

TRAFFIC
REPORT

UGANDA WILDLIFE TRAFFICKING ASSESSMENT

APRIL 2018

Alessandra Rossi



TRAFFIC REPORT

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Mountain gorilla *Gorilla beringei beringei*

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Tree pangolin *Manis tricuspis*

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Lion *Panthera leo*

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Leopard *Panthera pardus*

© WWF-US / Jeff Muller

Grey Crowned-Crane *Balearica regulorum*

© Martin Harvey / WWF

Johnston's three-horned chameleon *Trioceros johnstoni*

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Shoebill *Balaeniceps rex*

© Christiaan van der Hoeven / WWF-Netherlands

African Elephant *Loxodonta africana*

© WWF / Carlos Drews

Head of a hippopotamus *Hippopotamus amphibius*

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UGANDA WILDLIFE TRAFFICKING ASSESSMENT

Alessandra Rossi



USAID
FROM THE AMERICAN PEOPLE



TRAFFIC
the wildlife trade monitoring network






Uganda's Bwindi Impenetrable Forest

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1. ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACBF	African Capacity Building Foundation
ACCU	Anti-Corruption Coalition Uganda
ADF	African Development Foundation
ADF	Allied Democratic Forces
AESR	African Elephant Status Report
AEWA	African Eurasian Migratory Waterbird Agreement
AFESG	African Elephant Specialist Group
AIMM Green	Ugandan NGO, community driven conservation
ASYCUDA	Automated System for Customs Data
AU	African Union
AUTO	Association of Uganda Tour Operators
AWF	African Wildlife Foundation
BMCT	Bwindi Mgahinga Conservation Trust
CAA	Civil Aviation Authority
CAR	Central African Republic
CBA	Community Based Association
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora
CPI	Community Protected Areas Institutions
DPP	Department of Public Prosecution
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
EIA	Entebbe International Airport
ETIS	Elephant Trade Information System
EU	European Union
FIA	Financial Intelligence Authority
GVTC	Greater Virunga Transboundary Collaboration
IBAs	Important Bird Areas
ICCF	International Conservation Caucus Foundation
ICCN	Institut Congolais pour la Conservation de la Nature
IDP	Internally Displaced People
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
INTERPOL	International Criminal Police Organization
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
IUCN-SSC	International Union for Conservation of Nature – Species Survival Commission
IWT	Illegal Wildlife Trade



Wild chimpanzee *Pan troglodytes* in Kibale National Park

JGI	Jane Goodall Institute
KVNP	Kidepo Valley National Park
LATF	Lusaka Agreement Task Force
LMNP	Lake Mburo National Park
LWOB	Lawyers Without Borders
LRA	Lord's Resistance Army
MFNP	Murchison Falls National Park
MIKE	Monitoring the Illegal Killing of Elephants
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MWE-WMD	Ministry of Water and Environment – Wetland Management Department
MTWA	Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities
NDFs	Non-detriment findings
NDP	National Development Plan
NFI	Netherlands Forensic Institute
NP	National Park
NRCN	Natural Resources Conservation Network
NU	Nature Uganda
NWC	National Whistleblower Center
NWIS	National Wetlands Information System
OTPTN	Office Rwandaise du Tourisme et des Parcs Nationaux
PIKE	Proportion of Illegally Killed Elephants
PMAC	Park Management Advisory Committees
QENP	Queen Elizabeth National Park
SAR	Special Administrative Region
SFG	Space for Giants
SULi	IUCN CEESP/SSC Sustainable Use and Livelihoods Specialist Group

SWFS	Society for Wildlife Forensic Science
TRACE	Wildlife Forensics Network
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UEPB	Uganda Export Promotion Board
UKAID	United Kingdom Agency for International Development
UNEP-WCMC	United Nations Environment Programme – World Conservation Monitoring Centre
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UPDF	Uganda People’s Defence Force
UPF	Uganda Police Force
URA	Uganda Revenue Authority
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USFWS	United States Fish and Wildlife Service
UWA	Uganda Wildlife Authority
UWEC	Uganda Wildlife Education Centre
WB	World Bank
WCS	Wildlife Conservation Society
Wildlife TRAPS	Wildlife Trafficking, Response, Assessment, and Priority Setting
WWF UCO	World Wide Fund for Nature Uganda Country Office



Lion *Panthera leo* in Ishasha, Uganda

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The discussions of the Workshop provided valuable information to the content of this report. A full list of Workshop participants can be found in Annex I.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY



Hippopotamus *Hippopotamus amphibius*

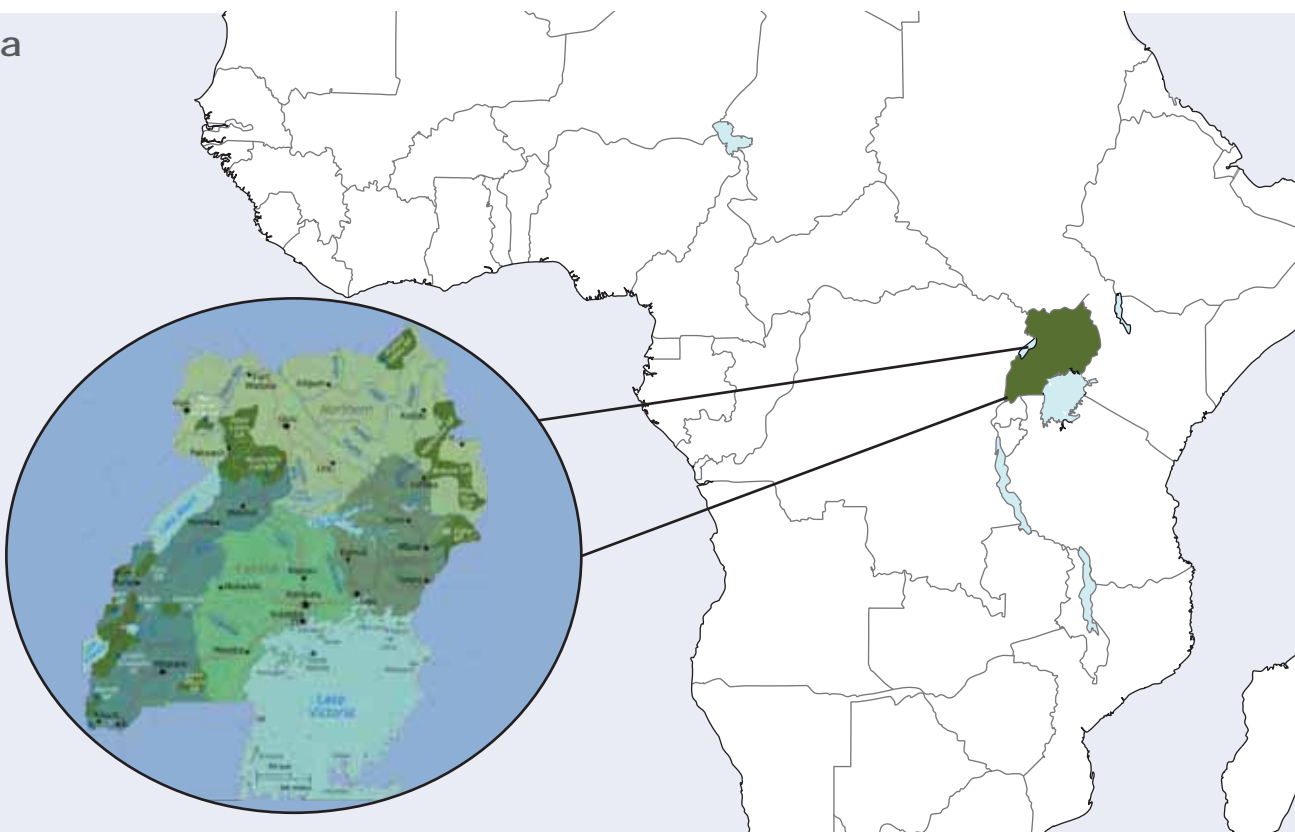
3. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report is an assessment of the legal and illegal wildlife¹ trade and poaching trends in Uganda, and of the country's role as a transit point for international wildlife trafficking. The assessment has been developed under the auspices of the USAID-funded Wildlife Trafficking Response, Assessment, and Priority Setting (Wildlife TRAPS) Project implemented by TRAFFIC and IUCN. Wildlife TRAPS focuses on disrupting the illegal trade of high-value species between Central, East and Southern Africa and East and Southeast Asia through the development of targeted actions and testing new, innovative approaches and partnerships. The report focuses on analyzing trade trends (legal and illegal), poaching occurrence, main drivers of poaching and species affected, with a view of identifying the best ways to respond to poaching, trafficking and exporting of illegal wildlife products from East Africa which transit through Uganda.

The report used various sources including available literature, namely national reports, strategies and plans, internet sources, and interviews with stakeholders both individuals and agencies. A major contribution in terms of information gathering and formulation of recommendations resulted from the Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, held in Kampala on 8–9 August 2016. The Workshop was organized and hosted by TRAFFIC in partnership with the Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA), USAID and IUCN and brought together over 60 stakeholders and partners belonging to national institutions and authorities concerned with wildlife trade, non-governmental organizations and charities working in conservation and investigations, the private sector, donor agencies, and partners for developing follow up activities. The structure and organization of the Workshop entailed various sessions each addressing a different aspect of wildlife trade and trafficking. The core subjects of the Workshop were the status of species in trade; poaching and trafficking and the main routes identified for illegal transit of species, with a focus on Uganda as a transit hub; the control efforts at ports and airports; policies and legislation to tackle poaching; trafficking and wildlife crime in general; prosecution procedures; and the role of the judiciary in halting wildlife crime.

¹ To the sole purpose of this report the term 'wildlife' will only include animal taxa

Map of Uganda





Grey Crowned-cranes *Balearica regulorum*
 National bird of Uganda. One of the most targeted species for illicit trade.



Johnston's Three-Horned Chameleon *Trioceros johnstoni*
 One of the most targeted species of chameleon exported for pet trade.



The main findings of the report are summarized in Chapter 6, starting with the status of the main Ugandan species in (legal and illegal) trade, providing an overview of the wildlife legislative framework, focusing on implementation progress, community involvement in wildlife conservation and regional/international frameworks to strengthen co-operation in tackling wildlife trafficking. Chapter 6.3 provides details about poaching and trafficking addressing trends and drivers, seizures and prosecution, the impacts of poaching and resource depletion on tourism and sectoral economies, real and potential linkages between political conflict and insurgency and poaching/trafficking, with particular reference to armed groups and organized crime. The Chapter also addresses the structure of poaching syndicates and the smugglers' transit routes that have been identified to and from Uganda.

The analysis on legal trade was derived from the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) Trade Database, while other sources of information (i.e. personal communications from wildlife authorities' officers and investigators, literature, seizure database) provided data concerning illegal trade channels. Decreasing numbers of birds have been traded starting from 2006; the decline in bird trade as compared to previous years can be attributed to a local scarcity of some species, shifts in market demands to other countries, and/or stricter protection and control measures put in place nationally. The most targeted species for illicit trade taking place nationally are the Grey Crowned-crane *Balearica regulorum* and the Shoebill *Balaeniceps rex*.

Reptiles were traded mainly between 2000 and 2005, with a prevalence of trade in chameleon species, followed by the Leopard Tortoise *Stigmochelys pardalis* totalling above 10,000 animals. Trade declined between 2005 and 2009 for most reptile species, resuming slowly from 2009 to 2014. The focus of reptile trade in Uganda is on chameleons and tortoises (*S. pardalis* only), as very few snakes, lizards, skinks, and geckos have been reported. A non-detriment finding study on reptiles, mandated by UWA to comply with CITES provisions, has determined that some species must be carefully assessed before the national competent authority can recommend a continuation in trade, this applies to: Ituri Chameleon *Kinyongia adolfi-friderici*, the Rwenzori Plate-nosed Chameleon *Kinyongia xenorhina*, and the Montane Chameleon *Trioceros bitaeniatus*. Illegal trade in reptiles has been documented as running in parallel to the legal trade, where the enabling factors mainly include the difficulty in identification and inspection of big shipments, unclear taxonomy and distribution range of some species, challenges in checking and handling potentially dangerous species like snakes as well as corruption at the inspection checkpoints.

Legal trade in mammals (exports from Uganda) mostly took place between 2000 and 2015 and it mainly refers to specimens traded either for scientific or educational purposes or as hunting

trophies. Main target species for trophy trade are the Common Hippopotamus *Hippopotamus amphibius*, the Topi *Damaliscus lunatus* and Olive Baboon *Papio anubis*. Exports of hippopotamus ivory (teeth) also contributed consistently to commercial trade volumes over the study period, with Hong Kong SAR as the main destination of large ivory shipments. Trade in live animals during the examined period is sporadic. Noteworthy is the registered increase in exports of pangolin scales that have appeared in the international trade from Uganda only starting from 2009, with destinations Viet Nam, China, Malaysia and the United States of America. This shift in the demand for pangolins from the Asian to the African species is confirmed by a long-term analysis (1977–2014) of the CITES Trade database, published in *Global Ecology and Conservation* (October 2016). The analysis shows that, over the examined period, CITES trade in Asian pangolin species decreased through time, whilst trade in African species increased after 2000. Many mammal specimens were exported for scientific purposes during 2000–2015; trade for scientific purposes has experienced a rise in terms of species concerned starting from 2010. Evidence of illegal trade in mammals refers mainly to pangolin scales and ivory and it is reported from both media and product seizures. Mountain Gorilla *Gorilla beringei beringei* (the subspecies distributed in Uganda) populations have been increasing nationally from the nineties to recent years (2011) inside Bwindi Impenetrable National Park; and an increasing trend is reported also in the Virunga range (cross-bordering area between Uganda, Rwanda and Democratic Republic of the Congo) from the seventies up to 2010. In 2004 two Mountain Gorillas and seven Grauer’s Gorillas *Gorilla beringei graueri* sourced in DRC were seized in Uganda. Lions *Panthera leo* are decreasing in Uganda because of indiscriminate killing in defense of people and cattle, arising from the increasing human-wildlife conflicts especially in densely populated areas, habitat loss, and prey depletion. Unlike other countries in Africa, in Uganda, there is no evidence of an illegal international trade in bones and other products or trophy hunting.

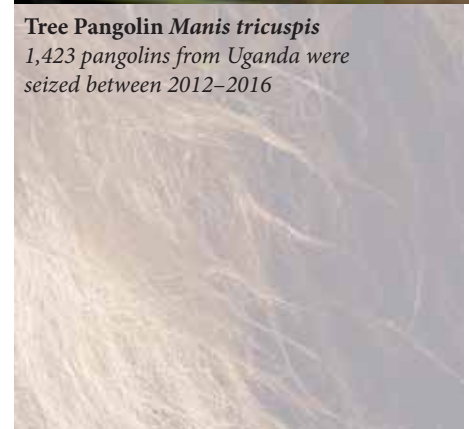
The Uganda wildlife legislative framework for species protection and illegal trade includes the Uganda Wildlife Act (2000) in addition to the Wildlife Policy (2014) and other sectoral policies and legislation touching marginally on wildlife and biodiversity protection. Such policies and legislation are: the Local Governments Act, Cap 243 (1997), the National Forestry and Tree Planting Act (2003), the Fish Act, Cap 197 (2000), the National Policy for the Conservation and Management of Wetlands (1995), the Uganda Forestry Policy (2001). The status of the implementation of wildlife policies is captured in the Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities Annual Sector Report highlighting current achievements in terms of increased funding for the sector, and the amendment of the Wildlife Act which includes several innovative provisions and promotion of wildlife tourism. Community involvement in protected area management and wildlife conservation is one of the core values of UWA, as reported



Hippopotamus *Hippopotamus amphibius*
7,000 hippopotamuses remain in Uganda.



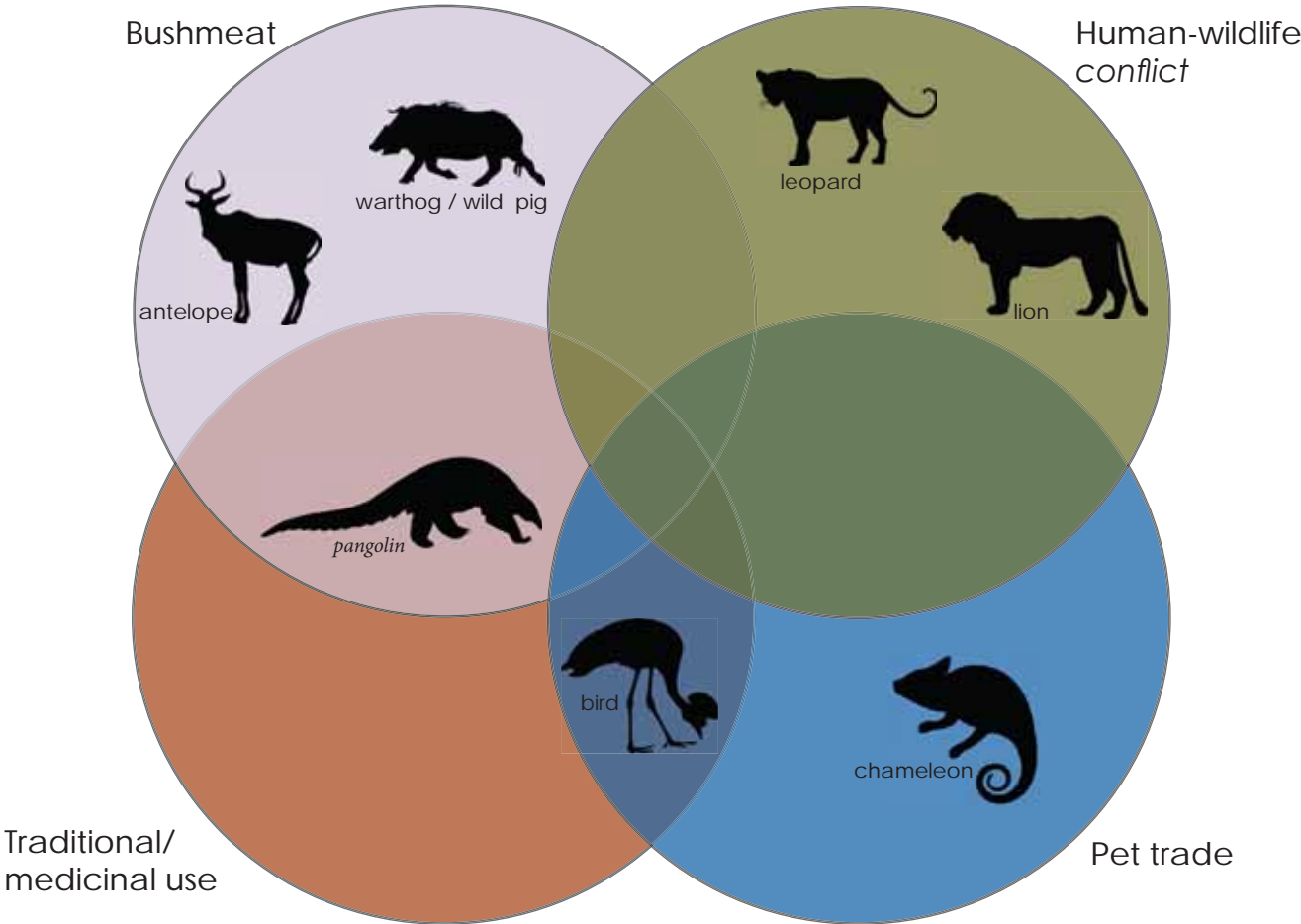
Tree Pangolin *Manis tricuspis*
1,423 pangolins from Uganda were seized between 2012–2016



for the case of Lake Mburo National Park (LMNP) and the new local management community body called “Community Protected Area Institution” (CPI). Transboundary agreements and regional co-operation play an important role in addressing wildlife crime. The most relevant of such agreements and collaborations are: The CITES Convention; the East African Protocol on Environment and Natural Resources; the Treaty establishing the Greater Virunga Transboundary Collaboration (GVTC); the Lusaka Agreement Task Force (LATF) and Memorandum of Understanding (MoUs) with Rwanda and Democratic Republic of the Congo for transboundary collaborative management of the Central Albertine Rift; the African Union Commission-led African Strategy on Combating Illegal Exploitation and Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora in Africa; the East African Community (EAC) Development Strategy (2011/12 - 2015/16) with strategic interventions for the adoption of a regional approach in the protection of wildlife resources from illegal use and practice as well as the East African Community Strategy to combat poaching, illegal trade and trafficking of wildlife and wildlife products for the period 2017–2021 and the draft Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) Regional Strategy on Wildlife Management (July 2017).

Chapter 6.3 explores poaching and trafficking trends with specific attention to recent years and main targeted species, analysis of seizure records, and the prosecution outcomes of several wildlife crime cases to evaluate the efficacy of current legislation. The Chapter also examines the drivers of poaching and wildlife crime particularly in relation to political conflict, instability and refugees. The Chapter further addresses possible evidence and linkages with organized crime, the structure of poaching syndicates in Uganda, and the main trafficking routes and destination countries for the illegal wildlife that are sourced or transiting through the country.

Poaching in Uganda



Poaching in Uganda is practiced mainly for meat, human-wildlife conflict, pet trade and traditional and medicinal uses. The main target species for meat and skins and other products (like scales, feathers) are: antelopes, Warthogs *Phacochoerus africanus* and wild pigs (meat); Lions, and Leopards *Panthera pardus* (human-wildlife conflict and skins); pangolins (meat and scales used in African and Asian traditional medicine), chameleons (for international pet trade); and birds (as pets and for traditional purposes—rituals and beliefs). African Elephant *Loxodonta africana* poaching is not a major concern in Uganda as compared to trafficking in ivory, although some poaching episodes are still registered by the authorities. In fact, Uganda’s elephant population is slightly increasing. Rhinos, and specifically the non-native Southern White Rhino *Ceratotherium simum simum* are present only in Ziwa Sanctuary managed by the NGO Rhino Fund Uganda in collaboration with Uganda Wildlife Authority and closely protected under their breeding and conservation programme.

The main drivers of poaching in Uganda are identified in the need for sourcing meat, skins and other products for the domestic illegal market or for use in traditional rituals and African or Asian traditional medicine. In the case of pangolins, recent seizures relate the demand from the international east and south-east Asian markets to poaching episodes in Uganda, and hence, at the community level, the driver is the perspective of achieving economic advantages beyond basic needs. Poaching for ivory and rhino horn is not a priority concern in Uganda, however the country is playing a major role as a transit hub for these products.

