5, *P* = 0.568) between forest types (Table 1).

Dietary spatial patterns and environmental determinants

Since general differences in diet between forest types were not detected, more refined

analyses were considered necessary, so we attempted to ascertain environmental

determinants for the three main food categories (foliage, fruits and seeds, and bark and

buds) and for dietary diversity (*H'*). The main determinants of %foliage were elevation

(positive effect) and snow depth (negative effect); macaques in forests with higher

elevation and/or with less snow fed less on foliage (Fig. 2a, b, Table 2). The NDVI

(negative effect) was another determinant of %foliage, though its effect was less.

The main determinant of %fruits and seeds was the NDVI (positive effect);

macaques in forests with higher primary productivity fed more on fruits and seeds (Fig.

2c). Snow duration (negative effect) and mean temperature (negative effect) were also

determinants of %fruits and seeds, but their effects were less than those of NDVI.

The main determinants of %bark and buds were snow depth and snow duration

(both positive effects); macaques in forests with deep snow and long snow duration fed

more on bark and buds (Fig. 2d, 2e, Table 2). Mean elevation (negative effect) and

latitude (positive effect) were also determinants of %bark and buds, though their effects

were smaller.

Finally, the primary determinant of dietary diversity in macaques was snow depth

(negative effect); macaques in forests with deep snow had less diverse diets (Fig. 3,

Table 2). Mean temperature (positive effect) was another determinant of dietary

diversity, but its effect was relatively less.

DISCUSSION

The lack of relationships between forest types and diet composition (with the exception of bark and buds), and between latitude and main diet composition, differs from results obtained from baboons, which feed less on leaves as latitude increases (Hill & Dunbar 2002), and from Eurasian generalist carnivores, which decrease their consumption of fruit and shift to carnivorous diets with increasing latitude (Virogós et al. 1999, Lozano et al. 2006, Zhou et al. 2011, Diaz-Ruiz et al. 2013). The results of the present study are also in contrast with the findings, in a global-scale review of geographical variation in feeding within the genus *Macaca* (Tsuji et al. 2013), that a negative relationship exists between %fruits/seeds and a positive relationship between %foliage and latitude. The discrepancy between the present study and that of Tsuji et al. (2013) suggests that fine-scale habitat characteristics affect feeding more than geographical variation, and/or that macaques need fruit and seeds or foliage, regardless of their habitat.

The main environmental determinant of %fruits and seeds was NDVI. An association between primary productivity and fruit and seed feeding has also been found in other primates (Hill & Dunbar 2002, Elder 2004), and our study highlights the significance of fine-scale environmental variables affecting diet composition in primates. The number of plant species bearing edible fruit, total fruit productivity, and fruiting duration is higher in forests in lower latitudes and lower elevation; that is, habitats with high primary productivity (Hanya et al. 2005, Ting et al. 2008, Moles et al. 2009). In general, Japanese macaques prefer fruits and seeds to foliage, bark, and buds, because the energy content and ingestion rate of fruits are much higher (Nakagawa

1997, Nakayama et al. 1999). Greater foraging success is an important factor in mammalian reproduction and survival (Fujita et al. 2004, Tsuji & Takatsuki 2012). From this perspective, our finding that the degree of fruit consumption is related primarily to NDVI, a proxy of the primary productivity, is understandable.

The main determinants of %foliage and %bark/buds were snow depth and snow duration. Snow duration was also a determinant of %fruits and seeds: macaques in mountainous habitats with deep snow and/or longer snow duration fed mostly on bark and buds, and less on foliage and fruits. Therefore, spatial patterns in the macaques' bark, bud, and foliage feeding were explained by climatic conditions rather than by patterns in primary productivity. Why did snow only affect the degree of bark and bud (and foliage) feeding? Probably because of the covering effect of snow (Wada 1964, Suzuki 1965): in snowy areas (mainly in northern or mountainous forests), snow sometimes exceeds 2 m in depth (Tsuji 2010) and conceals food items beneath, such as herbaceous plants, fallen fruit, and shrubs. As a result, macaques cannot use these items as food, regardless of their abundance, and they inevitably feed on the only items remaining in the high-tree layer—bark and buds. Another possibility is that snow prevents macaques from moving (Majolo et al. 2013); it is known that macaques in snowy areas have a tendency to perform a low-cost, low-benefit strategy in response to habitat deterioration, including snow coverage (Agetsuma 1995, Enari & Sakamaki 2013, Majolo et al. 2013). In such cases, they shift from foods that are nutritious and result in a high feeding rate, but are scattered (such as fruits and seeds), to foods that are fibrous and result in a low feeding rate, but are abundant (such as bark and buds) (Nakagawa 1989, Nakayama et al. 1999). Our results support this hypothesis. A high degree of bark and bud feeding seems to be a behavioural trait that was acquired by

Japanese macaques when they expanded their range into snowy areas, but this might not be an adaptive trait, since it is known that mass mortality due to malnutrition, and other effects on various population parameters, occur in heavy snow years (Takizawa & Shidaka 1985, Koganezawa & Imaki 1999, Izawa 2009). Japanese macaques migrated into the Japanese archipelago during the mid- to late- Pleistocene (0.78–0.02 Ma), and expanded northward in the post-glacial period (0.01 Ma) following a northward expansion of temperate forests (Wada 1994); they probably had to deal with heavy snow in northern Japan. Therefore, sufficient evolutionary time for them to adapt to snowy conditions behaviourally may not have passed.

The macaques' dietary diversity (in terms of H') was not related to latitude, elevation, or forest type, and was instead associated with snow depth. The opportunistic and generalist nature of macaque feeding is the probable reason for this: bark and buds in snowy habitats are used as alternatives to foliage and other diet categories (such as flowers, fungi, and animal matter) in habitats with little snow (Table 2); thus, an apparent decrease in dietary diversity could be detected.

In the present study, we did not consider the overall effect of body size on diet composition or preference. Japanese macaques in northern and snowy areas are larger than those from southern populations (Hamada & Yamamoto 2010). In general, large-bodied animals are able to absorb more nutrients from foliage than small-bodied ones (Elder 2004). Larger Japanese macaques require more energy and nutrients, and tend to feed predominantly on bark (Watanuki & Nakayama 1993, Nakayama et al. 1999). Large animals tend to cope well in cool climates, due to their relatively low surface area-to-volume ratio. Macaques follow Bergman's rule (Mayr 1970); therefore, latitudinal and environmental gradients in diet can be explained not only by feeding

strategies but also by morphological adaptations to different habitats (Elder 2004).

The effects of the study populations' genetic background on diet preference should also be considered; Imai et al. (2012) found that inter-species variation in the degree of bark feeding may have genetic causes. In addition, quantitative genetic variation is associated with phenotype plasticity in body size of American mink *Neovison vison* in response to the environment (Zalewski & Bartoszewicz 2012).

We did not consider the effect of group size on diet composition. For group-living animals such as primates, within-group competition over foods often affects the diet composition (Whiten et al. 1987) and feeding behaviour (Janson 1985, Tsuji & Takatsuki 2012). In future research, such morphological, genetic, and social traits should be considered, to test more accurate models that explain spatial patterns in the feeding behaviour of macaques, and of other mammals with wider geographical ranges.

In summary, the main determinants of the Japanese macaque's diet were found to be (1) primary productivity, affecting the consumption of fruits and seeds, (2) snow characteristics, affecting the availability of foliage and other food resources, and/or macaque activity, and (3) elevation. Therefore, we wish to emphasise the importance of considering both biotic and abiotic factors on animal feeding ecology. In addition, more emphasis should be placed on snow characteristics. Large-scale reviews of feeding habits, in addition to long-term studies, would contribute to a better understanding of behavioural plasticity and the mechanisms of adaptation to different environments. Our approach also provides insights into both conservation and the testing of behavioural and ecological theories, based on local habitat characteristics.

ACKNOWLEDGEMNTS

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Table 1 Locations of the study sites in the studies of Japanese macaques included in this review, with diet composition and trophic diversity (Shannon-Wiener index, H') based on food lists.