Illegal trade exists in birds and reptiles for the international pet trade; however, for both taxonomic groups a decline in legal exports has been registered during recent years and this could reflect both the scarcity of some target species (such as for example parrots linked to forest habitats) or the non-profitability of the trade because of stricter protection measures put in place nationally, following national recommendations and findings on target species i.e. the non-detriment findings (NDFs) study for Chameleons, Monitor Lizards, Pythons and Tortoises commissioned by UWA.

The way in which the poaching syndicates are structured in Uganda is similar to what is reported in Kenya by Weru 2016 and in Uganda by Harrison *et al.* 2015, where five levels are identified starting from the lower (or first) level, the poacher, going through the local middlemen (second level), the transporters (third level), the urban middlemen (fourth level) and ending up with the top level of the criminal chain corresponding to the kingpin or powerful criminal businessman (fifth level), financing the entire chain. Only one slight difference exists in what has been identified in Uganda, where stakeholders report another level in the trafficking chain: the exporters. These individuals are the leaders of the organized transnational crime network; they provide for the high-level planning, organization and intelligence, they can avail great levels of financial resources to invest in facilities for storage, repackaging and shipping, they are responsible, and involved in building and maintaining trading links, and they also play a key role in the corruption process necessary to complete the transactions.





"The major concern for Uganda is the evidence of its significant role as transit and logistic hub for wildlife trafficking"

Shoebill *Balaeniceps rex*

In the case of ivory, the poaching chain in Uganda most frequently starts from level three up to level four (level five is usually at the destination country) since poaching for sourcing ivory is very rare. Moreover, the criminals that are usually caught and prosecuted in Uganda appear to play a role either as transporters (with Ugandan nationals mostly involved) or as middlemen and organizers of the consignment to the destination countries (and in this case, foreign nationals are mostly involved).

Ivory seizures have been reported consistently by UWA since the 1990s; big scale ivory seizures (i.e. above 500 kg) have been reported in seven separate incidents from 2013 to March 2016 and all seizures except one took place at Entebbe International Airport (EIA). Recent reports associate ivory smuggling with pangolin scales, providing evidence of the existence of an international trade transit within Uganda and with destinations in east, southeast and south Asian countries. Main destinations that have been identified in relation to such trafficking are Malaysia, China, Singapore, Viet Nam and Sri Lanka. UNODC's *Wildlife Crime Report* (2016), identifies Uganda as a source shipping country for ivory going further to both Kenya and directly to Malaysia as a transit port for other east Asian destinations. According to the same report, large volumes of ivory (> 500 kg) that have been seized by Uganda point to the country (together with Sudan possibly) as being a major transit hub where ivory is flowing in from the Central and East Africa region. Terrestrial smuggling routes exist between Uganda and Tanzania, Kenya, South Sudan, Central African Republic and Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Arrests and prosecutions have varied from 2005 until 2015, but in general arrests, prosecutions and convictions are on the rise, and this might reflect the increased capacity and efficiency in enforcement operations. However, even in cases where convictions are attained for wildlife crimes, an intrinsic weakness of the current legislation especially in sanctions and penalties hamper the effectiveness of current efforts in strengthening enforcement and co-operation in fighting wildlife crime.

Criminal organizations involved in wildlife trafficking in Uganda are mainly associated with ivory trafficking. Military and/or armed groups also play a role in poaching for ivory even if in most cases there is no evidence of such activities. The armed groups that are thought to have a role in such trafficking are the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA), associated with seizures originating in the Central African Republic and the Allied Democratic Forces at the border with Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Nationally, suspects of a very powerful transnational criminal syndicate point at the involvement of both Ugandans and foreign nationals, responsible for collecting ivory and other high valued wildlife products who organize the transnational and internal transportation, storage and repackaging at urban hubs (mainly Kampala) and subsequent organization of the delivery through airport transit to the final destinations.



Warthog *Phacochoerus africanus*

Data collected and analyzed for this report show that most of Uganda's wildlife doesn't face major threats from poaching, in terms of species sourced from the country for the international trade. Pangolins represent an exception: their status in the country is not well understood but the evidence of harvesting for the international trade can represent a threat to local populations. Chameleons are of potential concern, considering that peaks of trade were registered at least between 2000–2005 and that all species originated from the wild. UWA has commissioned a non-detriment findings report for some of the most traded reptile taxa, where zero quotas are recommended for those species found only inside protected areas and management plans/additional studies required for the remaining species in trade.

The major concern for Uganda is the evidence of its significant role as a transit and logistics hub for wildlife trafficking, detected through a recent strengthening of enforcement controls. This illegal transit is supported by many factors among which are: an intrinsic weakness of the current legislation, the presence of powerful and highly organized criminal networks with national and transnational hubs; loopholes of law enforcement in the trade chain; corruption; weak capacity; and, a growing demand for certain wildlife products (i.e. ivory, rhino horn, pangolin scales) from east and southeast Asian markets. The interventions and recommendations identified in this report originate from the Stakeholders' discussion during the Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop and from follow up consultations that have allowed the refinement of the main issues and most appropriate actions/recommendations. The recommendations address mainly the needs of the country in terms of structuring a nationally co-ordinated system of institutions, organizations, agencies and concerned stakeholders that would take action to address:

- Different aspects of law enforcement;
- Ivory stock management;
- Information management;
- Partnering with local communities;
- Education and awareness; and
- Transboundary co-operation.

In addition, the need for strengthening national knowledge about the status of species in trade emerges as a priority from the analysis of trade data.



Priority Actions

Focal Area 1: Law enforcement and national-level co-ordination

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Develop a strategy to combat poaching and wildlife trafficking	EU, USAID, UNODC, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE TRAFFIC	MTWA, UWA
Establish a multi-agency national task force with sufficient resources and mandate	EU, USAID, UNODC, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, GVTC, NRCN	UWA, URA, CAA, UPF/INTERPOL, DPP, Judiciary, FIA
Enhance co-ordination across agencies and organizations in fighting poaching and wildlife trafficking (i.e. implement co-ordinated multi-agency approach and strategic partnership), building on URA's performance-based reporting model with other agencies and neighbouring countries.	URA	MTWA, UWA, DPP, URA, UPF/INTERPOL, FIA
Set up information sharing and exchange mechanisms across national law enforcement agencies (i.e clearing house mechanisms)	EU, USAID, UNODC, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, CAA, UPF/INTERPOL, FIA
Implement a multi-stakeholder approach that includes the private sector and local communities as well as government agencies	TRAFFIC, AIMM Green, AUTO, UEPB, UWEC	UWA, Tourism and Transport Associations, Oil Companies, CBAs



Priority Actions

Focal Area 2: Law enforcement: capacity building, awareness raising, data dissemination

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Build internal capacity across relevant law enforcement agencies, such as strengthening UWA capacity in the intelligence section, canine section, improving detection capacity on poaching and wildlife trafficking, strengthening wildlife crime investigations capacity	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE TRAFFIC, NRCN, UNODC, INTERPOL	UWA, UPF, URA, CAA, FIA
Strengthen capacity for wildlife crime investigations and crime scene/evidence management	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, NRCN, TRACE, UNODC, INTERPOL	UWA, Judiciary, DPP, UPF, CAA
Strengthen/improve capacity for prosecution, litigation and judiciary	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, ACCU, TRAFFIC, NRCN,	DPP, Judiciary, FIA
Raise capacity of key stakeholders (local communities, law enforcement officers, key government agencies) to identify key species in trade	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, TRAFFIC, WCS, Makerere University, AWF, JGI	UWA, UPF, URA, CAA, CBAs
Identify and mandate nationally-recognized experts in particular taxa who can serve as resources for different agencies	Makerere University, WCS, NU, JGI, AWF, WWF UCO, IUCN UCO	UWA, UPF, URA, CAA, Judiciary, DPP
Document and disseminate information on the species in legal and illegal trade for all concerned stakeholders (local communities, law enforcement officers, key government agencies)	EU, USAID, WB, UKAID TRAFFIC, UWA, NRCN, WCS, GVTC, AWF	Tourist and Transport Associations, Private companies (i.e. logistics/freight forwarders), UPF, Judiciary, DPP, URA, CBAs



Priority Actions

Focal Area 3: Law enforcement: methods and tools

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Adopt the use of modern technology for combating poaching and wildlife trafficking	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, TRACE, WCS	UWA, UPF/INTERPOL, CAA, URA, FIA
Deploy detection dogs at airport permanently	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, NRCN, SFG, UNODC	DPP, Judiciary, UWA, FIA
Enable and support wildlife crime courts and specialized wildlife crime prosecutors	UNODC, LWOB	DPP, Judiciary, FIA
Secure adequate funding to support and expand incentive-based intelligence networks (i.e. incentives and contributions for intelligence information systems)	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, UNODC, LWOB, NWC, NRCN	MTWA, UWA, URA, UPF, INTERPOL, CAA, FIA
Establish a fully-fledged investigation section at UWA	Intelligence Agencies of donor countries, UNODC TRAFFIC, NRCN	UWA
Establish a forensic lab at UWA (depending on funding and further evaluation) and establish collaborative agreements with existing forensic labs in the region (i.e. Kenya)	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, TRACE, NFI, SWFS	UWA
Use modern information technology in investigations	TRAFFIC, NRCN	UWA, UPF, CAA, URA, FIA



Priority Actions

Focal Area 4: Law enforcement: Policy/Legislation

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Undertake necessary legislative and policy reforms to ensure that sentences serve as deterrents and to remove loopholes	TRAFFIC, LWOB, NRCN	MTWA, UWA, DPP, Judiciary, FIA
Develop or strengthen standard prosecutors and sentencing guidelines for judges/magistrates in wildlife crime	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, NRCN, SFG, UNODC	DPP, Judiciary, UWA, FIA
Disseminate all relevant laws and policies concerning wildlife to all stakeholders	TRAFFIC, UWA	UPF, CAA, FIA, URA, DPP, Judiciary

Focal Area 5: Ivory stock management

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Improve ivory stock management and security, including exploring the possibility of a central, secure ivory stockpile, in consultation with all relevant agencies	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UPF/INTERPOL
Explore ways to improve the handling of exhibits in court cases in order to reduce the security burden of managing high-value exhibits	TRAFFIC, TRACE, LWOB, UNODC, NRCN	DPP, Judiciary, UWA, URA, UPF/INTERPOL, FIA
Develop standard operating procedures for handling exhibits	TRAFFIC, TRACE, LWOB, UNODC, NRCN	DPP, UWA, URA, FIA



Priority Actions

Focal Area 6: Wildlife trade and seizures information management

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
<p>Ensure harmonization and cross-referencing across different databases (seizures and illegal trade, legal trade, CITES database, court cases, financial investigation files kept by UWA, URA, UPF, FIA, UBOS, DPP) so that data is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • consistent with Uganda’s international reporting requirements • available to a wide range of stakeholders 	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UPF, FIA, Uganda Bureau of Statistics, DPP
Explore the possibility of a central data clearing-house to ensure that relevant data is available to all stakeholders	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA
Broaden data collection protocols for wildlife exports in order to record a greater level of detail on wildlife trade recorded through Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS)	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA
Undertake an analysis of data sources, information available, and gaps in information needs and use.	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA
Establish a mechanism for sharing, dissemination and feedback of data and information from identified stakeholders	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA
Minimize the number of data returns – rationalize information collection and distribution, including paths of data flow	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA



Priority Actions

Focal Area 7: Partnering with local communities

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Identify and implement incentive mechanisms (besides the current or in addition to the current benefit sharing) to enhance engagement of local communities in anti-poaching and combating of wildlife trafficking	TRAFFIC, AIMM Green, IUCN, WWF, WCS, AWF, SULi	UWA, CPIs from main PAs, Local Governments, CBAs
Address human-wildlife conflict interventions	TRAFFIC, AIMMGREEN, IUCN, WWF, WCS, AWF	UWA, CPIs from main PAs, Local Governments, CBAs
Ensure clarity of messages at the local community level regarding legal vs. illegal harvesting	TRAFFIC, IUCN, AIMM Green, SULi	Local Governments, CBAs

Focal Area 8: Education and awareness

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Undertake targeted awareness programmes about poaching and wildlife trafficking for Judiciary, police, URA, Customs & immigration (and any other relevant law enforcement agency)	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, SFG, WWF, AWF, WCS, NRCN, UNODC	UWA, UPF, CAA, URA, DPP, Judiciary
Raise political awareness of poaching and wildlife trafficking, particularly at parliamentary and cabinet level	ICCF, ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, TRAFFIC,	Prime Minister Office, MTWA, UWA
Raise public awareness of the cultural and economic importance of Uganda's wildlife and the impact of wildlife crime on this natural capital	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID TRAFFIC, WWF, AWF, WCS, JGI	Public, media, press offices of main Ministries



Priority Actions

Focal Area 9: Transboundary co-operation²

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Harmonize legislation (particularly penalties) and policies across borders	ICCF, TRAFFIC, LATF, GVTC, NRCN	MTWA, UWA, DPP, Judiciary, Transboundary organizations/bodies
Integrate national-level priority actions into the implementation plan of the African Union’s African Strategy on Combating Illegal Exploitation and Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora in Africa	TRAFFIC, Permanent Representatives Committee of the AU, LATF, GVTC, NRCN	MTWA, UWA, DPP
Explore mechanisms for enhanced co-ordination through the structures, mechanisms, policies and strategies of the East African Community and the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD)	TRAFFIC, EAC Secretariat, IGAD Secretariat	MTWA, UWA
Identify and implement best practices from Kenya, Tanzania and South Africa	TRAFFIC, Kenya, Tanzania, and South Africa Wildlife Authorities	MTWA, UWA, DPP, Judiciary, Transboundary organizations/bodies

² Although not mentioned during the Stakeholder Workshop, specific bilateral agreements/MoUs on curbing cross-border wildlife trafficking, should be established with a specific focus on those countries where illegal wildlife trade flows are documented (such as DRC, see paragraph 6.3.4 in the text).

A pair of Grey Crowned-cranes standing in a field of tall, dry grass. The crane in the foreground is shown in profile, facing right, with its long, dark grey neck and head clearly visible. It has a distinctive black cap and a large, red, fleshy wattle hanging from its chin. Its body is covered in long, dark grey feathers, with a white patch on its lower neck and chest. The crane in the background is facing forward, also showing its black cap and red wattle. The background is a soft, out-of-focus field of golden-brown grass under a bright sky.

INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND

A pair of Grey Crowned-cranes *Balearica regulorum*

4. INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND

Uganda is situated in the African Great Lakes region occupying a total surface area of 241,551 km², of which approximately 18% is open water and swamps (Menyha, *in litt.* Workshop on Environment Statistics, Arusha, 2015).

Uganda is characterized by a fast-growing population. The last national census of 2014 estimated the population at 34.6 million people, up from 30 million in 2008.

Uganda hosts a rich biodiversity: 53.9% of the world's remaining population of mountain gorillas *Gorilla beringei beringei*, 11% of the world's recorded species of birds (50% of Africa's bird species), 7.8% of the global mammal diversity (39% of Africa's mammals), 19% of Africa's amphibian species, 14% of Africa's reptile species, 1,249 recorded species of butterflies and 600 species of fish (Anon., 2012a).

Uganda's high population has implications for the use of land and environment that are subject to increasing pressures. As the population grows there is an increased demand for basic services such as housing, sanitation, energy, transport. Particular focus is on forest resources and biodiversity, where forest resources have been depleted steadily from the 1990s with a deforestation rate of 1.8% per year (Anon., 2012a). Currently, biodiversity and wildlife resources are threatened by factors including: agricultural expansion into natural habitats, charcoal and firewood collection, infrastructure development and mining, poaching and wildlife trafficking, and overexploitation.

54% of the world's remaining population of mountain gorillas

50% of Africa's bird species (11% of the world's recorded bird species)

39% of Africa's mammals (7.8% of global mammal diversity)

19% of Africa's amphibian species

14% of Africa's reptile species

1,249 species of butterfly

600 species of fish



Underlying causes of threats to biodiversity are associated with growing population, weak governance, limited opportunities for off-farm employment, poverty, lack of awareness, and insecurity of land tenure, to mention a few (Anon. 2015a).

Uganda has already experienced a massive decline in wildlife in the past, due mainly to war, insurgency and political instability up to recent years: during the Amin regime in the 1970s, wildlife in Uganda experienced a dramatic decline with thousands of animals killed by military groups and heavy encroachment into protected areas. During the 1980s under the National Resistance Movement, the country gained major stability and tried to restore some of the protected areas by upgrading them to national parks. Nevertheless, aerial surveys undertaken during the 1990s revealed that most of the protected areas were being heavily encroached upon and several species had become extirpated either nationally or locally within Uganda (i.e., Oryx *Oryx beisa* extirpated nationally, Derby's Eland *Tragelaphus derbianus* extirpated from the West Nile region, the Bongo *Tragelaphus eurycerus* from Mt Elgon, and both the Black and the Northern White Rhino *Diceros bicornis* and *Ceratotherium simum cottoni* from their ranges in the north) (Anon., 2015b).

"Currently biodiversity and wildlife resources are threatened by factors including: agricultural expansion into natural habitats, charcoal and firewood collection, infrastructure development and mining, poaching and wildlife trafficking, and overexploitation."

Information reporting on the status of wildlife in Uganda is sporadic. Surveys conducted by various donors and organizations during the 1990s have built a baseline concerning the status of large mammals for most of the Ugandan protected areas. Thereafter the Uganda Wildlife Authority has carried out regular censuses to monitor animal population trends. Some examples are the Bwindi Impenetrable Forest and Mgahinga National Parks, hosting the only Mountain Gorilla population, Kibale National Park, having the highest population of chimpanzees *Pan troglodytes* in Uganda, Queen Elizabeth, Murchison Falls, Kidepo and LMNP known for hosting high numbers of carnivores such as Lions, Leopards and hyenas together with large herbivorous such as elephants, Buffaloes *Syncerus caffer*, Topi, Giraffes *Giraffa camelopardalis*, Elands *Tragelaphus oryx*, Zebra *Equus quagga*, Waterbucks *Kobus ellipsiprymnus*, Kobs *Kobus kob*, and hippopotamus. These NPs are also known for hosting other species of high conservation importance belonging to other taxa, including birds, reptiles, and amphibians (Anon., 2015b).

Most of Uganda's wildlife is distributed inside protected areas and, though the populations of elephants and gorillas are slightly increasing (Anon., 2015b), other species within these areas are threatened by an expanding human population, natural habitat encroachment, infrastructure development, human-wildlife conflict and to a lesser extent, poaching for bushmeat or illegal trade.

A close-up photograph of a leopard's fur, showing the characteristic rosette pattern of dark spots on a lighter, tawny background. The fur is thick and appears to be resting on a dark, textured tree branch. The lighting is dramatic, highlighting the texture of the fur and the rough bark of the branch.

METHODOLOGY

Leopard *Panthera pardus* on a branch

5. METHODOLOGY

This report was compiled using various sources: partly literature review of existing (national and international) publications as well as official national policy documents and strategies and from stakeholders' feedback gathered through a stakeholder workshop and follow-up consultations.

The follow-up consultations used questionnaires to: fill main data gaps identified during the assessment, with particular reference to trade data validation and verification, address co-ordination mechanisms between the institutions concerned with wildlife trade, document case studies and successful stories about wildlife tourism supporting local livelihoods, gather intelligence on criminal groups and organizations operating in Uganda in the field of wildlife trade, transnational routes for wildlife crime and the structure of poaching and trafficking in Uganda.

The analysis focused on the figures of the legal wildlife trade reported from the national authorities (the national trade database held by the Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities and the CITES Trade database) to synthesize information about the legal trade volumes and species over the last 15 years. CITES is an international agreement between governments aiming to ensure that international trade in specimens of wild animals and plants does not threaten their survival. The Convention established a trade record mechanism that allows to store and analyze trade data from all state parties (The CITES Trade Database).

The IUCN Red-List and nationally available resources (Anon. 2015b; Anon. 2016e; Behangana, 2015; Carswell *et al.* 2005) provided insight into the current conservation status of the most frequently traded species. This analysis provided knowledge on the extent to which the legal trade can affect the conservation of some species or can contribute to species decline. The analysis also involved species, in the illegal trade channel, whose trade is prohibited.

The “comparative tabulation reports” of the CITES Trade Database give the most comprehensive type of output showing reported exports, re-exports and imports together with purpose and source of transactions and provide an opportunity to cross-check for possible inconsistencies or double records.



Grey Crowned-crane
Balearica regulorum

5.1 Stakeholder Workshop

The stakeholders invited to the Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, held from August 8–9, 2016 in Kampala were initially identified by USAID and TRAFFIC, in consultation with UWA.

The Workshop represented the first comprehensive consultation in Uganda of stakeholders concerned with wildlife trade, crime, and trafficking. The list of participant organizations and their details are provided in Annex I – Workshop List of Participants.

5.1.1 Workshop objectives

The Workshop was organized as an activity under the US Agency for International Development (USAID) Wildlife Trafficking Response, Assessment and Priority Setting (Wildlife TRAPS) Project.

Its main objectives were to build the baseline on the extent and gravity of wildlife trafficking within Uganda and clarify the country’s role in the illegal wildlife trade in Africa, to highlight existing initiatives and donor commitments in Uganda and allow participating agencies and partners to present on current findings. The workshop provided an opportunity for enhancing local, cross-border, and regional mechanisms for broader co-operation on combating wildlife crime and encouraging greater participation by the private sector and transboundary organizations in anti-trafficking efforts.

Workshop Objectives



5.1.2 Workshop structure and main contents

The Workshop was composed of eight sessions including two for wrap up and summarizing priority actions at the end of day one and day two. The other six sessions addressed different aspects of wildlife trade and trafficking (see Annex II – Agenda of the Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop). Each session ended with a plenary discussion to allow participants a space to ask questions about the presentations or provide further input.

5.1.3 Workshop priority actions

The priority actions were identified by Workshop participants during a general discussion and as a result of the plenary sessions and final wrap up of the Workshop. The purpose of defining priority actions was to provide national guidance on next steps in the field of wildlife trafficking. The priority actions could further represent the starting point for the discussion and Terms of Reference of a Stakeholder Co-ordination Forum, to be potentially established as a follow-up activity to the present assessment. The priority actions were grouped according to nine main focal areas, as listed in the following.