No.[a]	Study sites	Climate	Geographical variables		Environmental variables					Diet composition (%)[b]							H'	Reference
			Latitude (°)	Elevation (m)	Mean temperature (°C)	Annual rainfall (mm)	Snow depth (cm)	Snow duration (# months)	NDVI	Foliage	Flowers	Fruits & Seeds	Bark & Buds	Fungi	Animal matter	Others		
1	Shimokita	Deciduous	41.15	480	9.8	1295.6	114.2	6	6958	21.4	7.94	18.45	29.5	2.7	5.2	14.8	0.75	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Nakayama & Matsuoka (1999)
2	Shirakami	Deciduous	40.52	350	10.2	1183.1	149.8	6	5028	16.7	2.8	25.0	52.8	0.0	0.0	2.8	0.51	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Enari et al. (2005)
3	Okunikkawa	Deciduous	38.33	650	10.0	1532.5	73.3	6	6004	21.6	4.3	21.6	42.2	6.9	1.7	1.7	0.65	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
4	Kinkazan	Deciduous	38.29	230	11.6	1067.	4.4	6	4833	21.	6.8	17.	26.	12.	9.1	6.0	0.7	Tsuji et al. (2006,

#	Name	Type																	Reference
		uo us				1				9	9	2	1				9	2011, 2012), Agetsuma and Nakagawa (1998)
5	Iitate	Decid uo us	37.68	650	10.0	1325.1	36.8	6	5958	222	6.78	372	22.2	4.4	4.4	2.2	0.69	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
6	Mt. Azuma	Decid uo us	37.74	1050	7.5	1793.9	142.8	6	4643	39.2	0.0	21.6	35.3	3.9	0.0	0.0	0.52	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
7	Kurobe	Decid uo us	36.80	1550	11.6	2964.7	103.2	7	4553	35.7	7.1	16.7	31.0	0.0	0.0	9.5	0.63	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
8	Nikko	Decid uo us	36.75	950	6.9	2169.0	85.0	7	5091	31.8	3.7	20.6	39.7	1.4	0.9	1.9	0.59	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
9	Shiga Heights	Decid uo us	36.73	950	10.5	1881.5	233.4	7	5858	14.4	6.4	16.0	41.7	3.0	3.2	15.2	0.70	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Suzuki (1965)
10	Kamiko uchi	Decid uo us	36.58	2340	9.4	1397.3	103.2	7	5326	34.2	0.0	20.8	33.3	3.5	7.4	0.9	0.61	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Suzuki (1965)
11	Hakusa n	Decid uo us	36.26	1000	12.7	2793.9	117.6	6	4627	13.5	5.2	17.9	36.7	0.4	4.8	21.4	0.70	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Suzuki

(1965)

																		Reference
12	Chichibu	Deciduous	35.93	80.0	13.1	1333.1	13.0	5	7144	14.0	3.5	35.1	29.8	1.8	7.0	8.8	0.69	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Anonymous (1994)
13	Okutama	Deciduous	35.81	42.0	11.9	1608.5	13.0	5	7160	23.2	8.6	30.5	28.2	0.0	0.9	8.6	0.66	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
14	Tanzawa	Evergreen	35.50	74.0	15.8	2188.8	2.4	3	7255	16.7	0.0	30.0	16.7	0.0	0.0	36.7	0.58	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
15	Boso	Evergreen	35.12	32.0	13.8	2012.1	0.0	0	5316	27.8	3.0	19.3	19.3	0.3	2.7	27.6	0.68	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Koganezawa (1975)
16	Kyoto Basin	Evergreen	35.08	42.0	15.9	1491.3	3.8	4	6143	44.1	7.4	22.1	14.7	0.0	0.0	11.8	0.62	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Nishimura (2006)
17	Tsuchiyama	Evergreen	34.97	73.0	13.0	1603.0	20.8	4	6960	42.1	12.3	22.8	17.5	0.9	1.8	2.6	0.64	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Chijiiwa (2004)
18	Nukata	Evergreen	34.91	16.0	15.5	2021.9	3.2	3	7900	22.8	8.9	37.3	27.2	0.6	0.6	2.5	0.62	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
19	Uji	Evergreen	34.86	20.0	15.9	1491.3	3.8	4	7018	19.0	5.2	20.7	19.0	3.4	3.4	29.3	0.74	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012),

No.	Site																	Reference
		n																Takagi et al. (2002)
20	Minoo	Evergreen	34.85	350	16.0	1282.7	0.4	2	6591	28.8	10.3	22.9	21.5	0.3	3.1	13.1	0.72	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Takeda et al. (1983, 1984, 1985a, 1985b)
21	Mt. Hiei	Evergreen	35.05	850	15.9	1491.3	3.8	4	6693	20.2	15.3	19.2	28.6	0.7	3.7	12.3	0.74	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
22	Arashiyama	Evergreen	35.01	155	15.9	1491.3	3.8	4	6085	21.9	8.3	8.3	12.8	0.3	0.0	48.5	0.60	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
23	Gagyuzan	Evergreen	34.83	480	14.2	1204.2	0.8	3	6671	42.9	8.8	34.1	11.0	1.1	2.2	0.0	0.57	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
24	Miyajima	Evergreen	34.28	430	12.6	1949.6	2.6	4	7132	19.9	8.5	20.8	26.7	1.3	19.9	2.9	0.73	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
25	Mt. Kawaradake	Evergreen	33.69	500	15.7	1767.1	0.0	0	6829	24.7	3.2	39.8	4.3	0.0	2.2	25.8	0.60	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
26	Takasakiyama	Evergreen	33.25	320	16.4	1644.7	0.2	1	6154	26.9	5.4	20.7	24.1	0.6	4.5	17.8	0.72	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012)
27	Koshima	Evergreen	31.45	60	18.2	2598.	0.0	0	4249	22.2	5.1	23.3	13.4	1.4	6.5	26.6	0.7	Tsuji et al. (2011,

No.	Site	Type	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	C11	C12	C13	C14	C15	Source
	ree n					7			8	8	9					5	4	2012), Iwamoto (1981), Go (2010)
28	Yakushima (coastal)	Evergreen	30.37	200	19.4	4477.2	0.0	0	7599	28.7	6.2	33.6	13.3	0.6	5.9	11.7	0.70	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Agetsuma (1995), Agetsuma & Nakagawa (1998), Hill (1997), Sawada et al. (2014)
29	Yakushima (coniferous)	Evergreen	30.34	1100	12.4	4986.0	0.0	0	7429	27.8	7.8	26.7	3.3	6.7	17.8	10.0	0.75	Tsuji et al. (2011, 2012), Hanya (2004)
	Deciduous forest (n = 13)		37.58	87.8	10.4	1718.9	91.5	6.2	5630	23.8	4.9	23.1	34.5	3.1	3.4	7.2	0.65	
	Evergreen forest (n = 16)		33.97	43.8	15.4	2106.3	2.8	2.3	6626	27.3	7.2	25.1	17.1	1.1	4.6	17.5	0.67	
	U values		208.0***	161.5*	5.0***	79.0^{NS}	205.0***	208.0***	47.0*	77.0^{NS}	63.5^{NS}	76.5^{NS}	200.0***	143.0^{NS}	102.5^{NS}	51.5*		90.5^{NS}
	Grand mean (n = 29)		35.59	63.6	13.2	1932.6	42.6	4.0	6180	25.7	6.2	24.2	24.9	2.0	4.1	12.9	0.66	

[a]See Fig. 1 for each location. [b]See Tsuji *et al*. (2011, 2012). ***: $P < 0.001$, **: $P < 0.01$, *: $P < 0.05$, NS: not significant. NDVI: normalized difference vegetation index. *H'*: Shannon-Wiener index.

Table 2 Results from generalized linear models used to predict diet composition (foliage, fruits and seeds, and bark and buds) and dietary diversity (*H′*) of Japanese macaques.