PRIORITY ACTIONS

		Focal Area 3: Law enforcement methods and tools
Focal Area 1: Law enforcement and national-level co-ordination <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Develop a strategy to combat poaching and wildlife trafficking; Establish a multi-agency national task force with sufficient resources and mandate; Enhance co-ordination across agencies and organizations in fighting poaching and wildlife trafficking (i.e. implement co-ordinated multi-agency approach and strategic partnership), building on URA's performance-based reporting model with other agencies and neighbouring countries; Set up information sharing and exchange mechanisms across national law enforcement agencies (i.e. clearing house mechanisms); Implement a multi-stakeholder approach that includes the private sector and local communities as well as government agencies 	Focal Area 2: Law enforcement capacity building, awareness raising, data dissemination <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Build internal capacity across relevant law enforcement agencies, such as strengthening UWA capacity in the intelligence section, canine section, improving detection capacity on poaching and wildlife trafficking, strengthening wildlife crime investigations capacity; Strengthen capacity for wildlife crime investigations and crime scene/evidence management; Strengthen/improve capacity for prosecution, litigation, and judiciary; Raise capacity of key stakeholders (local communities, law enforcement officers, key government agencies) to identify key species in trade; Identify and mandate nationally-recognized experts in particular taxa who can serve as resources for different agencies; Document and disseminate information on the species in legal and illegal trade for all concerned stakeholders (local communities, law enforcement officers, key government agencies) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adopt the use of modern technology for combating poaching and wildlife trafficking; Deploy detection dogs at airport permanently; Enable and support wildlife crime courts and specialized wildlife crime prosecutors; Secure adequate funding to support and expand incentive-based intelligence networks (i.e. incentives and contributions for intelligence information systems); Establish a fully-fledged investigation section at UWA; Establish a forensic lab at UWA (depending on funding and further evaluation) and establish collaborative agreements with existing forensic labs in the region (i.e. Kenya); Use modern information technology in investigations
Focal Area 4: Law enforcement policy/legislation	Focal Area 5: Ivory stock management	Focal Area 6: Wildlife trade and seizures information management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure harmonization and cross-referencing across different databases (seizures and illegal trade, legal trade, CITES database, court cases, financial investigation files kept by UWA, URA, UPF, FIA, UBOS, DPP) so that data is: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> consistent with Uganda's international reporting requirements; available to a wide range of stakeholders; Explore the possibility of a central data clearing-house to ensure that relevant data is available to all stakeholders; Broaden data collection protocols for wildlife exports in order to record a greater level of detail on wildlife trade recorded through Uganda Bureau of Statistics; Undertake an analysis of data sources, information available, and gaps in information needs and use; Establish a mechanism for sharing, dissemination, and feedback of data and information from identified stakeholders; Minimize the number of data returns – rationalize information collection and distribution, including paths of data flow
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Undertake necessary legislative and policy reforms to ensure that sentences serve as deterrents and to remove loopholes; Develop or strengthen standard prosecutors and sentencing guidelines for judges/magistrates in wildlife crime; Disseminate all relevant laws and policies concerning wildlife to all stakeholders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improve ivory stock management and security, including exploring the possibility of a central, secure ivory stockpile, in consultation with all relevant agencies; Explore ways to improve the handling of exhibits in court cases in order to reduce the security burden of managing high-value exhibits; Develop standard operating procedures for handling exhibits 	
Focal Area 7: Partnering with local communities	Focal Area 8: Education and awareness	Focal Area 9: Transboundary co-operation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify and implement incentive mechanisms (besides the current or in addition to the current benefit sharing) to enhance engagement of local communities in anti-poaching and combating of wildlife trafficking; Address human-wildlife conflict interventions; Ensure clarity of messages at the local community level regarding legal vs. illegal harvesting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Undertake targeted awareness programmes about poaching and wildlife trafficking for Judiciary, police, URA, Customs & immigration (and any other relevant law enforcement agency); Raise political awareness of poaching and wildlife trafficking, particularly at parliamentary and cabinet level; Raise public awareness of the cultural and economic importance of Uganda's wildlife and the impact of wildlife crime on this natural capital 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Harmonize legislation (particularly penalties) and policies across borders; Integrate national-level priority actions into the implementation plan of the African Union's African Strategy on Combating Illegal Exploitation and Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora in Africa; Explore mechanisms for enhanced co-ordination through the structures, mechanisms, policies, and strategies of the East African Community and the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD); Identify and implement best practices from Kenya, Tanzania, and South Africa

5.2 Follow-up consultation

Follow up meetings with some of the stakeholders took place after the Workshop to collect additional information and to fill some of the data gaps identified during the Workshop. The tools used for the consultation were questionnaires specifically addressing the missing data and information.

Table 2: Information collected through questionnaires in follow up meetings

Stakeholder	Type of information requested	Date
Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities	Institutional responsibilities of the Ministry concerning wildlife trade, cross-checking of trade data figures, information on draft legislation (update of Uganda Wildlife Act) collection of Annual Performance Reports	10/10/2016
Financial Intelligence Authority	Armed non-State actors and criminal groups operating in Uganda and their linkages with wildlife crime, seizure and freezing of forfeiture/ assets	10/10/2016
Uganda Police Force	Information about organized crime and wildlife crime in Uganda, linkages between wildlife crime and armed non-State actors' groups	11/10/2016
Uganda Revenue Authority	Registration and storage of data concerning wildlife trade, activities and programmes to tackle wildlife crime, seizures, wildlife smuggling through insecure areas	11/10/2016
Natural Resources Conservation Network (NRCN)	Structure of poaching syndicates and wildlife trafficking network, linkages between wildlife crime and armed non-State actors' groups	12/10/2016
Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA)	Permit issuance for wildlife user rights, clarification about export figures, seizures, tourism revenue sharing with local communities, refugee impacts on wildlife, structure of poaching and trafficking networks, legislation, prosecution of wildlife crimes	12/10/2016 14/10/2016
Department of Public Prosecution (DPP)	Legislative framework and sanctions system for wildlife crime, prosecution and criminal records	14/10/2016

6. RESULTS

6.1 Status of main Ugandan species legally and illegally traded

The following section presents information about the main traded bird, reptile and mammal species between 2000 and 2015. The trade analysis focuses on identifying the main legally traded species sourced from the country and provides an overview of the major importing countries for each taxon (by using the comparative tabulation outputs of the CITES Trade Database).

River flowing from the Rwenzori Mountains, Uganda



BIRDS

Shoebill *Balaeniceps rex* in Uganda

6.1.1 Birds

Over 14,000 live birds were exported from Uganda between 2000 and 2015, including CITES and non-CITES listed species (A. K. Bintooro, Community Conservation Department, UWA, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016). The CITES Trade database (comparative tabulation report) reported for the same period 6,351 exports of CITES-listed live birds; with peaks of exports in 2001 and 2004. Feathers of the Accipitridae family for scientific purposes are the most traded items in terms of specimens, even though the trade in bird specimens is sporadic across the examined period. However, much of the legal trade in birds concerns live animals.

Figure 2 shows a comparison between numbers of birds reported by Uganda and the corresponding numbers reported by the importing countries. The mismatching numbers from 2000 to 2005 could indicate that, during this period, Uganda reported the number of birds licensed for export and not the real quantities cleared at Customs. In such a scenario, the number of CITES-listed birds exported during this period would be lower than 6,351 animals.

The two major importers for CITES-listed live birds from 2000 to 2015 were the Netherlands and Germany, as shown in the following graph, representing the total number of imports over the study period. South Africa is the main importer within the continent. The countries with few imports are, for the most part, importers of one/two specimens of Grey Parrots *Psittacus erithacus* for personal use.

2000–2015:

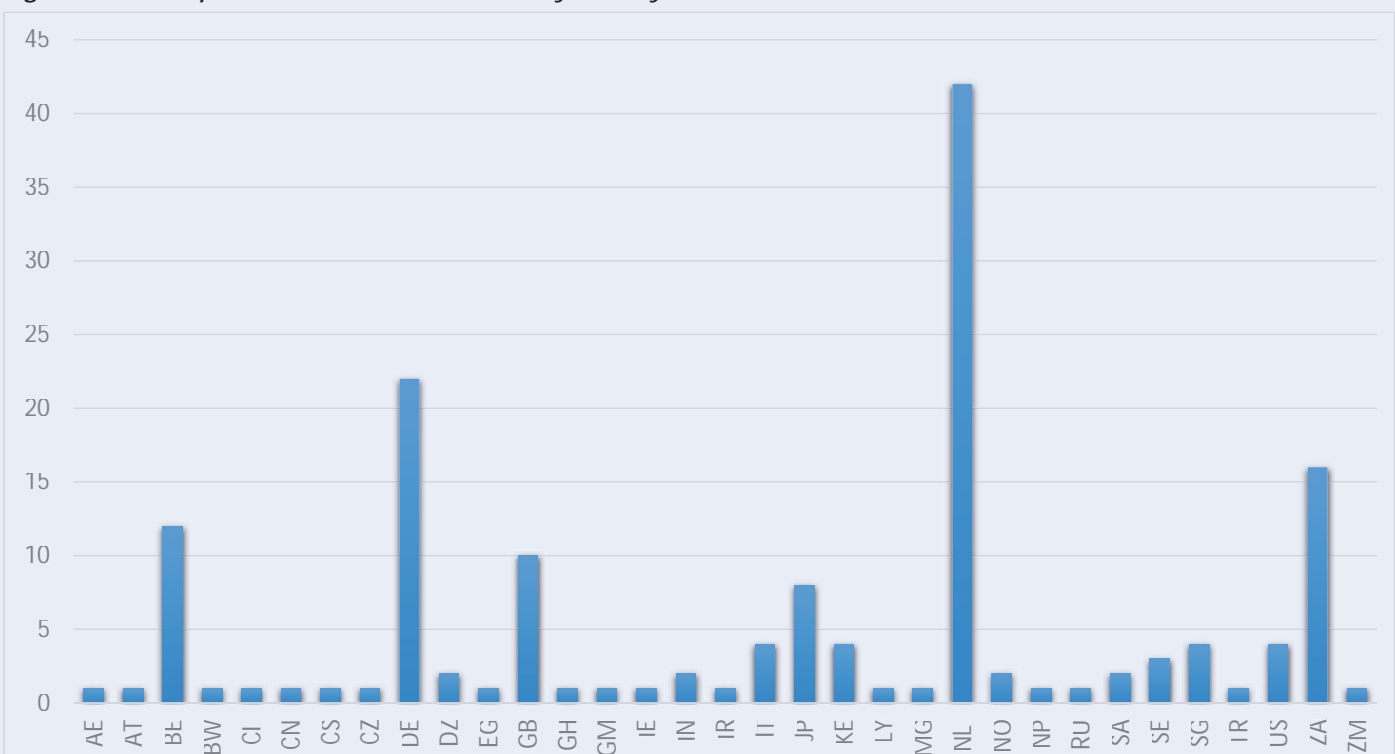
14,000
live birds exported

6,351
CITES-listed birds
exported



Netherlands &
Germany top
importers

Figure 1: Total imports of CITES-listed live birds by country from 2000–2015



A national report analysis of bird trade figures (Anon., 2008a) during the period from 2000–2006 shows that bird exports decreased slightly from 2004–2005 until no exports were recorded for many species in 2006. During the overall period, the major peaks in exports were registered between 2000–2003. The decreasing trend in bird exports has been attributed to various causes and conditions, such as: unfavorable market conditions, outbreak of the bird flu, overall decline in bird populations mainly linked to forest habitat destruction and high rates of illegally traded species both for subsistence and for commercial purposes (Anon., 2008a).

The decreasing trend in bird exports reported by Anon., 2008a, is confirmed by the trend of CITES-listed species exports from 2005 to 2015, when very few or no exports were registered, except for a slight increase in 2014 when 160 Red-headed Lovebirds *Agapornis pullarius* and 13 White-crested Turacos *Tauraco leucolophus* were exported. UWA (A. K. Bintooro, *in litt.* E-mail communication, April 2017) attributes the decreasing export trends in live birds (and in wild-sourced species in general) to their policy of discouraging trade of wild sourced species and incentivizing the establishment of captive breeding operations.

Another policy development that could have factored in the decrease of live bird exports from Uganda, and with specific reference to the main reported import destinations (Germany and the Netherlands) is the temporary ban on wild bird imports into the EU that came into place in October 2005 to prevent the spread of avian influenza. The ban was then made permanent in July 2007.

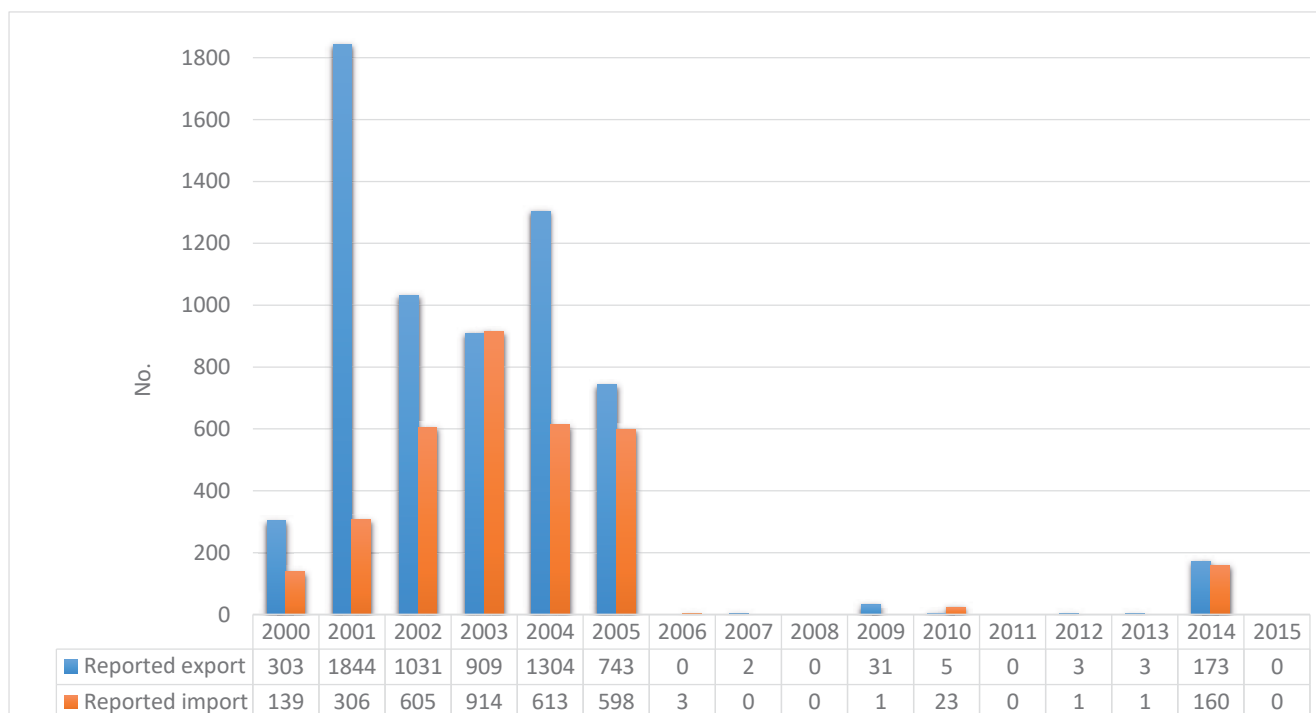
Export of bird species from Uganda has been on the decline since 2006

Illegal trade has occurred (Anon., 2008a) and still could to some extent; the decline in bird exports over the examined period can be associated with UWA policies discouraging trade in wild-sourced species (A. K. Bintooro, *in litt.* E-mail communication, April 2017) and could also reflect the scarcity of the species in the wild or the non-profitability of the trade (Anon. 2008a).

According to figures presented by Nature Uganda (the national BirdLife local partner), the Grey Crowned-crane and the Shoebill are the main illegally traded species (A. Byaruhanga, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016). Concerning legally traded CITES-listed species, the Yellow-fronted Canary *Crithagra mozambica*, was exported in the highest numbers up to 2005, as the species was deleted from CITES Appendix III in 2007, followed by the Red-headed lovebird *Agapornis pullarius*, exported mainly between 2001 and 2005.

The Netherlands and Germany were the main import destinations for CITES-listed live birds. However, due to a temporary ban on wild bird imports imposed by the EU in 2005, which became permanent in 2007, no CITES live birds (commercial) imports to European countries were registered after 2005, with just one exception in 2007 referring to the import of a Bateleur into the UK. South Africa was the main import destination in the African region. Many other importing countries (Figure 1) are, for the most, importers of one/two specimens of Grey Parrots for personal use.

Figure 2: Live bird exports and import



Source: CITES trade statistics derived from the CITES Trade Database, UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre, Cambridge, UK

6.1.1.1 Yellow-fronted Canary

Among passerines (i.e. finches, sparrows, crows, tits, bulbuls, thrushes, robins etc.), the species exported in the highest numbers, as reported from the CITES Trade Database, is the Yellow-fronted Canary, regarding the period 2000–2005; other passerine species were traded mainly during 2000–2001 and up to 2005 and always in numbers equal or less than one hundred.

The Yellow-fronted Canary was listed under Appendix III by Ghana in 1976. According to the United Nations Environment Programme – World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC) CITES Trade Database, as of January 2005, the species was suspected to be declining because of international trade (Anon., 2016a). Nevertheless, this species was removed from CITES Appendix III in 2007 and its trade is no longer monitored under CITES. The species is currently assessed as least concern under the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species (2016), because of its very wide distribution range. In Uganda, the species, named according to the previous nomenclature, *Serinus mozambicus*, is present with the subspecies *barbatus* that is common or very common throughout the country up to 2000 m elevation (Carswell *et al.*, 2005).



Yellow-fronted Canary
Crithagra mozambica

6.1.1.2 Grey Parrot

CITES listing

The Grey Parrot was listed in Appendix II in 1981 (*Psittaciformes* order listing). During the last Conference of the Parties to CITES, the species was up-listed to Appendix I, under which any commercial trade will be prohibited.

Global and Uganda status

The Grey Parrot is assessed as Endangered (Anon. 2016b), and population declines throughout the distribution range have been linked to trapping for the wild bird trade and forest habitat destruction. Forest habitat loss is identified as one of the causes of the species' decline throughout West and East Africa. This is particularly true for Uganda, which has a very high deforestation rate (1.8% per year) (Anon., 2012a).

The species in Uganda is distributed in medium-altitude forest habitats around Lake Victoria and in Western Uganda along the Rwenzori range. In terms of records of occurrence, and potentially suitable habitats the species appears not to be so widespread (Carswell *et al.*, 2005). The National Red List (January 2016) (Anon., 2016e) assesses the species as Vulnerable while the global status, as from the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species (2016), assesses it as Endangered under criterion A2³ and A3⁴ (Anon., 2016b).

Trade analysis (legal and illegal trade)

Analysis of the CITES Trade Database for Uganda shows that exports of the Grey Parrot are almost continuous with the number of traded animals primarily ranging between 1–5 individuals. Peaks exceeding 10 individuals were recorded in 2001, 2002 and 2005. Other parrot species appear to be traded sporadically.

Trade figures from 1991 (the year when Uganda joined CITES) to 2015, show that the maximum number of birds exported from Uganda was 16 individuals (reported exports) in 2002, where the main purpose for the transactions was for personal use (pets). The same analysis (1991–2015) shows that Cameroon, followed by DRC, Ghana, and more recently by South Africa, are the major exporters globally of Grey Parrots.

No seizures of Grey Parrots happened at export during 1991–2015. One specimen for personal use, with unknown origin, and 30/40 specimens for reintroduction/zoo purpose with origin Bulgaria were seized at import over the same period (as from the CITES Trade Database). Based on media reports of seizures in Uganda (i.e. from the World Parrot Trust and from CNN) (Anon., 2016d and Anon., 2011a) and from national Authorities (UWA), six Grey Parrots were seized at Entebbe airport in 2011. However, due to internal movements of Grey Parrots, illegal shipments within source and



Grey Parrot *Psittacus erithacus*

³ Population reduction observed, estimated, inferred, or suspected in the past where the causes of reduction may not have ceased, understood or reversible).

⁴ Population reduction projected inferred or suspected to be met in the future (up to a maximum of 100 years).

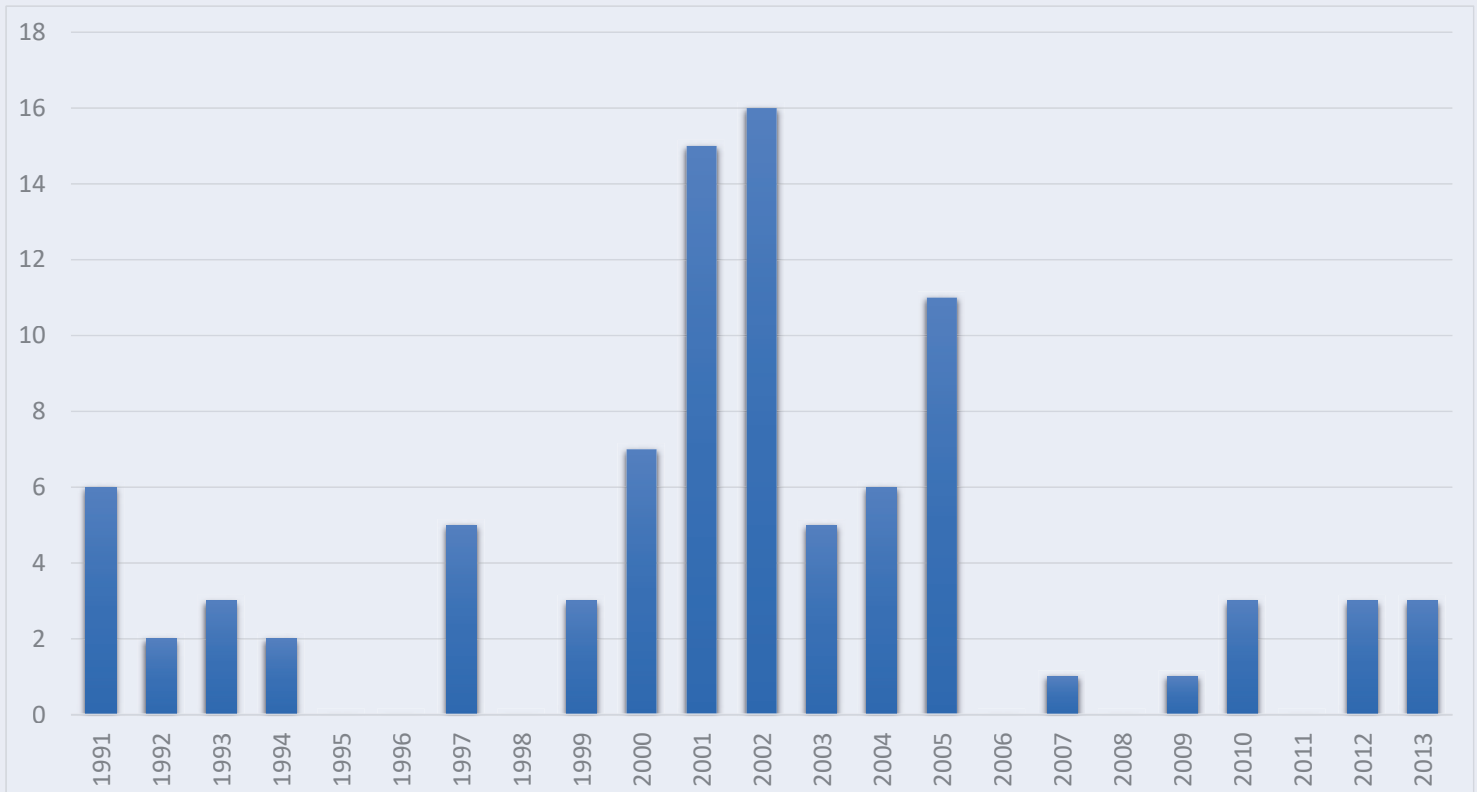
transit countries in Africa (R. Martin, World Parrot Trust *in litt.* Consultative Meeting on Parrot Conservation in Tanzania, December 2016), associating the seizure with a specific country of origin can be challenging.

A recent study conducted jointly by the Wildlife Conservation Society and TRAFFIC shows that between 2005 and 2014 South Africa, DRC, CAR, and Guinea are the African countries contributing the most to exports of Grey Parrots. The study suggests that Singapore is the transit hub and re-export location mainly to Taiwan, United Arab Emirates and Japan (Poole and Shepherd, 2016).

The species deserves attention for the threats posed by both domestic and international trade and the cumulative effects of the reduction in forest habitats. Some seizures registered in Uganda and intensive harvesting in eastern DRC (possibly exceeding the annual CITES quotas) (Hart, J. *et al.* 2016), combined with the porous borders between the two countries, suggest Uganda is a transit hub for the legal/illegal movements of the Grey Parrots within the region.

Grey Parrots are exported legally in high numbers from Cameroon, followed by DRC, Ghana and South Africa. An illegal trade channel going in parallel to the legal trade is confirmed by a CNN report on the seizure of 500 Grey Parrots seized in Uganda originating from DRC (Anon., 2011a). The intensive harvest of the species for the international trade, together with habitat loss, as already mentioned, have raised a growing concern about the sustainability of the wild harvest of the species especially in consideration of the unaccounted numbers that transit through the illegal trade channel. As a result, the species was up-listed in Appendix I during the last CITES Conference of the Parties (COP 17) held in Johannesburg from 24 September–5 October 2016, and this will have strong enforcement and economic implications for the exporting and importing countries, since all commercial trade in the species will be prohibited.

Figure 3: Grey Parrot exports from the beginning of CITES listing

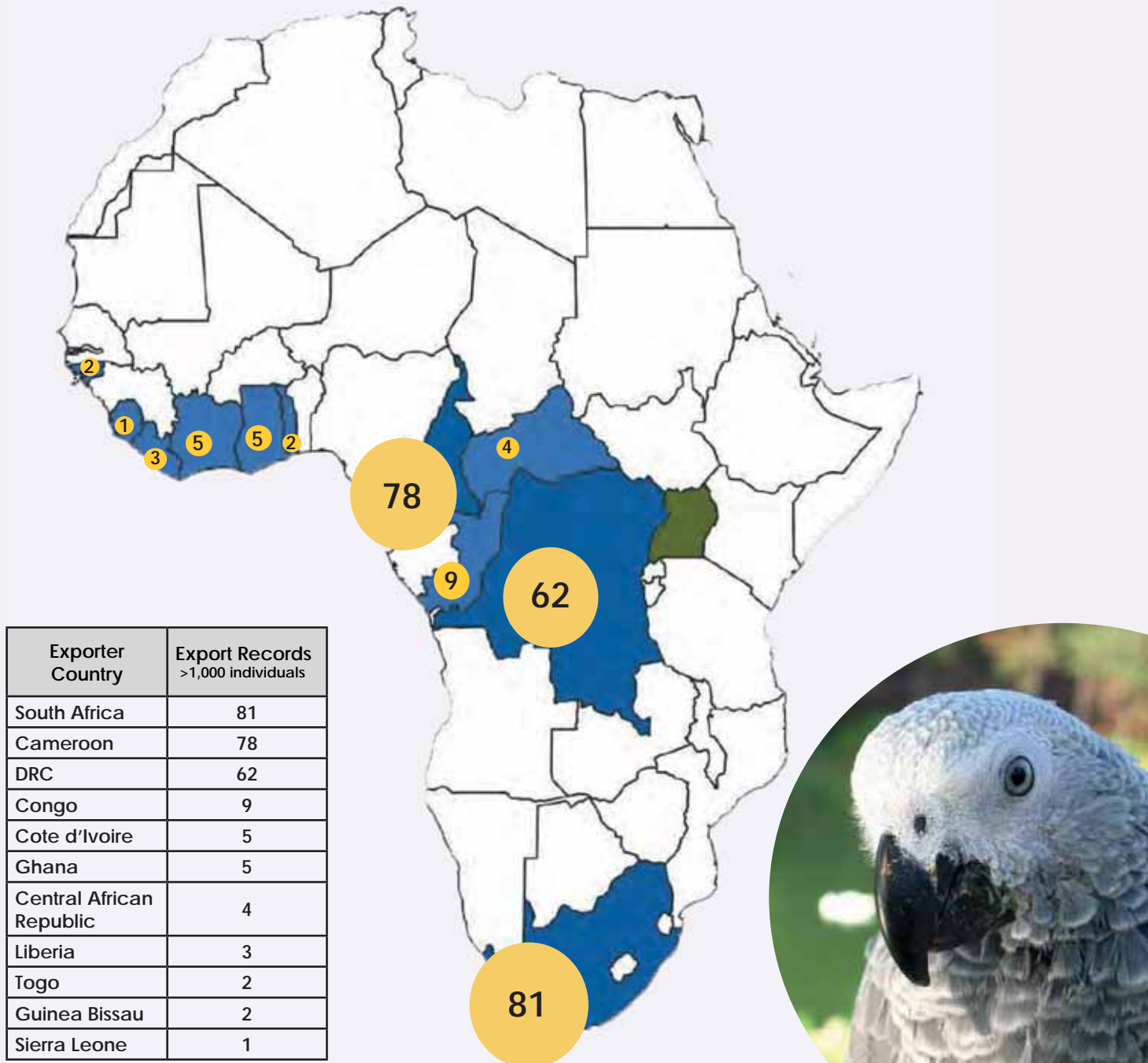


Source: CITES trade statistics derived from the CITES Trade Database, UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre, Cambridge, UK

Grey Parrot, Trends of export from African countries

Analysis of export data from the CITES Trade Database (1991–2015), shows that Cameroon, followed by DRC, Ghana, and more recently by South Africa, are the major exporters globally of Grey Parrots.

Table 3: Export records of more than 1,000 individuals globally from African countries between 1991 and 2015



Source: CITES trade statistics derived from the CITES Trade Database, UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre, Cambridge, UK

6.1.1.3 Other bird species

Concerning other bird species exported from Uganda, the CITES Trade database refers to the Red-headed lovebird *Agapornis pullarius* traded mostly between 2001 and 2005 and with a slightly decreasing trend (from 166 birds in 2001 to 101 in 2005).

Exports of 148 Great Blue Turaco *Corythaeola cristata* and 171 White Crested Turaco *Tauraco leucolophus* took place between 2000–2015.

Export of eagles and hawks was limited across the study period, with increasing numbers from 2001 to 2004 only for the Bateleur *Terathopius ecaudatus*. Small numbers of other species were exported mainly in 2004; after that, trade in falcons and eagles has not happened to date. The Bateleur was listed in Appendix II of CITES in 1979 (with an Order—*Falconiformes*—listing), and its status is Near Threatened under the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species because of declining population trends, mainly due to poisoning for large commercial farming, and trapping for international trade (Anon., 2016c). However, the species in Uganda is common and widespread with many more records of occurrence since the 1970s (Carswell, M. *et al*, 2005).

Other species for which trade (legal or illegal) is identified as a concurring factor for their decline, even though they are not reported in the CITES trade records, are the Grey Crowned-crane *Balearica regulorum* and the Shoebill *Balaeniceps rex*.

The Grey Crowned-crane was listed under CITES Appendix II in 1975. The species was never legally exported from Uganda, according to the records of the CITES Trade Database. The Grey Crowned-crane is endangered nationally, as well as globally on the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2016, under criterion A2b⁵ (Anon., 2016e). Overall estimates show that the species' global population has declined from over 100,000 individuals in 1985 to 50,000–64,000 individuals in 2004, where the declines are mainly attributed to habitat loss, fragmentation, egg collection for wild food, traditional use, trapping for domestication and international (illegal) trade (Anon., 2016f). In Uganda, the species has experienced a sharp decline over recent decades, where the number of individuals is estimated to have dropped from about 35,000 in the 1990s to less than 15,000 in 2015 (Anon., 2015a). According to information shared and presented during the Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, the species is illegally captured and traded locally for domestication and other traditional purposes, such as chasing predators in poultry breeding or as a good omen (A. Byaruhanga, Nature Uganda Executive Director, pers. comm., 2016). The species deserves attention nationally, due to the combined effects of habitat loss and trade, mainly for internal markets.



Red-headed lovebird
Agapornis pullarius
From 2001–2005 over 260 were exported



Great Blue Turaco
Corythaeola cristata
From 2000–2015 over 148 were exported



Bateleur
Terathopius ecaudatus
From 2000–2004 Bateleur falcons were exported with increasing numbers

5 Population size reduction more or equal to 50% over the last ten years or three generations, where the reduction or its causes may have not ceased, or be understood or be reversible, based on an index of abundance.

The Shoebill is another species of concern in Uganda. Although the main threats are not attributed to international and illegal trade, the species is affected by a small population size, combined with habitat loss and human threats. Its trade is controlled globally by CITES where it has been listed under Appendix II since 1987; and it is listed in Table 1 Column A category 1(c) of the African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbird Agreement (AEWA) (populations which number less than around 10,000 individuals), meaning that special protective measures are to be implemented for the species.

No records of exports of the species under CITES were registered thus far from Uganda. The species is globally assessed as Vulnerable on the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2016, mainly because of its small population, despite its broad distribution, and increasing habitat loss, hunting, and nesting disturbance. The threat status nationally is assessed as Endangered under criterion D⁶ (Anon. 2016e).

The estimated population in Uganda is 100–150 individuals (Anon., 2016g). In Uganda, the Shoebill is reported in 12 out of 30 Important Bird Areas (IBAs) (Byaruhanga *et al.* 2001). Past estimates of the species reported higher numbers in the 1970s, around 400–600 individuals (Carswell *et al.* 2005). The Shoebill in Uganda is reported quite often inside protected areas, such as the Ramsar sites and LMNP, Murchison Falls NP and Queen Elizabeth NP, where protection measures are in place. The main unprotected site and where the bird is reported as being deliberately harassed by human populations for various reasons (i.e. hunting, nesting disturbance, egg collection) is Lake Kyoga (Carswell *et al.* 2005).



White Crested Turaco
Tauraco leucolophus
From 2000–2015 over 171 were exported



Shoebill
Balaeniceps rex
Estimated 100–150 individuals in Uganda



Grey Crowned-crane
Balearica regulorum
Uganda populations declined from 35,000 individuals in the 1990s to less than 15,000 in 2015

⁶ Population size estimated as less than 250 mature individuals.

REPTILES



Johnston's Three-Horned Chameleon *Trioceros johnstoni*

6.1.2 Reptiles

Export of live CITES-listed reptiles between 2000–2015, reported by the CITES Trade database, amounts to 66,284 reptiles distributed among six taxa (crocodiles, chameleons, Monitor Lizards, iguanas, snakes, and tortoises).

A detailed analysis of the legal trade in CITES-listed species over the examined period shows a prevalence of exports in chameleon species, followed by species of the Testudinidae family (turtles, tortoises, and terrapins), and in particular the Leopard Tortoise *Stigmochelys pardalis*.

Figure 4 below shows the main importing countries of reptiles from Uganda during 2000–2015. The United States, followed by Germany and Japan are the major importers. The graph shows trade transactions for both live animals and specimens (skins or other parts); however, most of the exports concern live reptiles (chameleons).

The species mentioned in the following sections deserve specific attention, as they are the most frequently traded over the examined period and there is evidence of a parallel illegal trade channel, in addition to challenges associated with identification at Customs clearance. According to literature (Anon. 2008a), illegal trade in reptiles occurs concurrently with the species and items legally exported. This happens by concealing illegal species within the same consignment or by exporting more specimens than the number for which the exporter has obtained

2000–2015:

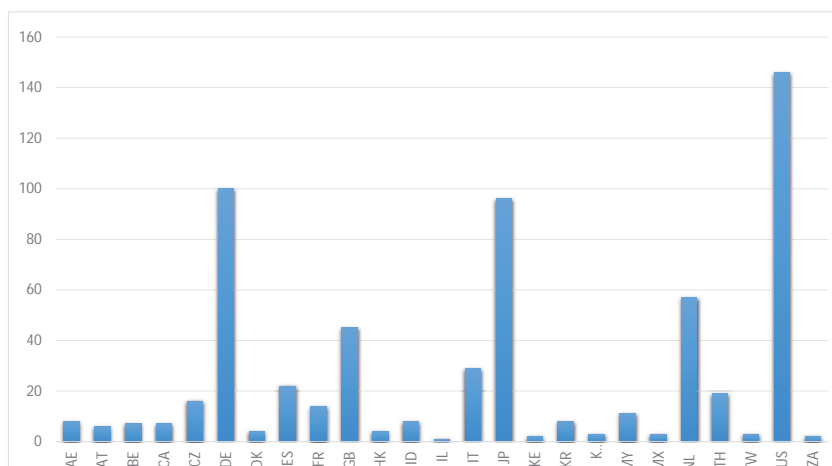
66,284
reptiles exported

6 taxa
chameleons
crocodiles
Monitor Lizards
iguanas
snakes
tortoises



US, Germany &
Japan top
importers

Figure 4: Total imports of CITES-listed reptiles (all trade) by country during 2000–2015



permission (Harrison *et al.* 2015). Evidence of illegal trade is reported for chameleon species (Behangana, M., 2015) with enabling factors such as difficulty in identification, the unclear taxonomy and distribution range of some species, and unknown conservation status and population abundance. In addition, the difficulty of inspecting and counting specimens in big shipments, and the challenge of checking and handling potentially dangerous species such as snakes, as well as corruption at the inspection checkpoints, can generate major loopholes for illegality (D. Kabagambe, URA - CITES desk office, Enforcement Department, pers. Comm., 2016).

CITES requires a non-detriment findings (NDFs) study before any commercial export of species are listed in the Appendices. The scientific authority of the exporting country should be satisfied that the export of that species would not be detrimental to its survival in the wild.

UWA has commissioned an NDFs study on reptile trade to clarify some issues that could indicate unsustainability of trade, for instance: the discontinuity of trade levels, steadily increasing quotas for exports (with maximum values allocated for 2014) and evidence that many of the licensed companies are collecting the species from the wild (Behangana, 2015).

The species reviewed following frequent trade were: the Leopard Tortoise, the Flap-necked Chameleon *Chamaeleo dilepis*, the Slender Chameleon *Chamaeleo gracilis*, the Bocage's Chameleon *Chamaeleo dilepis quilensis*⁷, Ituri Chameleon *Kinyongia adolfsfriderici*, the Rwenzori Plate-nosed Chameleon *Kinyongia xenorhina*, Johnston's Three-Horned Chameleon *Trioceros johnstoni*, the Helmeted Chameleon *Trioceros hoehnelii*, the Two-striped Chameleon *Trioceros bitaeniatus*, and the Montane side-striped Chameleon *Trioceros ellioti*.



"Illegal trade in reptiles occurs concurrently with the species and items legally exported."

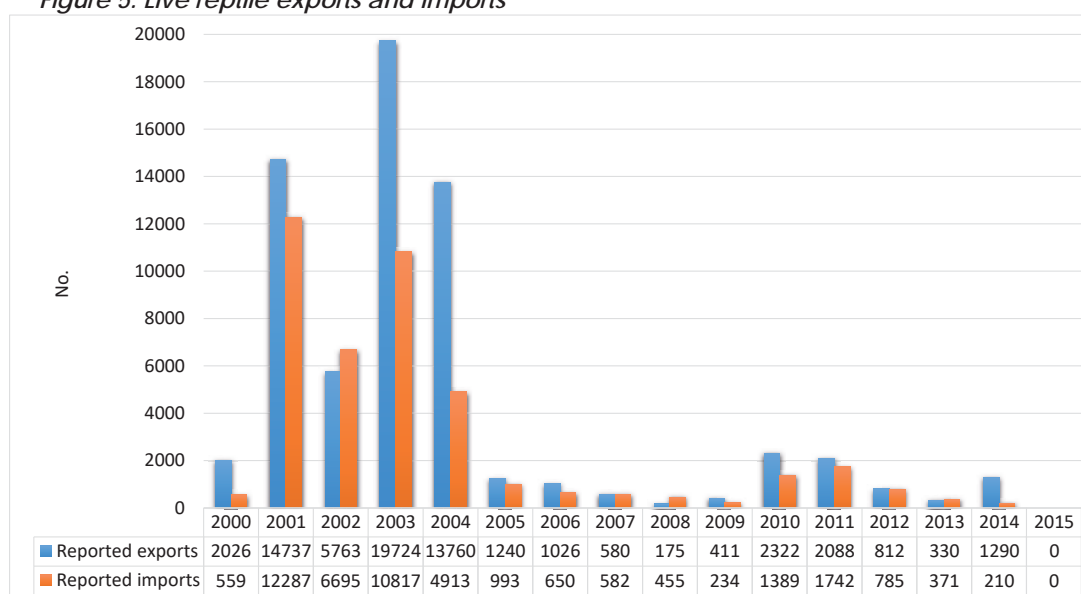
An important outcome of the NDFs assessment is the absence of a captive supply of reptile species. There are four reptile-licensed companies under wildlife user right D (wildlife trade), authorized to collect the species from the wild for subsequent trade. However, the way in which UWA checks the legality of the exports does not guarantee the sustainability of the harvesting. Wildlife export or any other wildlife-related transaction must be done within a legal national framework (Uganda Wildlife Act, Regulations and procedures). The legality of an export is based on evaluating whether the wildlife was legally acquired (i.e. legality of the source) and on documental verification (since wildlife belongs to the Government unless it is acquired through a user right license) (A. Bintooro, *in litt.* mail communication, March 2017).

⁷ Taxonomic classification from the Catalogue of Life, (Uetz P. & Hošek J. 2018). In the CITES Trade database reported as *Chamaeleo quilensis*, a synonym of *Chamaeleo dilepis quilensis*, the accepted scientific name.

Exports of lizards, skinks, and geckos reported from literature between 2000 and 2006 are generally low, as well as exports of snake species (Anon., 2008a). This tendency is confirmed by the figures of the CITES Trade database during 2000–2015, according to which, only in 2001 a few African Rock Pythons *Python sebae* were exported. An export of Common Iguana *Iguana Iguana* occurred in 2009 (one specimen), and a few exports (400 live specimens) of Monitor Lizards (*Varanidae* family) took place between 2000 and 2002.

The NDFs report has issued recommendations for putting in place protection measures or suspending trade for the Flap-necked Chameleon, the Ituri Chameleon, the Rwenzori Plate-nosed Chameleon and the Two-striped Chameleon.

Figure 5: Live reptile exports and imports



Source: CITES trade statistics derived from the CITES Trade Database, UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre, Cambridge, UK

Reptile trade figures show peaks between 2000 and 2005

Current reptile trade figures show peaks, in terms of numbers and variety of traded species, between 2000 and 2005, at or above 10,000 for some chameleons and for the Leopard Tortoise. Between 2005 and 2009 there was a decline in trade for many species, with trade resuming slowly from 2009 up to 2014. Trade decline is due to change in the management strategy, which emphasizes trade in captive-bred species (A. Bintooro, *in litt.* mail communication, March 2017). The focus of reptile trade in Uganda was primarily on chameleons and tortoises (the Leopard Tortoise), with very few snakes, lizards, skinks or geckos reported.

According to Anon. 2008a, cessation in the export of tortoise species was largely due to dwindling populations of the species, in addition to what is reported by UWA concerning the change of the management strategy. In general, turtle and tortoise populations are data deficient and their status, in addition to the NDFs Report, should be reviewed nationally to establish the sustainability of their trade.

Crocodile skins were almost continuously traded over the study period. Uganda has never submitted a ranching operation report under CITES and this can represent a concern in terms of evaluating the status of the populations.

6.1.2.1 Chameleons

CITES listing

The entire genus *Chamaleo* is listed in Appendix II, as well as genus *Kinyongia* and genus *Trioceros*.

Genus Chamaleo

From 2000 to 2005 3,183 Flap-necked Chameleons were exported, 1,268 Bocage's Chameleons and 1,173 Slender Chameleons. In general, exports were concentrated in the 2000–2005 period, with reduced or no exports for most of the taxa starting from 2006, due to changes in the management strategy which emphasizes trade in captive-bred species (A. Bintooro, *in litt.* mail communication, March 2017).

According to the CITES Trade Database, 3,414 Flap-necked Chameleons were exported from Uganda between 2000 and 2015. The species is widely distributed across Southern and Central Africa, including Uganda. The global population trend is assessed as Stable by the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2016 and the conservation status is Least Concern due to the wide distribution range, high local abundance and tolerance to anthropogenic pressures. Threats to the species are identified with harvesting for international pet trade, with special attention to single country exports to ensure that these are not detrimental to the survival of the species (Tolley, K., 2014a). In Uganda, the species is assessed by the national Red List of Threatened Species as Data Deficient (there is inadequate information to make a direct or indirect assessment of the risk of extinction based on its distribution or population status) (Anon. 2016e). It is also not subject to specific conservation measures or management plans. Nevertheless, due to the presence of protected zones in some areas of occurrence, the species could indirectly benefit from a certain degree of protection (Behangana, 2015).

Genus Kinyongia

The Ituri Chameleon is found in afro-montane habitats. The species taxonomy is commonly accepted as *K. adolfifrigeri*, however, there still is considerable uncertainty concerning the taxonomic status of many populations, given that recent studies suggest the presence of multiple taxa within *K. adolfifrigeri* (Tolley *et al.*, 2014).