Variables	Diet composition							*H′*	
	Foliage		Fruits & Seeds			Bark & Buds			
	1)	2)	1)	2)	3)	1)	2)	1)	2)
Intercept	25.75 ± 1.57 (*t* = 16.46, *P* < 0.001)	25.76 ± 1.57 (*t* = 16.38, *P* < 0.001)	24.19 ± 1.25 (*t* = 19.38, *P* < 0.001)	24.19 ± 1.25 (*t* = 19.40, *P* < 0.001)	24.19 ± 1.25 (*t* = 19.40, *P* < 0.001)	24.95 ± 1.25 (*t* = 20.02, *P* < 0.001)	24.94 ± 1.26 (*t* = 19.82, *P* < 0.001)	0.66 ± 0.01 (*t* = 50.51, *P* < 0.001)	0.66 ± 0.01 (*t* = 50.28, *P* < 0.001)
Latitude	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.79 ± 2.39 (*t* = 0.75, *P* = 0.462)	—	—
Elevation	3.21 ± 1.80 (*t* = 1.79, *P* = 0.086)	3.13 ± 1.81 (*t* = 1.73, *P* = 0.096)	—	—	—	-2.22 ± 1.48 (*t* = -1.50, *P* = 0.146)	-1.63 ± 1.68 (*t* = -0.97, *P* = 0.342)	—	—
Mean temperature	—	—	—	—	-1.9 ± 1.9	—	—	—	—

						9	5		
						4			
					(t = -0.99, P = 0.330)				
Annual rainfall	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.01 ± 0.01 (t = 0.87, P = 0.393)
Snow depth	-2.70 ± 1.80 (t = -1.50, P = 0.146)	**-3.49 ± 1.91** (t = -1.71, P = 0.099)	—	—	—	5.77 ± 1.78 (t = 3.24, P = 0.003)	**5.37 ± 1.87** (t = 2.86, P = 0.009)	**-0.02 ± 0.01** (t = -1.53, P = 0.137)	**-0.02 ± 0.01** (t = -1.45, P = 0.159)
Snow duration	—	—	—	-1.40 ± 1.34 (t = -1.04, P = 306)	-2.78 ± 1.93 (t = -1.44, P = 0.162)	**5.84 ± 1.78** (t = 3.28, P = 0.003)	4.39 ± 2.64 (t = 1.662, P = 0.110)	—	—
NDVI	—	-1.54 ± 1.79 (t = -0.86, P = 0.399)	**3.64 ± 1.25** (t = 2.92, P = 0.007)	**3.13 ± 1.34** (t = 2.34, P = 0.027)	**3.40 ± 1.37** (t = 2.49, P = 0.020)	—	—	—	—
AIC	210.75	211.91	19	19	19	19	19	-6	-6

			6	7	8	8	9	7	6
			.	.	.	.	.	.	.
			7	5	4	4	7	4	2
			5	6	4	3	7	0	3
ΔAIC	—	1	—	0	1	—	1	—	1
		.		.	.		.		.
		1		8	6		3		1
		6		1	9		4		7

NDVI: normalized difference vegetation index. AIC: Akaike's information criteria. Models with difference of AIC (ΔAIC) was less than 2.0 were treated as identical. *H'*: Shannon-Wiener index.

Note that coefficients wereestimated after all explanatory variables had been standardized.

Figure legends

Figure 1 Locations within Japan of the 29 reviewed studies on the diet of Japanese

macaques *Macaca fuscata*. Filled circles represent study sites located in deciduous

forests (shown as the grey area), and open circles represent study sites located in

evergreen forests (shown as the white area; Tsuji 2010). 1, Shimokita Peninsula; 2,

Shirakami; 3, Okunikkawa; 4, Kinkazan; 5, Iitate; 6, Mt. Azuma; 7, Kurobe; 8,

Nikko; 9, Shiga Heights; 10, Kamikouchi; 11, Hakusan; 12, Chichibu; 13, Okutama;

14, Tanzawa; 15, Boso Peninsula; 16, Kyoto Basin; 17, Tsuchiyama; 18, Nukata; 19,

Uji; 20, Minoo; 22, Mt. Hiei; 23, Arashiyama; 24, Miyajima; 25, Kawaradake; 26,

Takasakiyama; 27, Koshima; 28, Yakushima (coastal forest); 29, Yakushima

(coniferous forest; see also Table 1).