According to IUCN “there is no information on population trends or abundance for this species, but it may be



Flap-necked Chameleon
Chamaeleo dilepis
From 2000–2015 over 3,400 were exported



Slender Chameleon
Chamaeleo gracilis
From 2000–2005 over 1,100 were exported

fragmented in isolated montane and lowland forests. As the Albertine Rift populations are confined to montane areas, and extensive deforestation within the lizard's range has resulted in large tracts of unsuitable habitat between the known localities, the species is expected to be severely impacted by habitat destruction of forests". The species is distributed across Burundi, DRC, Rwanda and Uganda. The trade records of the species from Uganda account for 1,184 individuals across the whole study period (as reported at export from the CITES Trade Database). The species occurs in montane forest (especially in the Albertine Rift area), and in lowland rainforest or remnant transformed habitats of lowland forest (Tolley *et al.*, 2014). Considering the reduction of forest habitats across the whole species range a re-evaluation of the species' biological status would be advisable, in light of the recent disappearance of lowland forest habitats. Nationally, the species is assessed as Endangered under criterion B1ab(i,ii)⁸ (Anon. 2016e). Although no annual CITES export quotas for *K. adolfifrideric* were issued between 2000 and 2013, an export of 458 animals occurred in 2001 (338 from Uganda and 120 from Mozambique), even though this species does not occur in Mozambique. The export from Mozambique could be a misidentification or could indicate illegal trade from countries where the species does not occur. No other trade is reported, and this species is not known to be present in the captive market, although illegal trade and/or harvest may occur on occasion (Behangana, 2015).

The Helmeted Chameleon was scarcely traded, if at all, during the study period. It is assessed as Near Threatened by the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2016 mainly due to the reduction in its primary habitat (afro-montane forest) (Tolley *et al.*, 2014). Its main remaining habitat is found within Rwenzori Mountains National Park in Uganda.

The Rwenzori Plate-nosed Chameleon is also assessed as Near Threatened by the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2016. The reduction in forest habitats and its distribution strictly confined to the Rwenzori range has suggested a precautionary approach in the global threat status assessment (Tolley *et al.*, 2014). This species was intensively traded between 2000 and 2005 with export peaks in 2003 and 2004, and some exports resumed in 2010 up to 2014. The species is endemic to the Rwenzori mountain range in Uganda and DRC, where it inhabits the Afromontane zone from 1,200 m to 2,600 m above sea level. The species has a restricted range of distribution, and in Uganda most of its range falls inside protected areas. The IUCN status Near Threatened is mainly based on a precautionary approach for a supposed decline due to forest loss; especially in its range outside protected areas where agricultural conversion is rampant (Tolley *et al.*, 2014). Nationally, the species is



Ituri Chameleon
Kinyongia adolfifrideric
From 2000–2015 over 1,180 were exported



Rwenzori Plate-nosed Chameleon
Kinyongia xenorhina
From 2000–2005 over 5,700 were exported



Johnston's Three-Horned Chameleon
Trioceros johnstoni
One of the most exported species

⁸ Extent of occurrence less than 5000 km², severely fragmented population not occurring in more than five locations, continuing decline in the extent and area of occupancy.

assessed as Endangered under criterion B1ab(v) (Anon. 2016e). Exports in the species, as reported by the CITES Trade Database, total 5,768 specimens during the period 2000–2015, and were all wild caught. As the species is not present in human-modified landscapes, it is likely to have been sourced from inside protected areas. Considering that Uganda has no captive breeding operation for chameleons and other reptiles, the species attractiveness for the international pet trade and its restricted range, the export of wild-caught specimens should be highly discouraged (Behangana, 2015). As already mentioned, UWA has implemented a change in the management strategy that emphasizes trade in captive-bred species, discouraging trade in wild-caught specimens.

Genus *Trioceros*

The most exported species over the study period were: Johnston's Three-Horned Chameleon, the Helmeted Chameleon, followed by the Two-striped Chameleon, and the Montane Side-striped Chameleon. The export trends are similar for the four species, registering peaks of export in 2001, 2003 and 2004, followed by a decline in exports reaching their lowest values during 2007–2008, and increasing slightly from 2010-2014.

The Two-striped Chameleon is distributed in high altitude savannah, grasslands, acacia scrubs and tree mosaics. The species range extends mainly across Uganda, Kenya, and Ethiopia, with minor distribution fringes in South Sudan, DRC, and Tanzania. Records from southern Uganda and DRC might represent mis-identification with *T. ellioti*, which is very similar to *T. bitaeniatus*. There is little information on the population status of *T. bitaeniatus*, but it is believed to be widespread and common (Tolley, K. 2014b). Exports of the species across the 2000–2015 period from Uganda total 6,799 individuals, according to the CITES Trade Database figures. Although the species has a wide distribution range and does not appear heavily impacted by anthropogenic pressures globally (Tolley, K. 2014b), its distribution in Uganda is sporadic. Additional evaluation of the Uganda population and its distribution should be carried out before further licensing for trade is allowed (Behangana, 2015).

According to the figures of the CITES Trade Database, 181 chameleons (Chamaeleonidae Family) were illegally traded in 2001, and 456 in 2002. UWA's seizure database reports a seizure of 379 chameleons in 2003 and 157 chameleons in 2012; the CITES Trade Database again reports in 2015 the seizure of all chameleon exported from Uganda (383).



Helmeted Chameleon
Trioceros hoehnelii
One of the most exported species



Two-striped Chameleon
Trioceros bitaeniatus
From 2000–2015 approx. 6,800 were exported



Montane Side-striped Chameleon
Trioceros ellioti



Chameleons, main source districts

The Uganda districts where chameleon species were sourced the most (at least during the period 2004–2014) are shown in the following, with reference to Montane Side-striped Chameleon *Trioceros ellioti*, Johnston's Three-Horned Chameleon *Trioceros johnstoni*, Rwenzori Bearded Chameleon *Trioceros rudis*, Rwenzori Plate-nosed Chameleon *Kinyongia xenorhina*, sourced from Mbale, Mityana, Mpigi, Mukono, and Wakiso.

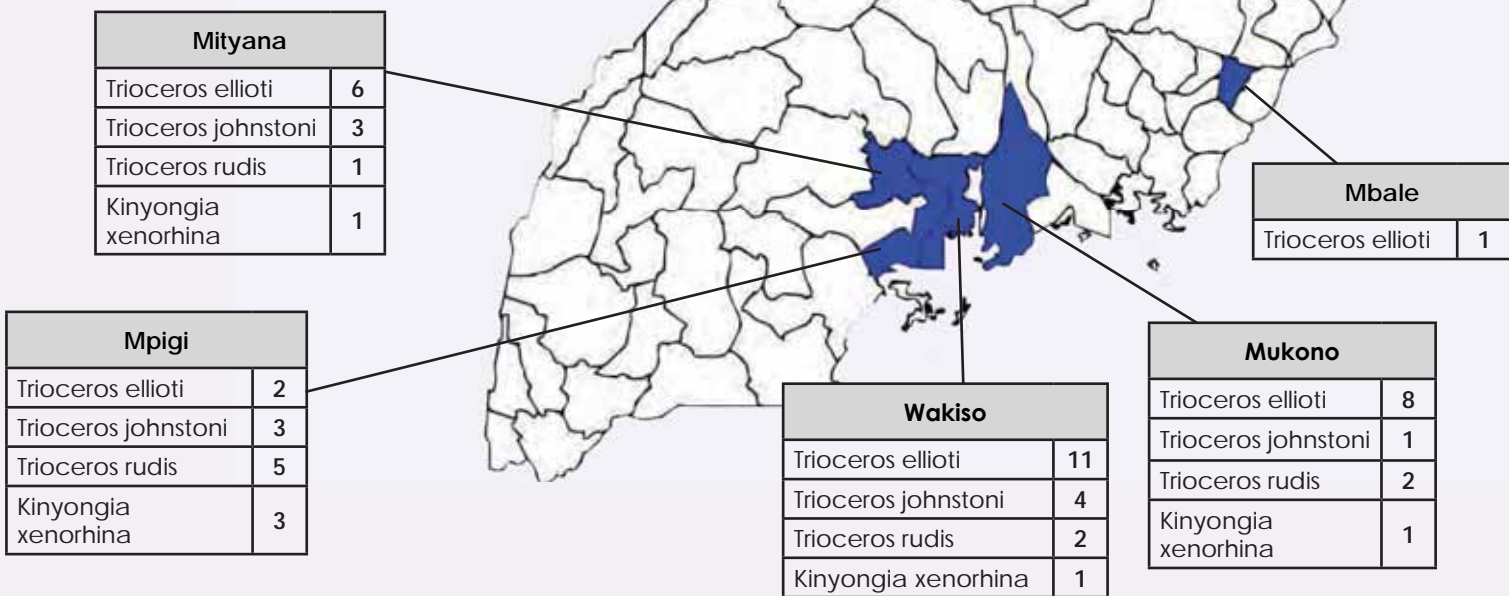
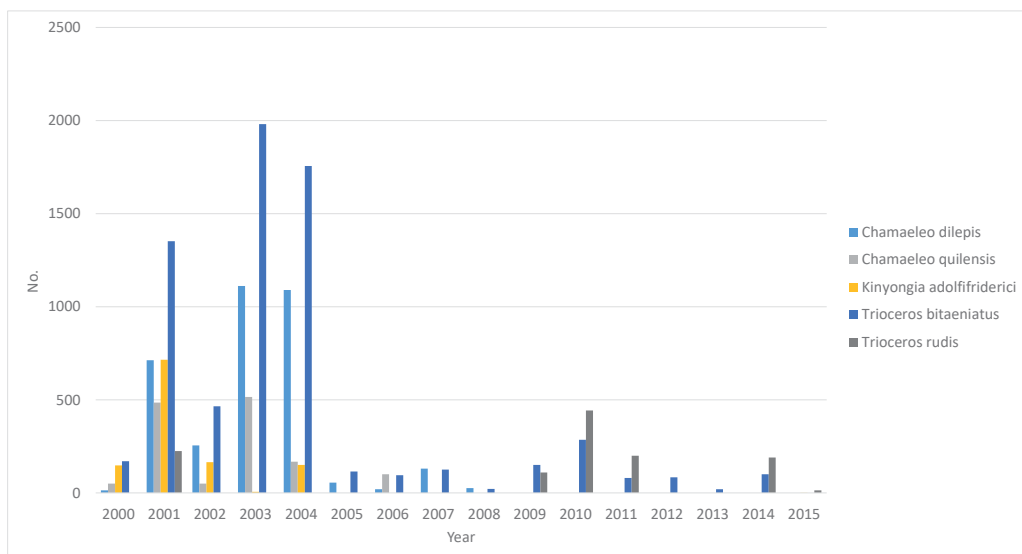


Figure 6: Chameleon species exports for which further assessment is needed before trade should be resumed



Source: CITES trade statistics derived from the CITES Trade Database, UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre, Cambridge, UK

6.1.2.2 Turtles and tortoises

Turtles and tortoises exported from Uganda (CITES Trade Database) include: the Leopard Tortoise, the Bell's Hinged Tortoise *Kinixys belliana*, the Forest Hinged Tortoise *Kinixys erosa* and the Softshell Tortoise *Malacochersus tornieri*, in the *Testudinidae* family. Turtle species including: the African Softshell Turtle *Trionyx triunguis* (*Trionychidae* family), the African Forest Turtle *Pelusios gabonensis* and the African Helmeted Turtle *Pelomedusa subrufa* (*Pelomedusidae* family), were initially included in Appendix III by Ghana and removed in 2007; a few exports were registered from Uganda from 2000–2004 totalling 51 African Helmeted Turtles, five African Forest Turtles, and 30 African Softshell Turtles.

Exports of tortoises were limited in the examined period, totalling around 800 individuals for all species excluding the Leopard Tortoise (around 15,000 individuals). No imports of turtles or tortoises were recorded. Starting from 2005, the export of tortoises decreased showing the same trend as those of chameleons attributed to, according to UWA, a change in exporting policies discouraging trade of wild caught specimens.

The Leopard Tortoise is widely distributed throughout Eastern and Southern Africa from South Sudan and Ethiopia through Namibia and South Africa. Its typical habitats are mostly found in arid savanna regions while it is usually absent from the humid and forest areas of Central Africa. Although the current global population trend is unknown, including in Uganda, the species is believed to still be abundant in most of its range.

Collection for international trade has been increasing steadily from the 1970s to date, reaching a threshold of 30,000 animals exported per year globally in 2011 (Baker *et al.* 2015, based on data of UNEP-WCMC, 2013). Some exporting countries like Tanzania or Kenya have established licensed breeding operations that relieve pressure on wild populations (Baker *et al.* 2015). In Uganda, the species was legally traded mostly between 2000 and 2015, totalling around 15,000 animals. The species is assessed as Near Threatened nationally (Behangana, 2015), but with no specific recommendations and management options suggested in the NDFs Report.



Leopard Tortoise
Kinixys belliana
From 2000–2015 approx. 15,000 were exported



African Helmeted Turtle
Pelomedusa subrufa
From 2000–2004 51 were exported



African Softshell Turtle
Trionyx triunguis
From 2000–2004 30 were exported



Nile Crocodile *Crocodylus niloticus*

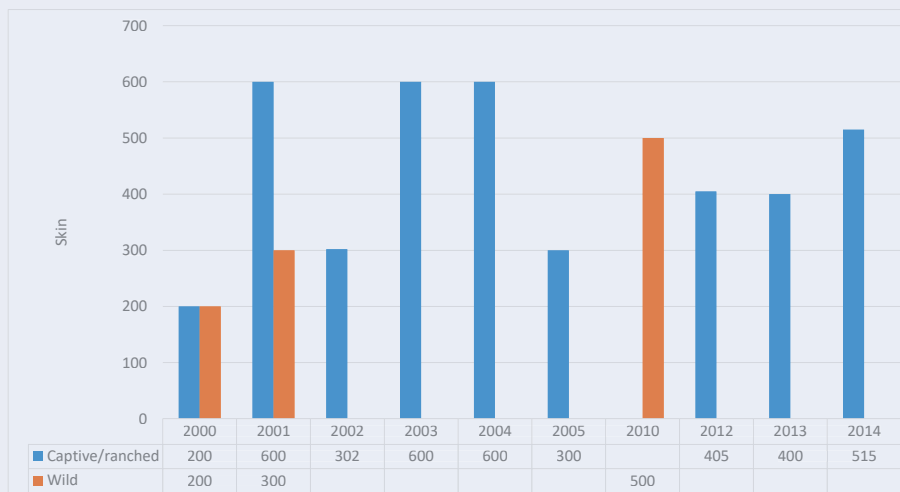
6.1.2.3 Crocodiles

The most widespread crocodile species in Uganda is the Nile Crocodile *Crocodylus niloticus* and skins were the most exported items. Although Ugandan populations have been listed in Appendix II since 2000, two live crocodiles were exported in 2004 to zoos in the United States of America, one trophy was exported in 2000, and some specimens were exported for scientific purposes between 2009 and 2011. Figure 7 below highlights export records of skins according to the source (wild, captive/ranched). There is a gap in exports between 2000–2006 which, according to UWA, is due to administrative problems faced by the only licensed exporting company (Uganda Crocs Ltd) which have since been resolved (A. Bintooro, *in litt.* mail communication, March 2017).

Some skins exported from Uganda were not reported by the importing countries, with no confiscation record in the CITES Trade Database. Crocodile skins are sourced from ranched animals: crocodile eggs are collected from the wild and hatched in a controlled environment, and the hatchlings managed in captivity. The two terms “captive” and “ranched” are used to describe this process (A. Bintooro, *in litt.* mail communication, April 2017). Considering the way in which the data is stored in the CITES Trade Database (i.e. one row for each different or mismatching record), the skin exports reported in 2010 may refer to a single shipment, where at export they were registered as “wild” sourced, while at import they were registered as “captive.”

According to Anon., 2008a, Uganda Crocs Ltd was the only authorized company in “class B wildlife use rights” that includes animal farming (i.e. breeding in a controlled environment) for commercial purposes. Another type of wildlife user right under national legislation is the “ranching” of animals (class C wildlife user rights). An example of this is Ziwa Ranch in Nakasongola, where rhinos are kept free ranging inside a large fenced ranch. Conversely, in CITES terminology, “ranching” means the rearing in a controlled environment of animals taken as eggs or juveniles from the wild, where they would otherwise have had a very low probability of surviving to adulthood.

Figure 7: Skin trade (reported at export) from Uganda across 2000–2015



A close-up photograph of an Olive Baboon's face, showing its eye and the texture of its fur. The background is a solid, vibrant green. The word "MAMMALS" is written in white, uppercase letters on the left side of the image.

MAMMALS

Olive Baboon *Papio anubis*

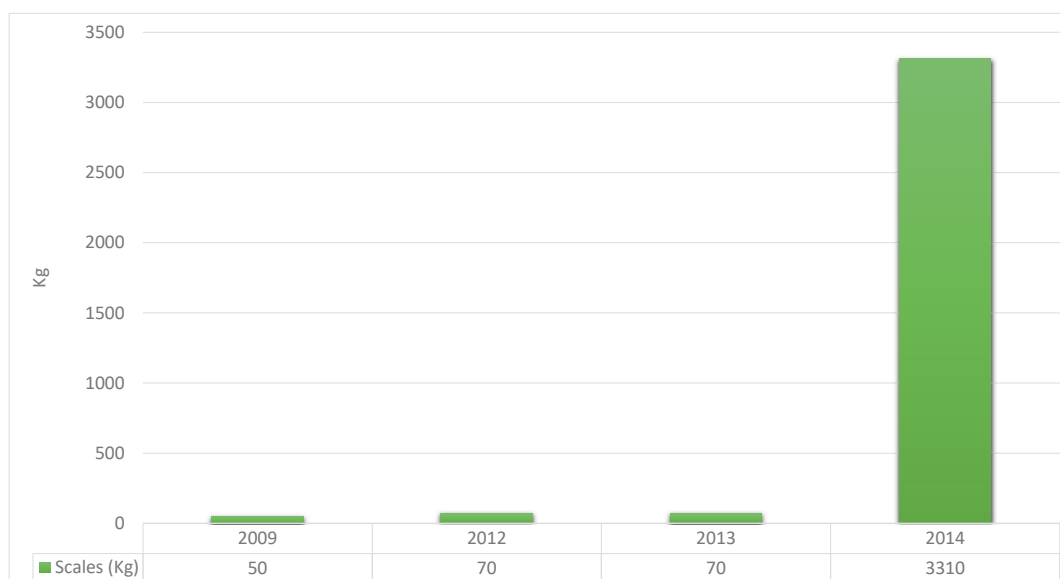
6.1.3 Mammals

Mammals exported from Uganda for commercial purposes during the period 2000–2015 mainly consisted of Common Hippopotamus *Hippopotamus amphibius* (including hunting trophies), and to a lesser extent, Olive Baboon *Papio anubis*, the Vervet Monkey *Chlorocebus pygerythrus*, and the Serval *Leptailurus serval*. In recent years (2012–2014), Giant Pangolin *Manis gigantea* scales were increasingly exported with a spike in quantity in 2014, where over 3,000 kg were exported to China and about 100 kg to Malaysia. Despite African pangolins being listed under Appendix II of CITES since 1995, their scales have been exported legally from Uganda only from 2009 onwards. A zero annual export quota was imposed on Asian pangolins in 2000 (during CITES CoP 11 in Gigeri). The destination countries of Ugandan pangolin exports were all (except in one case) east and southeast Asian countries. A long-term trade data analysis (1977–2014) of Heinrich, *et al.* 2016, suggests a shift in the demand of pangolins from the Asian to the African species.

Data from UWA, referring to live mammal exports between 2000 and 2015 reports 300 specimens exported (including non CITES-listed species); while the CITES Trade Database reports 229 live animals registered at export (the majority of which were Vervet Monkeys); these two figures are consistent considering that, in general terms, global trade (CITES and non-CITES species) is supposed to exceed CITES trade.



Figure 8: Pangolin scales exported from Uganda



The following Table 4 gives an idea of the main mammal species traded for commercial (T) or hunting (H) purposes during the study period

Common Hippopotamus

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
9,450 kg teeth (T)	12 teeth (H) 6,557 kg teeth (T)	25,666 kg teeth (T) 24 teeth (H)	2 skins (H) 36 teeth (H) 17,107 kg teeth (T) 1012 teeth (T)	4,367 kg teeth (T) 1 trophy (H)	2 feet (H) 2 skins (H) 1 tail (H) 24 teeth (H) 3 trophies (H) 2,226 kg teeth (T)	36 teeth (H) 1 skull (H) 1,537 kg teeth (T)	1,335 kg teeth (T) 3 trophies (H) 80 teeth (H)
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
3/4 trophies (H/T) 4000/400 kg teeth (T) 12 teeth (H)	24 teeth (H) 5 trophies (H) 1 skull (H) 2220 kg teeth (T) 20 carvings (T)		1 trophy (H) 2 tail (H) 59 teeth (H) 1 skin (H) 3 skin pieces (H) 6,670 kg teeth (T)	1 skin (H) 3 skin pieces (H) 92 teeth (H) 6 feet (H) 2 skulls (H) 1 tail (H) 1 trophy (H) 1,381/881 kg teeth (T)	46 teeth (H) 4 feet (H) 1 skin (H) 3 skin pieces (H) 2 skulls (H) 2 trophies (H) 970 kg teeth (T)	1 kg teeth (T) 2,500 skins (T) 11 teeth (H)	1 teeth (H)

Topi

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
		4 skulls (H) 4 skins (H) 1 trophy (H)	4 skulls (H) 1 skin (H)	4 skulls (H) 1 skull (H/T) 3 trophy (H)	3 skulls (H) 6 trophies (H) 2 skins (H)	1 trophy (H) 4 skulls (H) 3 skins (H)	3 trophies (H)
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
2 trophies (H)	24 teeth (H) 8 trophies (H)						

Leopard

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
		4 skulls (H) 4 skins (H) 1 trophy (H)	4 skulls (H) 1 skin (H)	4 skulls (H) 1 skull (H/T) 3 trophy (H)	3 skulls (H) 6 trophies (H) 2 skins (H)	1 trophy (H) 4 skulls (H) 3 skins (H)	3 trophies (H)
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
2 trophies (H)	24 teeth (H) 8 trophies (H)						

Olive Baboon

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
							1 trophy (H)
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
4/5 trophies (H/T)	20 trophies (H/T) 1 skin (H) 5 skulls (H)	8/10 skulls (H/T) 4 skins (T) 4 trophies (H)	10 skins (H) 13 skulls (H) 7 trophies (H)	4 skulls (H) 1 skin (H) 1 trophy (H)	22 skulls (H) 4 teeth (H) 15 skins (H) 6 trophies (H)	4 skins (H) 7 skulls (H) 3 trophies (H)	1 trophy (H)

Red-tailed Monkey

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
		2 (live) (H/T)					

Patas Monkey

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
		7 (live) (H/T)					

Vervet Monkey

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
			65 (live) (T)	120 (live) (T)		2 skins (H) 2 skulls (H)	

Serval

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
			4 (live) (T)	15 (live) (T)		2 (live) (T)	

Giant Pangolin

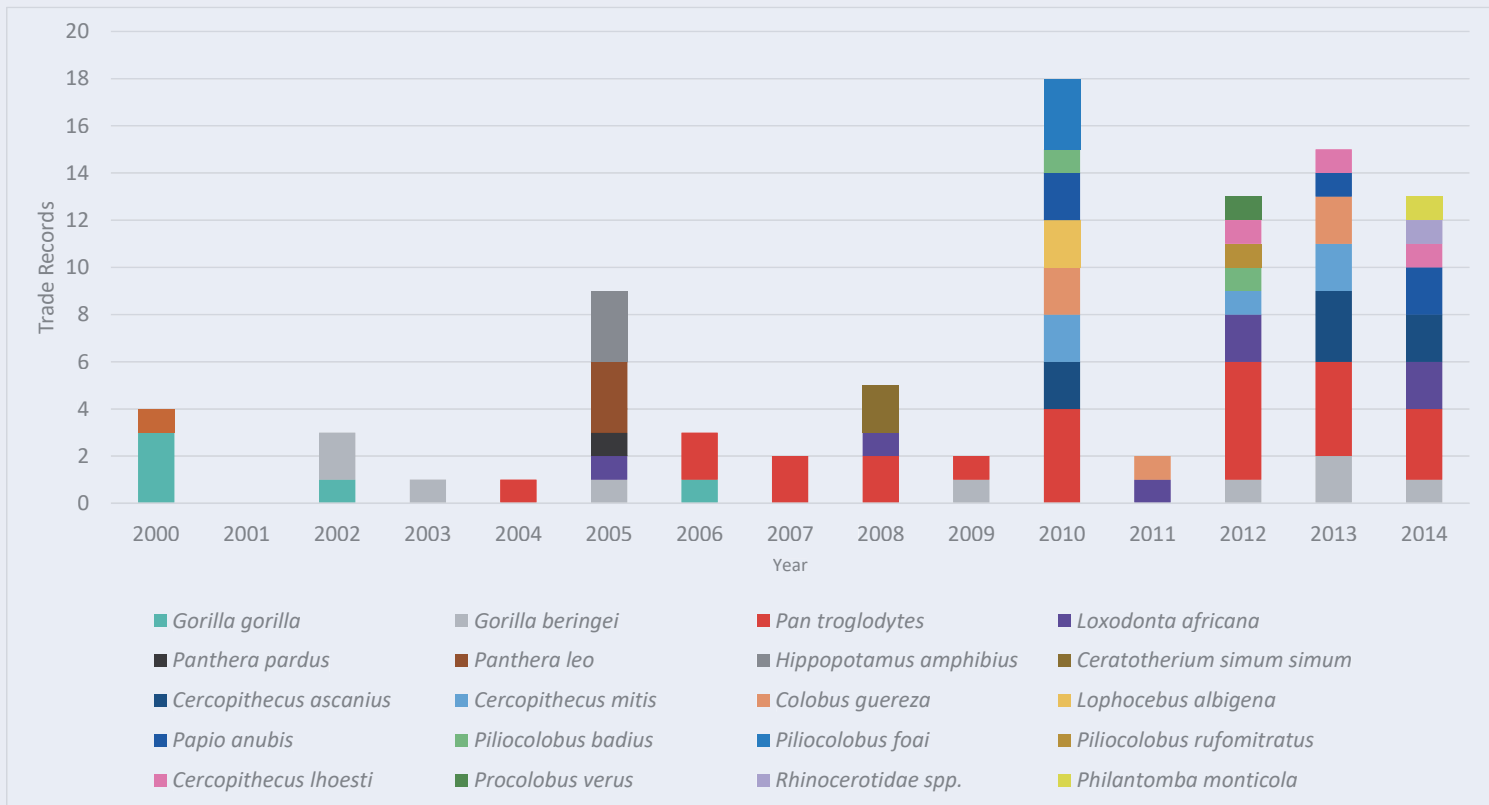
2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
				70 kg scales (T)	70 kg scales (T)	3310 kg scales (T)	

Guereza

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
					3 skins (H) 3 skulls (H) 1 trophy (H)		

Many mammal specimens were exported for scientific purposes during the study period. Specimens of the common Chimpanzee *Pan troglodytes* were the most continuously traded with 24 export occurrences during the study period. Overall trade for scientific purposes has increased in terms of the number of species concerned starting from 2010, as shown in the following Figure 9.

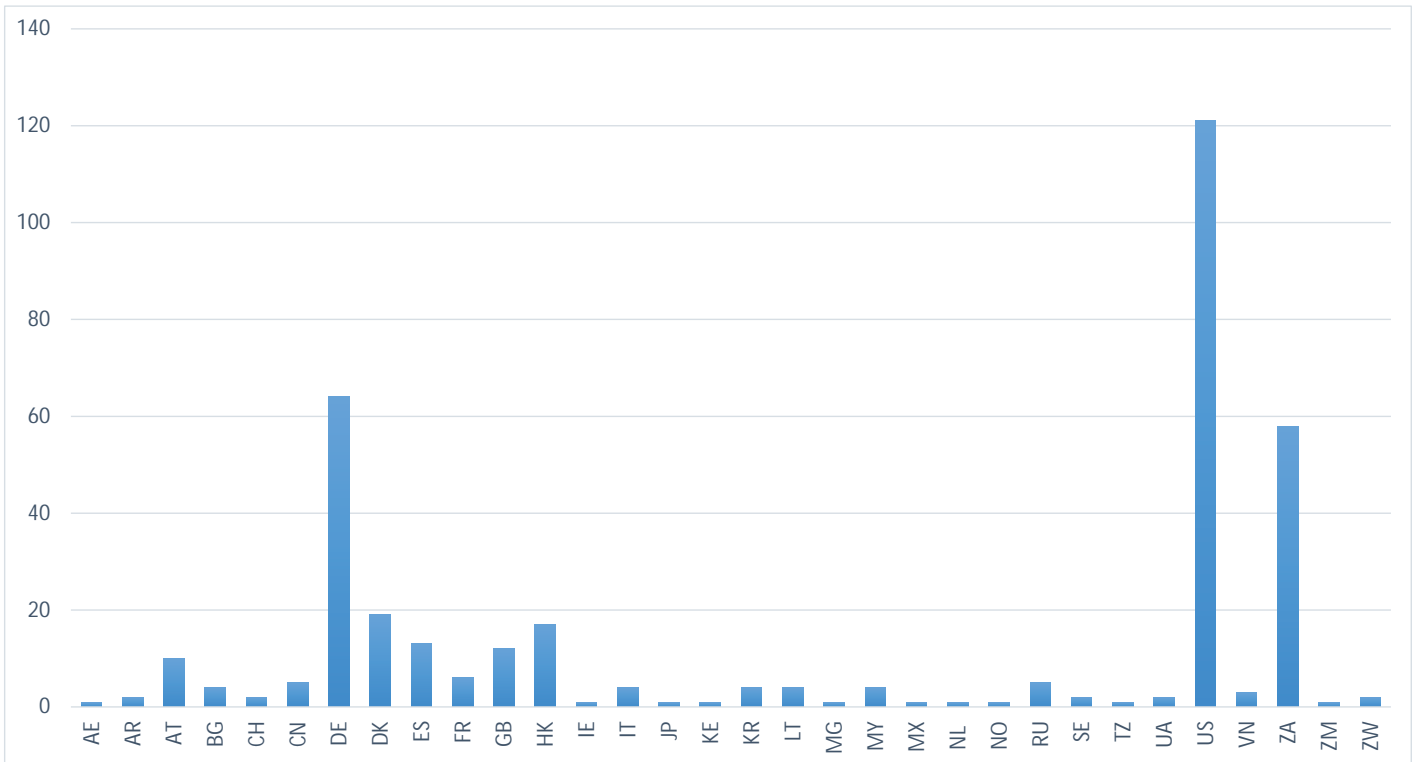
Figure 9: Mammal specimens exports for scientific purposes



Minor exports both in terms of quantities and frequency are registered concerning live animals for zoos, captive breeding, and re-introduction.

Main importing countries/territories for mammal specimens (import records) from Uganda were the United States of America, followed by Germany and South Africa (as shown in Figure 10). However, it is interesting to note that while Germany and South Africa, for example, imported a number of hippopotamus specimens in different trade transactions, Hong Kong SAR consistently imported hippopotamus teeth amounting to not less than one thousand kilos per transaction in all except one case.

Figure 10: Total imports of CITES-listed mammals (all trade) by country during 2000–2015



Trade in mammals

Overall legal trade figures in mammals (as from the CITES Trade Database) show that most exports between 2000 and 2015 mainly refer to specimens (teeth) of hippopotamus exported for commercial purposes or specimens exported for scientific or educational purposes or as hunting trophies. Trade in live animals during the examined period is sporadic. A sharp increase in exports of pangolin scales in 2014 destined for China and Malaysia confirms the shift of the demand from the east and southeast Asian to the African markets, as reported from literature (Harrison *et al.* 2015).

Major importing countries for mammal specimens were the United States, Germany and South Africa. An interesting finding concerns the hippopotamus trade, which contributed significantly to the commercial trade, where Honk Kong was the main importer in terms of quantity of ivory, throughout the whole study period.



Ground Pangolin *Manis temminckii*

6.1.3.1 Pangolins

CITES listing

In 1975, Temminck's Ground Pangolin was included in CITES Appendix I, but later down-listed to Appendix II in 1995 when the entire *Manis* genus was listed in Appendix II. Following the seventeenth meeting of the Conference of the Parties to CITES (Johannesburg, 2016) all pangolin species, including the African species, were up-listed to Appendix I.

Global status and distribution

There are four species of pangolin known to Africa: Temminck's Ground Pangolin *Manis temminckii*¹⁰ widely distributed from Chad through Eastern Africa to Namibia and parts of South Africa (Pietersen *et al.*, 2014); the African White-bellied Pangolin *Manis tricuspis*¹¹ distributed through Western–Central Africa up to Uganda and parts of Kenya (Waterman *et al.*, 2014); the Black-bellied Pangolin *Manis tetradactyla*¹² distributed mostly in western coastal Africa reaching marginally Uganda in the Semliki valley (Waterman *et al.*, 2014); and the Giant Pangolin *Manis gigantea*¹³ distributed through western coastal Africa and Central Africa up to Uganda and parts of Tanzania, but extinct in Rwanda (Waterman *et al.*, 2014).

Uganda status and distribution

In Uganda the local biological status of the pangolin species is poorly known, with only one species (the Black-bellied Pangolin) assessed in the national Red List as Endangered under criterion B2ab(iii,v), by virtue of its very small and fragmented distribution, restricted to the Semuliki Valley, and in Uganda to the Semuliki National Park (Anon. 2016e). Considering the elusive nature and nocturnal habits of all pangolin species, it is very difficult to assess their abundance and status globally and locally, where specific field research is needed. Given the difficulty of carrying out such research, other methods have been used by researchers to estimate pangolin abundance. For example, research conducted in Nigeria provided an estimate of pangolin abundance based on hunters' interviews and markets surveys. The CITES proposal for listing African pangolins in Appendix I reports that in 2014 the UWA, the Japan International Co-operation Agency (JICA), WSS Services Uganda Limited and China Gezhouba Group Company Ltd. (CGGC) conducted a survey of *M. gigantea* using camera traps and estimated there to be 2,172 individuals of the species in Uganda (6 individuals/200km², 0.03 individuals/sqKm²). This estimated rate would be by far lower than the estimate of other pangolin species, like for example, *M. temminckii* and *M. tricuspis* in the Northern Cape Province of South Africa and in the Lama forest of Benin, respectively (CoP17, Proposal 12).

Legal/illegal trade and threats

Pangolins in Africa, and in Uganda, specifically, have been traditionally hunted for bushmeat and traditional African medicine. However, there is growing evidence of an international trade taking place where Asia is the main destination (Harrison *et al.* 2015). Both the legal trade data from the CITES Trade Database and the recent seizure data from within Uganda show an increasing demand for pangolin scales. Media, the Ugandan NGO NRCN and UWA report twenty seizures of pangolin scales from 2012 to 2016. In 2015, 2,000 kg of pangolin scales were seized in Entebbe International Airport together with 700 kg of ivory destined for Amsterdam (Anon. 2015c).

10 *Smutsia temminckii*, according to IUCN RedList nomenclature

11 *Phataginus tricuspis*, according to IUCN RedList nomenclature

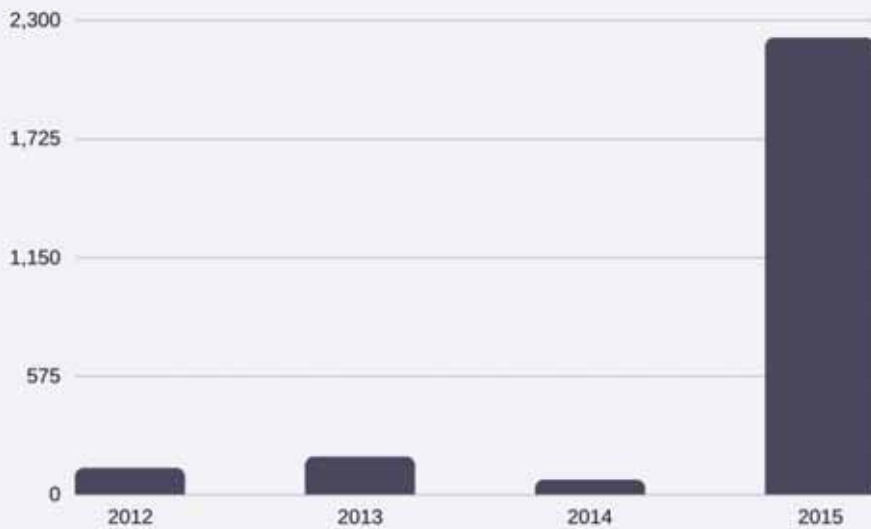
12 *Phataginus tetradactyla*, according to IUCN RedList nomenclature

13 *Smutsia gigantea*, according to IUCN RedList nomenclature

Pangolins, recent seizure from Uganda

Year	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Commodity Type	Quantity (kg or number)
2012	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Scales/Skins	129 kg scales 8 skins
2013	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Scales	183.5 kg
2014	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Scales	72.4 kg
2015	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Scales	2,213.9 kg
2016	Giant	Live	2

Pangolins Scales Seized (kg)



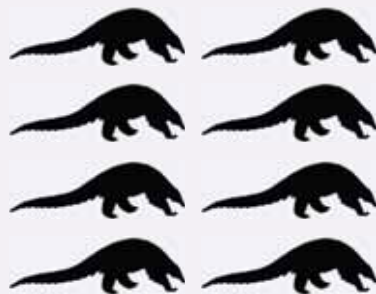
2,598.8
kg seized

&

8 pangolin
skins seized

&

2 live pangolins
seized



6.1.3.2 Elephants

CITES listing

The situation of African Elephants *Loxodonta africana* has attracted international attention since a renewed increase in poaching emerged from 2005 across the African continent (Chase *et al.* 2016).

All African range states (except South Sudan) are parties to the CITES Convention, most of them for over 20 years. Elephant populations of four countries have been transferred to CITES Appendix II: Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe, whereby commercial trade is allowed under restricted conditions, differing slightly among the four countries. A one-off sale of ivory was allowed under CITES and took place in 2008, and currently, there is an international moratorium on ivory sale until 2017 (Thouless *et al.* 2016). Elephant populations from other range states are listed in Appendix I (all commercial trade prohibited) and trade in elephant and elephant specimens regulated accordingly (Thouless *et al.* 2016).

Global status and distribution

The IUCN global conservation status for the African Elephant (AESR Report 2007 by IUCN African Elephant Specialist Group - AfESG), was Vulnerable, with differences between regional populations. Southern African populations were evaluated as Least Concern, West African as Vulnerable, Eastern African as Vulnerable, and Central African as Endangered (Blanc, 2008).

The most recent release of the AESR (2016) presented at CoP17 shows a dramatic change in elephant numbers continentally as compared to 2007. Between AESR 2007 and the 2016 data, there has been a decrease (combined with surveys and estimates) of 104,000–114,000 individuals (Thouless *et al.* 2016). The AESR Report 2016 (based on 2015 data) provides an estimate of the global population continentally. Estimates from surveys for 2015 account for 415,428 individuals (+/- 20 111 confidence limit), as compared to a reconciled figure of the previous continental estimate (AESR Report 2007) of 508,325 individuals (+/- 36 563 confidence limit) (Thouless *et al.* 2016).

Uganda status and distribution

In Uganda, UWA carries out periodical elephant counts and assessments inside national parks and other protected areas. Little information is available from outside these monitored territories. One of the reasons is that conservation of natural ecosystems on private land is a challenge due to an increasing demand for agricultural land and wood for fuel (Anon. 2012a). The overall trend of elephant populations in Uganda, from the 1960s up to 2014, is presented in Figure 11 below. The national population increased slightly from 2010 to 2014, and Figure 12 shows the various elephant counts and estimates carried out inside protected areas and national parks from the 1960s to 2014. However, the surveys were not continuous and showed some data gaps over the years. On average,

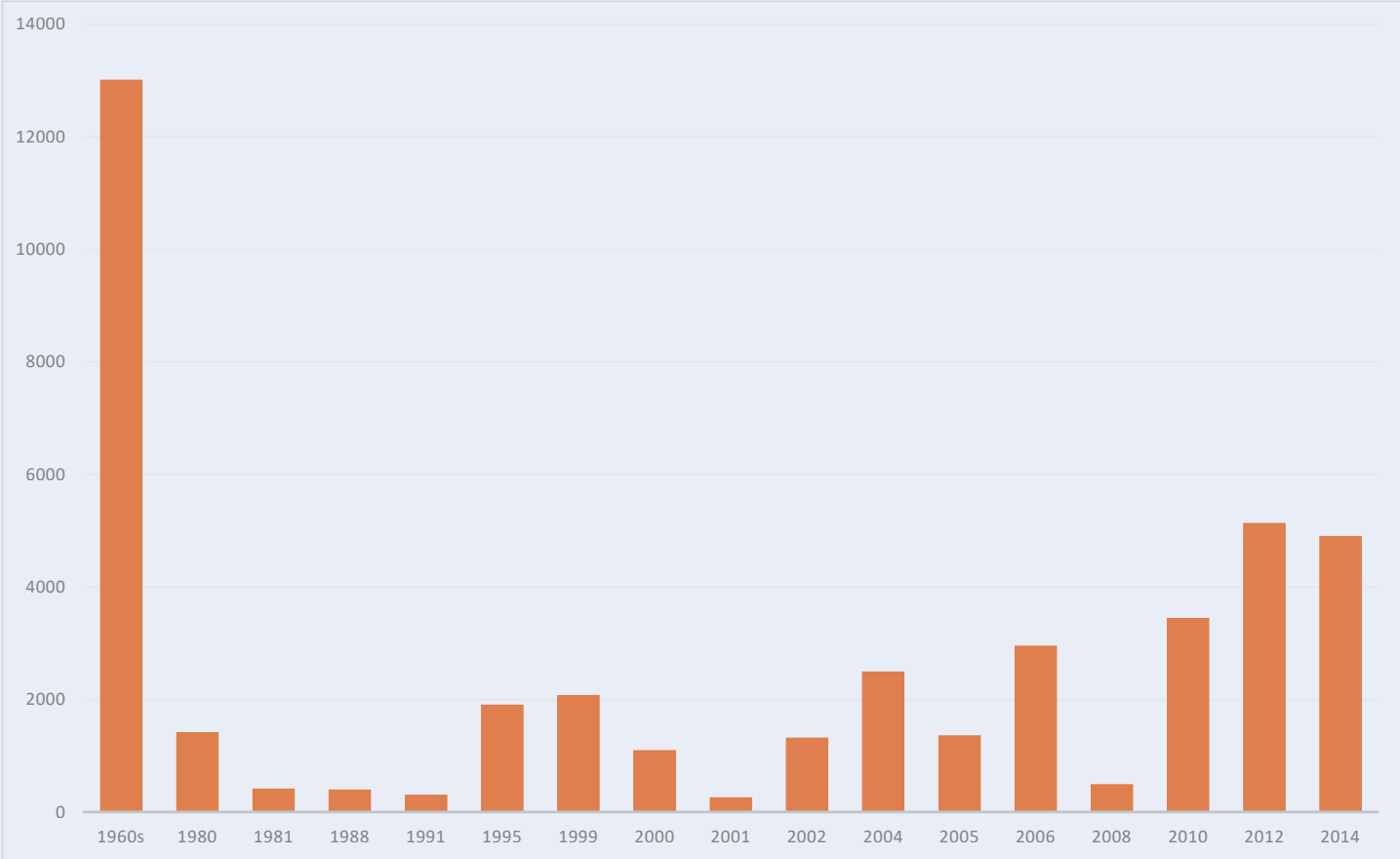
Queen Elizabeth National Park is the protected area hosting the greatest number of elephants (6 individuals/200km², 0.03 individuals/km²).

Legal/illegal trade and threats

The main threats identified by the 2007 AESR Report were habitat loss and fragmentation, poaching for ivory, and human-wildlife conflict (Blanc, 2008).