Figure 2 Relationships between geographical and environmental variables and diet

composition: a) elevation and %foliage, b) snow depth and %foliage, c) NDVI

and %fruits and seeds, d) snow depth and %bark and buds, and e) snow duration

and %bark and buds. Each filled circle represents a study site.

Figure 3 Relationships between snow depth and dietary diversity (in terms of *H'*). Each
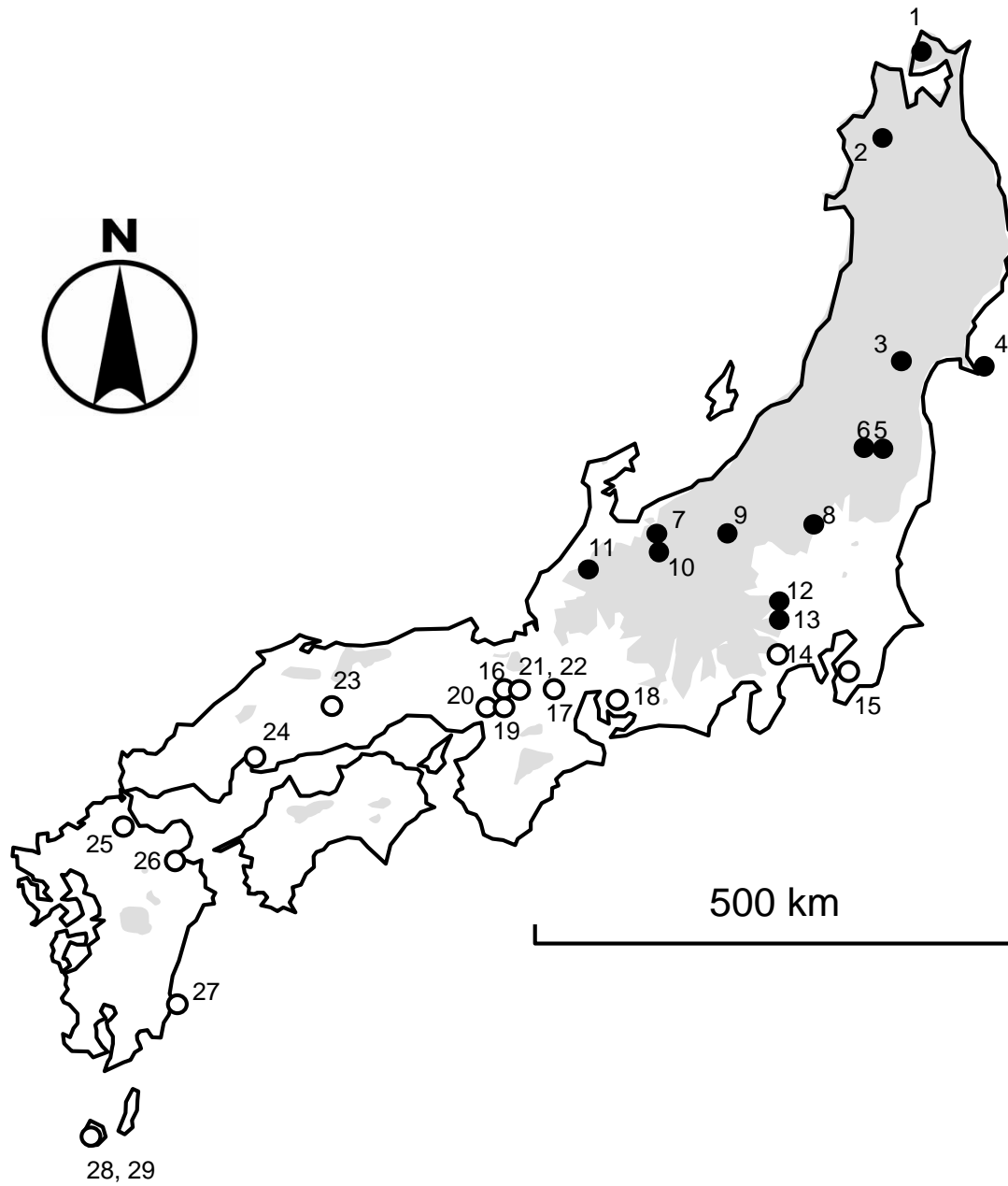
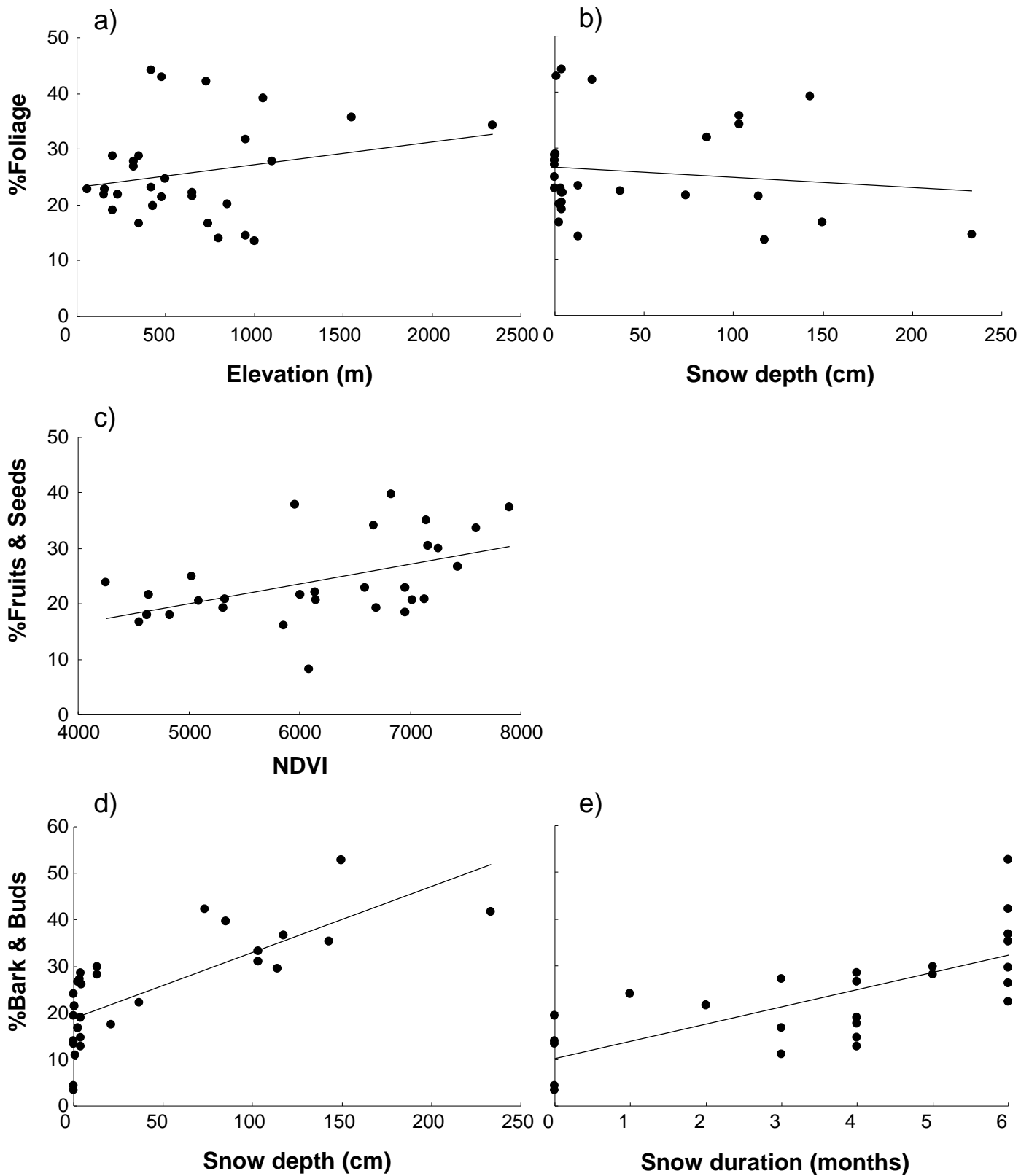filled circle represents a study site.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3