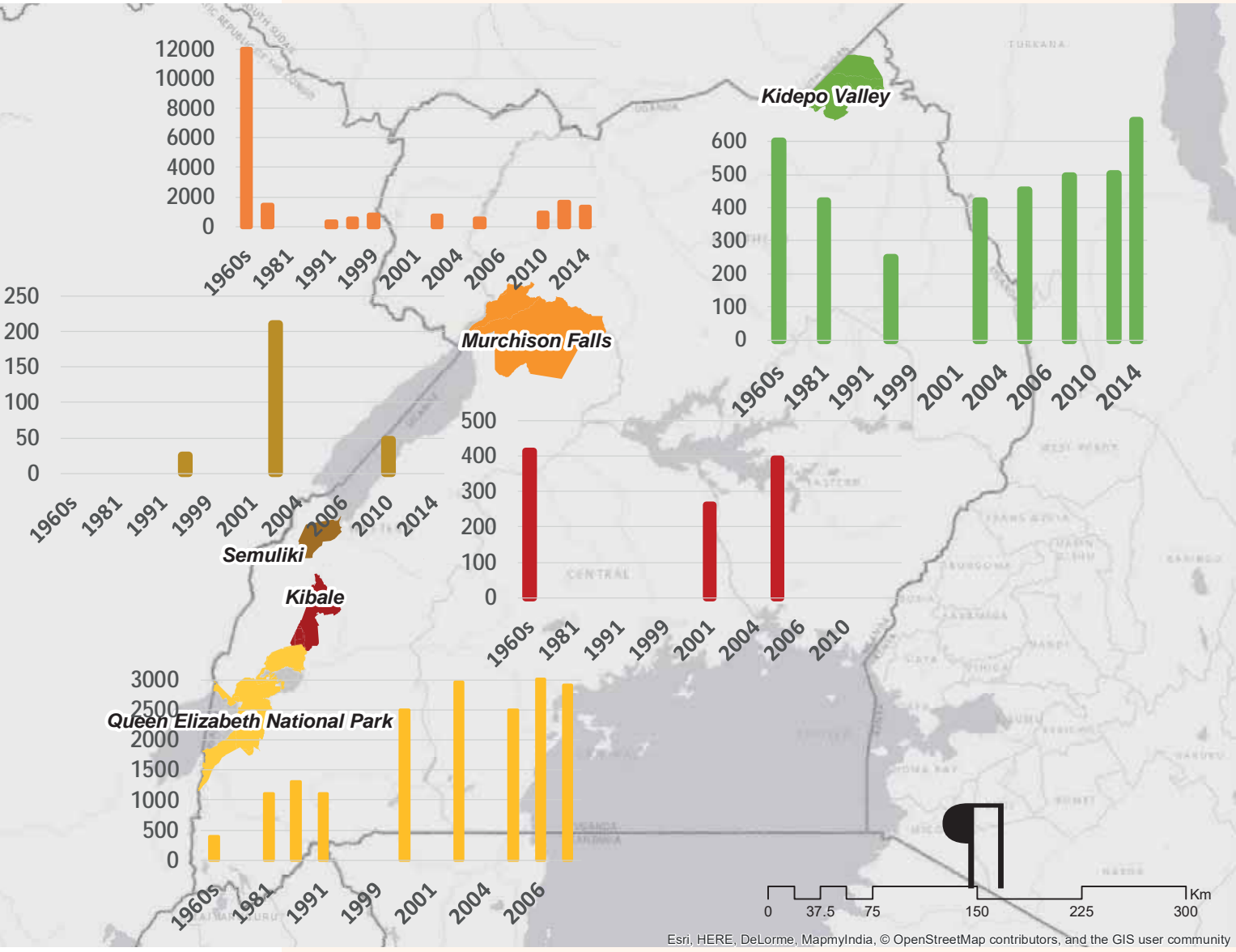
The most recent analysis of data from the TRAFFIC-managed Elephant Trade Information System (ETIS) clearly indicates high levels of illegal ivory trade continuing alongside rates of poaching. One of the most worrying figures that is presented by the TRAFFIC ETIS analysis, is the significant increase in the frequency of large-scale ivory seizures (i.e. those over 500 kg). Overall, the global illicit ivory trade started to rise in 2007 and reached its highest levels in 2012–2013 since the 1989 CITES ban on the international trade in ivory (Milliken *et al.*, 2016). Alongside the rise of the illegal ivory trade is the reported increase of illegal elephant killings as shown by an analysis of the Monitoring of Illegal Killing of Elephants (MIKE) database (T. Milliken, TRAFFIC Elephant and Rhino Programme Leader, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).

Figure 11: Elephant population trend in Uganda



Source: Elaboration from Anon. 2015b

Figure 12: Elephant numbers in Uganda PAs from the 1960s to 2014



Esri, HERE, DeLorme, MapmyIndia, © OpenStreetMap contributors, and the GIS user community
 Source of data: Anon. (2015b)



Mountain Gorilla *Gorilla beringei beringei* in Uganda

6.1.3.3 Gorillas

CITES listing

The Eastern Gorilla, present in Uganda with the subspecies *G. beringei beringei* (Mountain Gorilla), has been listed under CITES Appendix I since 1975, and its trade is allowed only under exceptional circumstances including for scientific purpose and/or breeding/conservation programmes. The legal trade reported in the CITES Trade Database consists of a few exports of specimens for scientific purposes that took place in 2000, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2009, and 2012.

Global status and distribution

Both species of gorillas are listed by the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species as Critically Endangered. The Western Gorilla *Gorilla gorilla* is distributed across Angola, Cameroon, Central African Republic (CAR), mainland Equatorial Guinea (Rio Muni), Gabon, Nigeria and Republic of Congo and the main threats identified for the species and the drivers of the decreasing population trends are identified as: poaching, disease (Ebola), habitat conversion and fragmentation, and climate change (because of the effects on forest ecosystems) (Maisels *et al.* 2016). The Eastern Gorilla *Gorilla beringei* is distributed in Eastern DRC, Northwest Rwanda and Southwest Uganda and the main threats and causes of population decline for the species are similar to the ones identified for the Western Gorilla, namely: poaching, habitat reduction and fragmentation, civil unrest—armed conflicts in DRC started in 1996—and the persistence of insecurity caused by the activities of a number of armed groups operating throughout the region, spread of human disease, climate change (Plumptre *et al.* 2016).

The Mountain Gorilla is distributed on the slopes of the Virunga Mountains in south western Uganda. The total Mountain Gorilla population is estimated to be about 880, and there is evidence of a population recovery from the low numbers the population had reached during the 1980s (280 individuals in 1987). Even if the Mountain Gorilla subspecies population continues to grow, an overall continuation of the decline of the Eastern Gorilla species is to be expected due to the high levels of poaching, loss of habitat as human populations expand, and civil unrest and lawlessness in parts of this species' geographic range (Plumptre *et al.* 2016).

Uganda status and distribution

Uganda hosts part of the Eastern Gorilla population, sub-species *G. beringei beringei*, found inside two national parks located at the border with DRC and Rwanda in the western most part of the country. Mgahinga National Park is found at the southwestern border of the country and is a transboundary protected area contiguous with Volcanoes National Park in Rwanda and Virunga National Park in DRC in the volcanic Virunga region. Bwindi Impenetrable Forest National Park is located further north at the border with DRC on the edge of the Rift Valley. Gorilla numbers in Uganda (as reported by UWA), changed from 320 individuals during 1999–2003; 302 during 2004–2006 reaching 400 individuals in 2004–2011. Bwindi is home to the estimated number of 400 Mountain Gorillas including several habituated groups that can be easily monitored and tracked.

Recently, thanks to on-going conservation efforts, co-operative agreements (i.e. Greater Virunga Transboundary Collaboration Treaty) and law enforcement initiatives, a positive trend in Mountain Gorillas numbers is reported, both at the national level and with the overall population.

Legal/illegal trade and threats

Despite the international commercial trade ban in gorillas, poaching for bushmeat (Plumptre et al. 2016), incidental catch in snares and traps or for capturing young for zoos is still occurring in the distribution range of the Eastern Gorilla (J. Byamukama, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).





African lion *Panthera leo* and leopard *Panthera pardus*

6.1.3.4 Big cats (Lions and Leopards)

CITES listing

The African Lion *Panthera leo* was listed in CITES Appendix II in 1977 when the listing was applied at the Family level (*Felidae*). The Leopard *Panthera pardus* was listed in Appendix I in 1975.

The sole legal export of lion specimens for scientific purposes is reported in 2005 and in 2015 one live animal was exported to Japan for a zoo.

Leopard specimens were exported more frequently during the study period, as reported in the following Table 5. Exports refer mainly to hunting trophies but some inconsistencies appear when specimens are traded for commercial purposes; confiscated or otherwise.

Table 5: CITES Trade database reported exports of Leopard

Year	Term	Purpose	Source
2004	Skin pieces (300)	Trade	Confiscated
2005	Specimen (1)	Scientific	Wild
2008	Teeth (2)	Trade	Confiscated
2009	Trophies (1)	Personal/Hunting trophy	Wild
2010	Skin (1)	Trade	Wild
2011	Trophies (1)	Hunting trophy	Wild
2012	Skin (1); Skull (1)	Hunting trophy	Wild
2013	Skin (1); Skull (1)	Hunting trophy	Wild
2014	Trophies (2)	Hunting trophy	Wild

Global status and distribution

The African Lion is categorized as Vulnerable under the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2016, since it is believed to have undergone a reduction of 43% over the past 21 years (or about three generations). Although there are different country and regional figures concerning lion population trends, in most of the African range lions meet the criterion for being classified as Endangered with an estimated rate of decline over 50% (Bauer H. *et al.*, 2016).

The Leopard is assessed as Vulnerable under the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2016 under criterion A2cd¹⁴. Throughout North, East and West Africa Leopards have faced marked reductions due to loss of habitat, prey depletion poaching for illegal wildlife trade, including poor trophy hunting management and excessive harvesting for ceremonial purposes (Stein *et al.*, 2016).

14 An observed, estimated inferred or suspected population size reduction of ≥30% over the last 10 years or three generations, whichever is the longer, where the reduction or its causes may not have ceased OR may not be understood OR may not be reversible based on: c) a decline in area of occupancy, extent of occurrence and/or quality of habitat; d) actual or potential levels of exploitation.

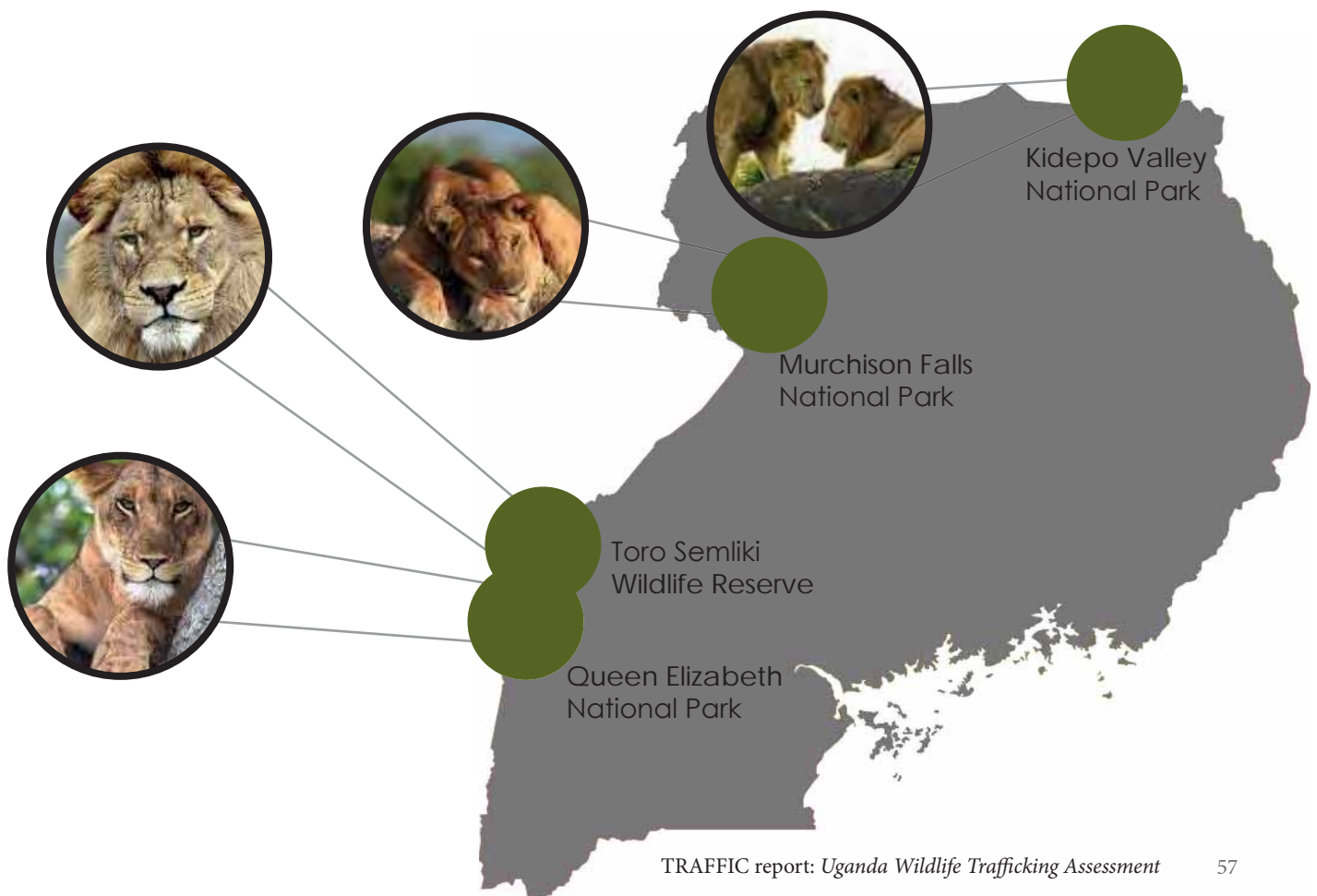
Uganda Status and distribution

African Lions, like other large carnivores, have been decreasing steadily in Uganda since the 1970s (Anon., 2010a and Anon., 2015b) alongside the country's enormous human population growth (current estimates from the last population census 2014 are around 34.6 million people) and habitat loss (Anon., 2010a).

Because of human population growth and habitat conversion for subsistence agriculture, most large carnivores have been confined inside protected areas and wiped out from the remaining unprotected territories. Of the five large carnivores known from Uganda, only the Leopard is found outside protected areas (Anon., 2010a).

The Strategic Action Plan for Large Carnivores Conservation in Uganda 2010–2020 reports Lions count from four protected areas, namely: Queen Elizabeth NP (QENP), Murchison Falls NP (MFNP), Kidepo Valley NP (KVNP), Toro Semliki Wildlife Reserve (TSWR), in addition to sporadic sightings that have been registered by rangers in Matheniko, Bokora and Pian-upe Wildlife Reserves in Karamoja. LMNP lost all its Lions in the early 2000s due to poisoning by local cattle keepers. However, at least three individuals have recently been sighted by UWA staff in the park, possibly coming from northern Tanzania or eastern Rwanda (Anon. 2010a). These surveys, conducted during 2008–2009, indicated that there were only about 416 Lions in Uganda at the time of the research, and none of the populations within these PAs was considered viable (Anon., 2010a)

According to UWA (Anon., 2015b) lion populations are found only in QENP, MFNP, KVNP and TSWR (Figure 12) totalling around 493 individuals as from 2014 estimates (C. Tumwesigye, UWA, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).



There is no current estimate of the Leopard population in Uganda; a record of Leopard sightings exists within national parks and other protected zones and is compiled by UWA rangers (Anon. 2010a). The numerous sightings registered in QENP and MFNP suggest that these two parks could be the stronghold for the species' presence in Uganda; however, it should be recognized that the number of sightings is linked to patrol efforts. Leopards are the only carnivores regularly reported outside protected areas and in particular, they are reported along the cattle corridor (separating the western rift from the eastern plains), where conflicts with the activities and livelihoods of cattle keepers and herders.

Legal/illegal trade and threats

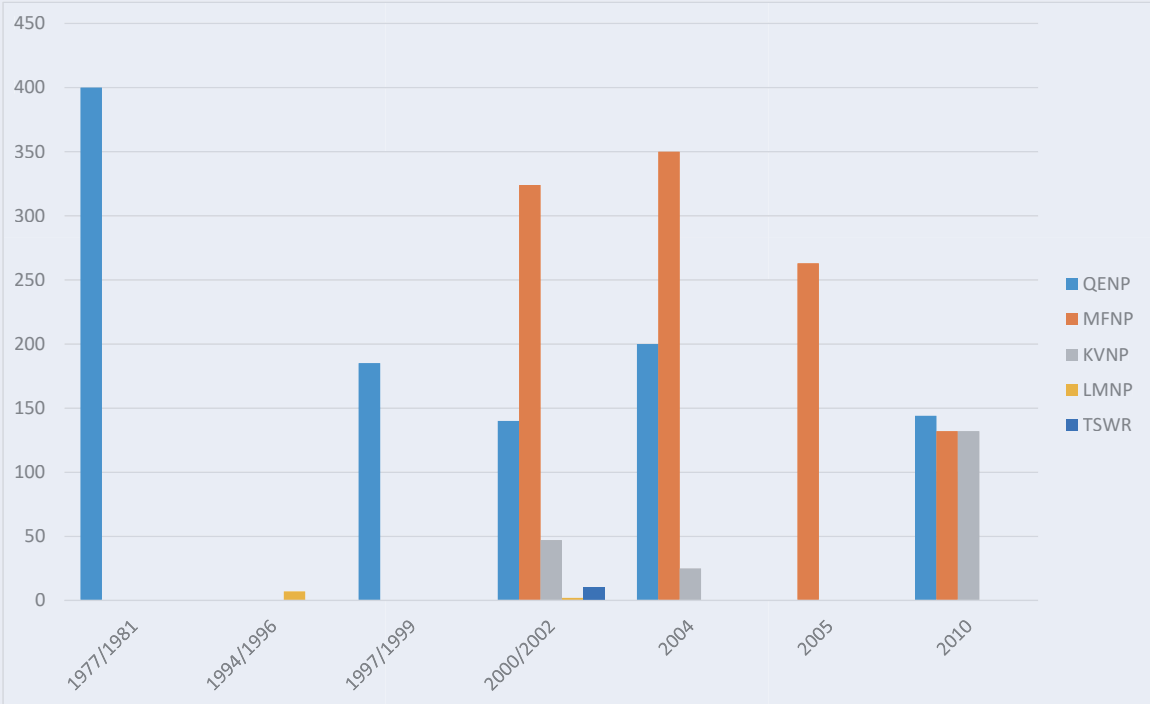
Seizures of Lion products for possible illegal trade were reported in just one case in 2005, and related to the illegal possession of a skin (UWA seizures database, as of March 2016).

The main causes that have been identified for the declining Lion populations are indiscriminate killing in defense of people and cattle, arising from the increasing human-wildlife conflicts especially in densely populated areas, habitat loss, and prey depletion. An emerging threat is posed by trade in bones and other body parts that are used in traditional medicine (both in Africa and Asia) and, in some cases, by trophy hunting, if it is not properly managed and regulated. Unlike other countries in Africa, such as South Africa (Williams *et al.* 2005), in Uganda, there is no evidence of an illegal international trade in bones and other products or legal trophy hunting.

Leopard skins are the item occurring the most in seizure records. The CITES Trade database reports a seizure of skin pieces in 2004 and a seizure of teeth in 2008; UWA Seizures Database reports six seizures of skins between 2005 and 2012, occurring within Uganda districts and regions, and among those two in QENP.

Main consumptive uses of Leopards are related to sport hunting (i.e. LMNP trophy hunting pilot project) although there are no data on their numbers in the ranches (Anon. 2010a). Poaching is associated with retaliatory killing in defense of cattle.

Figure 13: Estimated lion numbers from 1977 to 2010 in the different protected areas (numbers for 2000/2002 represent average of an estimated interval-number of animals)



Source of data: Anon. (2015b)



Hippopotamus *Hippopotamus amphibious*

6.1.3.5 Hippopotamus

CITES listing

Hippopotamus were initially listed under CITES Appendix III unilaterally by Ghana in 1976; with the purpose of monitoring trade. They were subsequently included in CITES Appendix II in 1995.

Global status and distribution

The global conservation status of the hippopotamus is assessed as Vulnerable under IUCN criteria A4cd¹⁵, where the population is declining overall, and the main causes identified are habitat loss and commercial or bushmeat exploitation. The species is widely distributed across the African continent, in sub-Saharan countries, with major distribution patches spread through Eastern and Western Africa and, to a lesser extent South Africa (Lewison, 2008).

Uganda Status and distribution

The main distribution areas in Uganda are in Murchison Falls and Queen Elizabeth NPs. The hippopotamus population in Queen Elizabeth NP was reaching around 21,000 specimens before the 1950s, and was since reduced by a culling program and heavy poaching in the 1970s during the Amin regime. Similar figures were reported for Murchison Falls NP, but heavy poaching has drastically reduced the population there too. Most recent estimates for both parks account for a few thousand in each. Other Uganda regions where hippopotamus are reported are the Semliki River and lakes Victoria and Kyoga. The present Uganda population is estimated at around 7,000 hippopotamuses (Lewison, 2008).

Legal/illegal trade and threats

Hippopotamus teeth and other products were traded continuously over the study period (as reported in the CITES Trade Database, see Figure 14 below). Ivory from teeth is the most commonly exported item from Uganda, with a peak in 2002. Considering that about 5,000 kg of hippopotamus teeth ivory would correspond to an estimated 2,000 hippopotamus and Uganda's hippopotamus population is estimated at around 7,000, the two major exports of 2002 (over 19,000 kg to Hong Kong SAR and over 5,000 to Tanzania) indicate that the ivory was possibly sourced elsewhere.

Evidence of illegal trade in hippopotamus ivory is reported by media (New Vision 2002); when 5,000 kilos of hippopotamus teeth (from an estimated 2,000 hippopotamus) of unknown origins were exported from Uganda. Another seizure of hippopotamus ivory was reported (National Geographic) in Buliisa town in western Uganda and suggested evidence of an organized trafficking network moving the hippopotamus ivory to east Asian destinations (Fisher, A. 2016).

¹⁵ An observed, estimated, inferred, projected or suspected population reduction where the time period must include both the past and the future (up to a max. of 100 years in future), and where the causes of reduction may not have ceased OR may not be understood OR may not be reversible. c) a decline in area of occupancy (AOO), extent of occurrence (EOO) and/or habitat quality. d) actual or potential levels of exploitation.

Hippopotamus, legal and illegal trends

The analysis of trade over the study period shows that exports in ivory (teeth) from Uganda were almost continuous over the years (totaling 84,372 kg), with peaks of exports that in some cases (i.e. 2002) totaled over 20,000 kg of ivory with unknown origin. Hong Kong SAR was the importing destination accounting for the greatest volumes.

A recent article shed light on the illegal trade in hippopotamus ivory (<https://news.nationalgeographic.com/2016/12/wildlife-watch-hippo-teeth-trafficking-uganda/>) reporting that in 2016 only, investigators have seized over 400 kg of hippopotamus ivory—a fraction of the total suspected illegal trade in Uganda, and despite UWA has imposed a ban on hippopotamus ivory trade since 2014. According to UWA, since the ban was imposed the trade of hippopotamus ivory to international markets has continued, much of it going to Hong Kong, as was the case when the trade was legal (Fisher, A. 2016).



Hippopotamus *Hippopotamus amphibius* teeth



WILDLIFE LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

Chimpanzee *Pan troglodytes* in Uganda

6.2 Uganda Wildlife Legislative Framework

The legislative framework of Uganda in relation to wildlife management and protection is made up of various legislation and policies that predominantly, at least marginally, deal with wildlife conservation.

The first reference is the Constitution of Uganda (1995), stating that natural resources should be conserved and managed in a sustainable way in order to grant development and environmental needs for the present and future generations. The National Environment Act (1995), under section 73 (2) also contains provisions for the protection and sustainable use of wildlife. The Land Act (1998), under articles 43 and 44 contains provisions about the right of the Government or local Government to acquire land for wildlife protection; in addition, in the same article 44, the Act contains a provision to use land in a sustainable manner, which includes a requirement of conforming with the Wildlife Act or other applicable legislation.

The main legislation regulating wildlife issues is, however, the Uganda Wildlife Statute Cap. 200 (1996) consolidated and reprinted in 2000. The Uganda Wildlife Authority was established in 1996 together with the enactment of the (original) Wildlife Statute that became an Act in 2000. The Act deals with all major aspects concerning Wildlife protection, hunting, capturing, killing, trade and protection inside and outside protected areas. The Act introduces an approach whereby wildlife user rights are identified according to six main categories (section 29 of the Act). This approach emerges from the consideration that wildlife protection alone will not sustain conservation especially on private land, and that there is need of involving local communities and local governments and the private sector in the management of wildlife. An important feature of the Act is also a recognition of the need to provide incentives to local communities and share generated revenues towards wildlife conservation. (Wildlife Act section 69/2). Farming type B user right recognizes the need of ex-situ breeding of some wild species to reconstitute depleted natural populations and further to reduce the pressures from hunting and indiscriminate killing.

Wildlife Use Rights

A = Sport Hunting

Following the positive results of a pilot harvesting of Impalas carried out in 2000 that demonstrated how the generated revenue from the sale of meat and skins could incentivize conservation; UWA decided to extend the same approach by authorizing other farms/companies, and by adopting selective hunting of individuals past their first reproductive age.

B = Farming

This refers to the rearing of wildlife in a controlled environment. The target species are ostriches, butterflies, and crocodiles.

C= Ranching

This type of animal rearing is usually done by large landholders, and examples of this type of wildlife use are Ziwa Ranch in Nakasongola (for the Southern White Rhino, *Ceratotherium simum simum*). There is a growing interest in this type of large game ranching, even if this is not yet well developed in Uganda.

D = Trade

This category covers both internal and external trade. Harvesting is permitted only for non-protected species for which wildlife user rights are granted, and it would require a use right certificate. A framework for regulating international trade is provided under CITES. UWA is the Scientific Authority giving the technical advice to the Management Authority on the trade of animals, and technical advice on plants is provided by the forestry sector.

E = Education

This includes using wildlife for educational or scientific purposes including medical experiments and developments. Some of the sites that have been identified to be soon licensed as educational centres are: Kampala Snake Park, Kyahunje (Bunyonyi Island), Kavumba Recreation Centre, Source of the Nile Recreational Centre.

F= General Extraction

This refers to the use of plants and animal parts in traditional medicine, which is well established in Uganda, but the extent of collection of wild animals and plants is not documented. It is unclear to what extent traditional medicine has contributed to the decline or extinction of wildlife as it is evident the presence of wild animals and plants on the local markets.

Other legislative tools concerning wildlife protection are:

The Uganda Wildlife Conservation Education Centre (UWEC) Act (2015). The Act mandates UWEC to conduct and manage conservation education in Uganda, rescue, rehabilitate, and release injured or confiscated species into the wild, establish and maintain conservation education facilities and programmes, establish and manage a wildlife bio-data bank, promote captive breeding with a focus on endangered and endemic species. UWEC is identified as the CITES rescue centre for Uganda.

Under the Local Governments Act, Cap 24, Local Government Committees are mandated to initiate and formulate policies regarding the use of local natural resources and reserve areas. They moreover ensure co-ordination and application of relevant governmental policies and are responsible for settling disputes with local communities concerning natural resources use, including wildlife.

The National Forestry and Tree Planting Act (2003) regulates the use and accession of forestry resources and their derivatives, including a number of provisions prohibiting certain activities in forest reserves and community forest reserves. One key activity covered includes hunting and the removal of biotic specimens.

The Fish Act, Cap 197 (2000) regulates the fishery sector. It establishes restrictions concerning fishing methods and it is useful in regulating activities in waters and especially of those water bodies falling within protected areas.

From a policy perspective, the utilization of wildlife in Uganda is regulated within the national environmental and natural resource policies for the environment, wildlife, wetlands, and forestry as briefly summarized in the following.

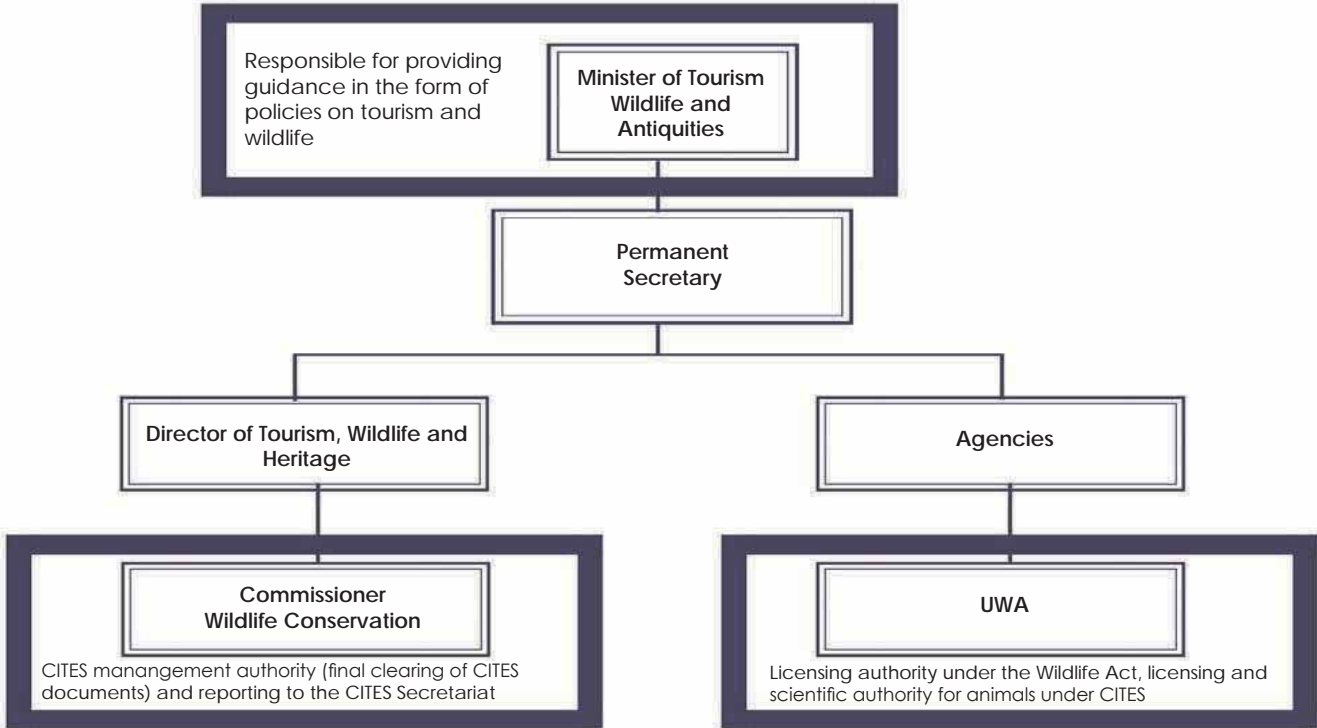
The Wildlife Policy (2014) is aligned with the national vision: “A transformed Ugandan society from a peasant to a modern and prosperous country within 30 years”, striving for “sustainably managed and developed wildlife resources and healthy ecosystems in a developed Uganda” (Anon., 2013). The main objectives of the policy are the sustainable management of Uganda’s wildlife protected areas and of the animals residing therein, the sustainable utilization of wildlife resources as a means to increase economic prosperity, the mitigation of human-wildlife conflict, the promotion of research and training in the wildlife sector, the effective tackling of wildlife crime and illicit activities, the evaluation and mitigation of the impacts of extractive activities on wildlife and the promotion of transboundary co-operation, and agreements in the field of wildlife conservation.

The National Policy for the Conservation and Management of Wetlands (1995) calls for wetlands to be conserved and utilized in such a way that they do not lose traditional benefits and the value they hold in providing basic livelihoods to the communities. They are recognized as important habitats for wildlife and as centres of biological diversity, hosting some rare and emblematic species such as the Shoebill or the Grey Crowned-crane. Their functions are recognized as cross-cutting other sector policies and programmes including wildlife.

The Uganda Forestry Policy (2001) promotes the idea of an inclusive and sector-wide policy, supporting the intelligent use of forest resources for economic development, poverty alleviation, and environmental stability. The Policy is articulated into 11 policy statements addressing various aspects of the forestry sector such as the management of forests on government and private land, commercial plantations, forest biodiversity, and watershed management, among the others.

Concerning wildlife, the Policy, by recognizing UWA as the responsible authority for managing and conserving forest reserves inside National Parks and Wildlife Reserves, highlights that the splitting of responsibilities between sectors has created conflicts between lead agencies such as the Forestry Department and the UWA.

Figure 15: Main responsibilities of the Ministry of Tourism and UWA concerning wildlife



6.2.1 Wildlife law implementation and enforcement

The status of implementation of wildlife policies, legislation, and institutional commitments is captured and synthesized in the Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities Annual Sector Report (financial year 2013/2014). The fourth sector review highlighted progress on the following components.

- Policy and management: by an increase of funding for the sector and the review and approval of tourism and wildlife policies.
- Wildlife conservation and tourism development: by bringing forward the amendment of the Wildlife Act that will specifically address issues like the human-wildlife conflicts, fair revenue sharing of the communities living near protected areas, strengthening of penalties for wildlife crime offenders, engagement in educational programmes and activities for schools, provision of alternative livelihood sources for communities living around wildlife protected areas, carrying out reforestation restoration programmes, and provision of more wildlife habitats.
- Marketing and promotion: by working with international partners to promote Uganda as a tourist destination, promote domestic tourism and increase the number of tourists coming for leisure and holidays.

The Uganda Wildlife Act is the main legislation addressing wildlife conservation, management, and prosecution of wildlife crime. The Act establishes the UWA and mandates it to perform the majority of tasks as concerning wildlife management including the control and licensing of any wildlife-related activity.

Regarding the enforcement of the wildlife legislation, UWA rangers are responsible nationally, they can be supported by Uganda Police Force in patrolling protected areas territories (J. S. Otim, Commissioner - Interpol - Environmental Crimes, pers. comm., October 2016). At customs entry ports, the inspection of wildlife and wildlife products is jointly enforced with other agencies with shared duties for inspection and control (i.e. Customs – URA, Police Force, Civil Aviation Authority, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Water and Environment – Forestry Department).

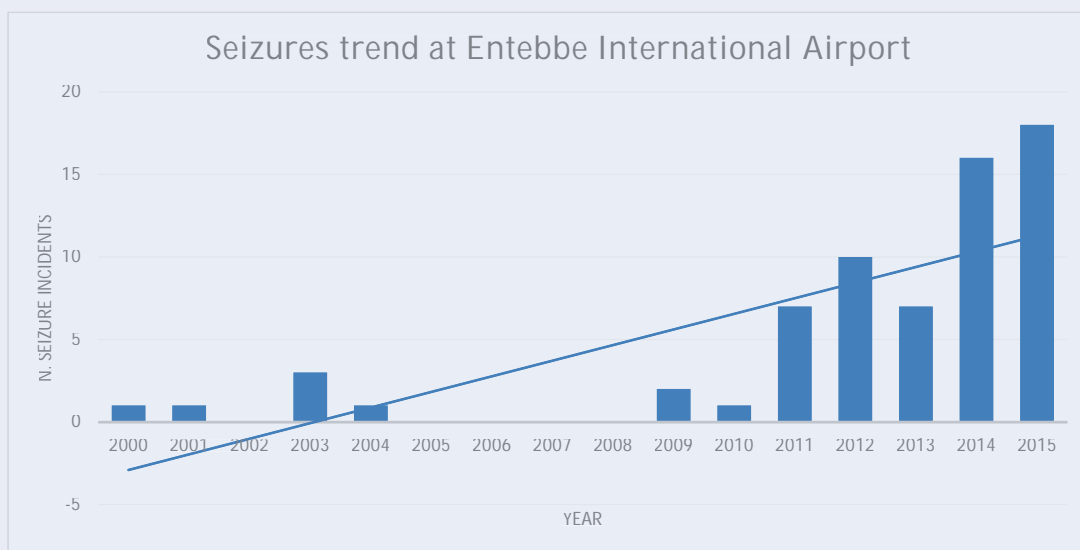
Enforcement controls and efficiency has improved during the last few years, mainly due to the numerous trainings and capacity building initiatives that have been provided and organized for enforcement authorities such as UWA and URA (D. Kabagambe, URA–CITES desk office, Enforcement Department, pers. Comm., 2016). This is also supported by an increasing trend of seizures at Entebbe International Airport over the last five years as shown in Figure 16 below.

On the other hand, prosecution of wildlife crime in Uganda remains challenging mainly because the Wildlife Act currently in force does not provide proportionate penalties for wildlife crimes. Other weaknesses that have been identified refer to the fine values established under the Act (that have never been updated since its release (1996)) and to the difficulty in estimating the market value of ivory when imposing a fine that would need to be proportionate to the value of the illegally owned item (D. Sayuni, DPP, pers. comm., October 2016).

Corruption is an issue that might hamper the lawful outcome of a trial. Recently, to address possible corruption issues, a specialized court for wildlife crime was established and is currently in the process of being operationalized.



Figure 16: Seizures of wildlife and wildlife products at Entebbe International Airport 2000–2015



Source of data: Uganda Wildlife Authority Seizures database (August 2016)



Forest Landscape Restoration
Kasese District, Rwenzori Mountains, Uganda

6.2.2 Community involvement in protected areas and wildlife conservation

One of the top challenges for UWA and UWA's park managers is balancing the conflict between conservation and resource uses by local communities. Examples of such conflicts are routinely reported across the whole country and all over Africa (Anon., 2011c). It is precisely to address these types of concerns that UWA initiated a dialogue between the communities neighbouring the parks and the park's management, starting from LMNP as a pilot area which had received funds from USAID through the African Wildlife Foundation (AWF). From this pilot at Lake Mburo Park, Management Advisory Committees (PMACs) were formed and institutionalized in all the protected areas, with the main functions including a democratically elected representation of local people in the park management to discuss and "advise" on management actions beforehand. Unfortunately, soon after the PMACs were established, it was realized that they had been interpreted in different ways by the various local communities and park managers, leading to the proliferation of costly administrative bodies which created more of a burden than a facilitation to the PAs managers to solve conflicts.

As it became evident that the PMACs had failed to meet their desired purpose, it was still clear that a dialogue between the local communities and the park managers was still needed. The policy steps of this process resulted in the establishment of a community conservation co-ordination office in Kampala and the establishment of a mechanism to share the benefits of the protected areas with local communities. The new institution was called the Community Protected Area Institution (CPI) whose main feature was to be deeply rooted in the local government administrative system, have a clear mandate to address and solve conflicts over resources, and be funded partly by the local government, donors and by the revenue accrued from PAs management. Some good examples of successful CPIs are nationally available, one of them being the previously mentioned LMNP. The reasons for this success can be attributed to a small number of parishes and local administrations involved in the management, facilitating the effective planning of revenue sharing (Anon., 2011c).

6.2.3 Regional/international framework to tackle wildlife trafficking

From a policy and legislative perspective, various international and collaborative management conventions and agreements address wildlife trade and transboundary wildlife conservation. The most relevant are: CITES; the East African Protocol on Environment and Natural Resources Management; the Treaty establishing the Greater Virunga Transboundary Collaboration (GVTC), the Lusaka Agreement as implemented by the Lusaka Agreement Task Force, and Memoranda of Understanding (MoUs) with Rwanda and Kenya (Cross-Border Wildlife Security Collaboration) and DRC for trans-boundary collaborative management of the Central Albertine Rift (Anon., 2008a).

CITES regulates international trade in species of wild animals and plants by establishing a licensing mechanism that allows for the trading of species after a non-detriment finding has been verified by a competent national authority; meaning that the removal of the species from the (wild) population is not detrimental to the survival of the species. Nationally, the Convention is implemented by various institutions; where the co-ordinating institution and Management Authority is established at the Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities. CITES is a powerful tool for controlling the trade in species listed in the Appendices of the Convention, however, despite a number of initiatives established under the umbrella of CITES to address wildlife trafficking (such as for instance the International Consortium on Combating Wildlife Crime and various Memoranda of understanding between the CITES Secretariat and INTERPOL, World Customs Organization, TRAFFIC), this is not the primary focus of the Convention; and additionally, CITES only has a mandate to address the species which are listed under the Convention.

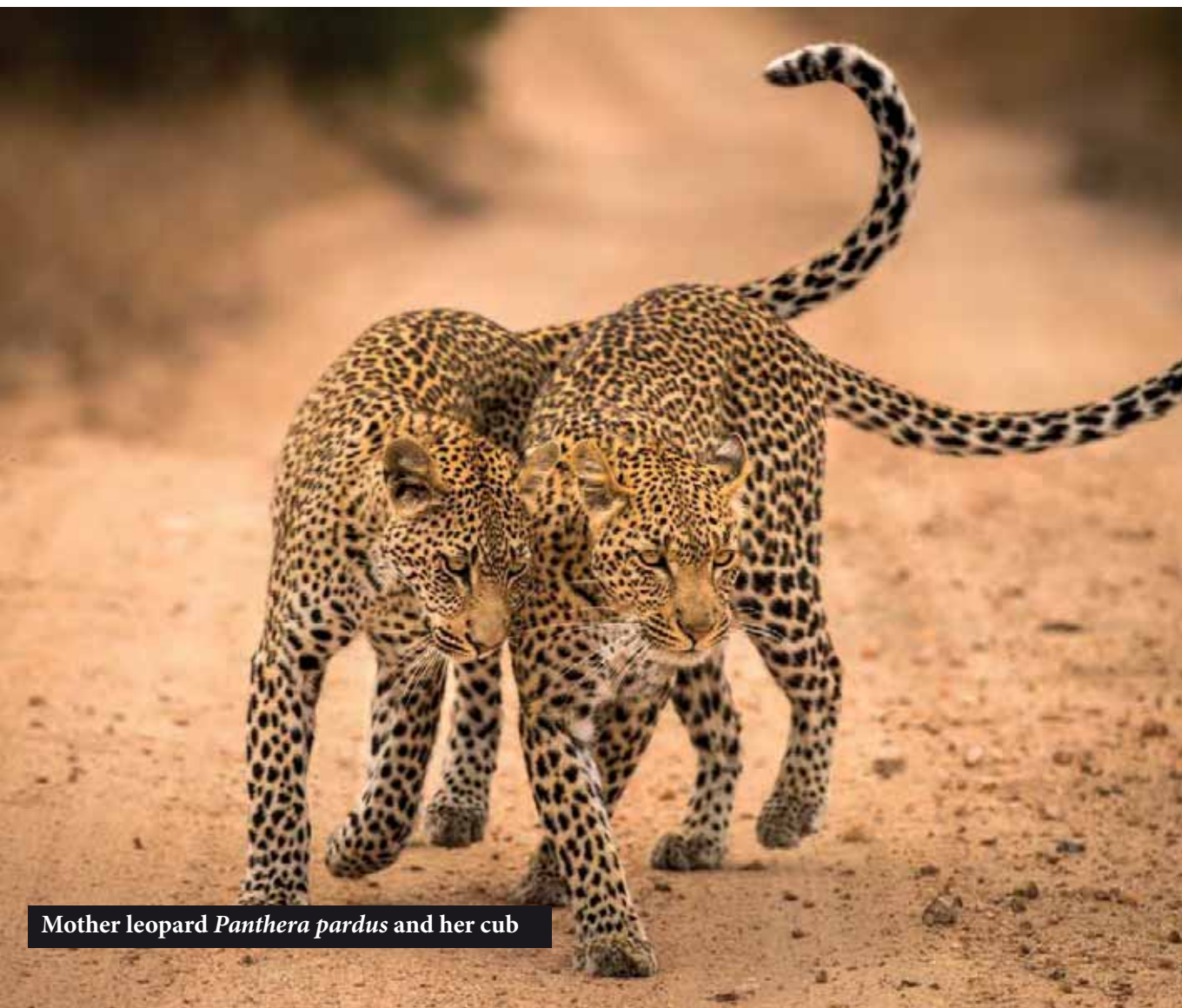
The East African Protocol on Environment and Natural Resources instructs the Parties towards the sustainable conservation of wildlife resources in partnership with local communities. The protocol also requires Parties to co-operate in managing transboundary wildlife resources, to promote social and economic incentives for conservation, and to conclude agreements aimed at conserving transboundary wildlife resources.

The Treaty establishing the GVTC was signed by Uganda, Rwanda, and DRC for collaborative management of transboundary protected areas. One of the objectives includes the promotion and conservation of “biodiversity and other socio-cultural values within the Greater Virunga wildlife protected area network” (J. Byamukama, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).



The Lusaka Agreement on Co-operative Enforcement Operations Directed at Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora and the Taskforce established under this agreement originated as an initiative of wildlife law enforcement officers from eight Eastern, Western and Southern African countries meeting in Lusaka (Zambia) in 1992. The Agreement came into force in 1996 and established a permanent Task Force to facilitate co-operative activities of the National Bureaus in carrying out investigations pertaining to illegal trade in wildlife. The Task Force comprises seconded law enforcement officers from party states and locally recruited support staff.

UWA signed two Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with two protected area authorities: *Office Rwandais Tourisme et des Parcs Nationaux* (OTPTN) of Rwanda in October 2005; and *Institut Congolais pour la Conservation de la Nature* (ICCN) of the Democratic Republic of Congo in November 2007. The MoUs provide a framework for transboundary collaborative management of the Central Albertine Rift. A strategic plan for the transboundary protected area and the entire landscape has been developed as a framework (Anon, 2008a). A cross-border wildlife security co-operation agreement was also formalized between Kenya and Uganda in February 2016, still under the auspices of the Lusaka Agreement Task Force.



Mother leopard *Panthera pardus* and her cub

A close-up photograph of pangolin scales, showing their characteristic overlapping, diamond-shaped structure with a fine, grid-like texture. The scales are a warm, golden-brown color, and the lighting creates strong highlights and shadows, emphasizing their three-dimensional quality.

POACHING & TRAFFICKING

Pangolin scales

6.3 Poaching and trafficking in Uganda

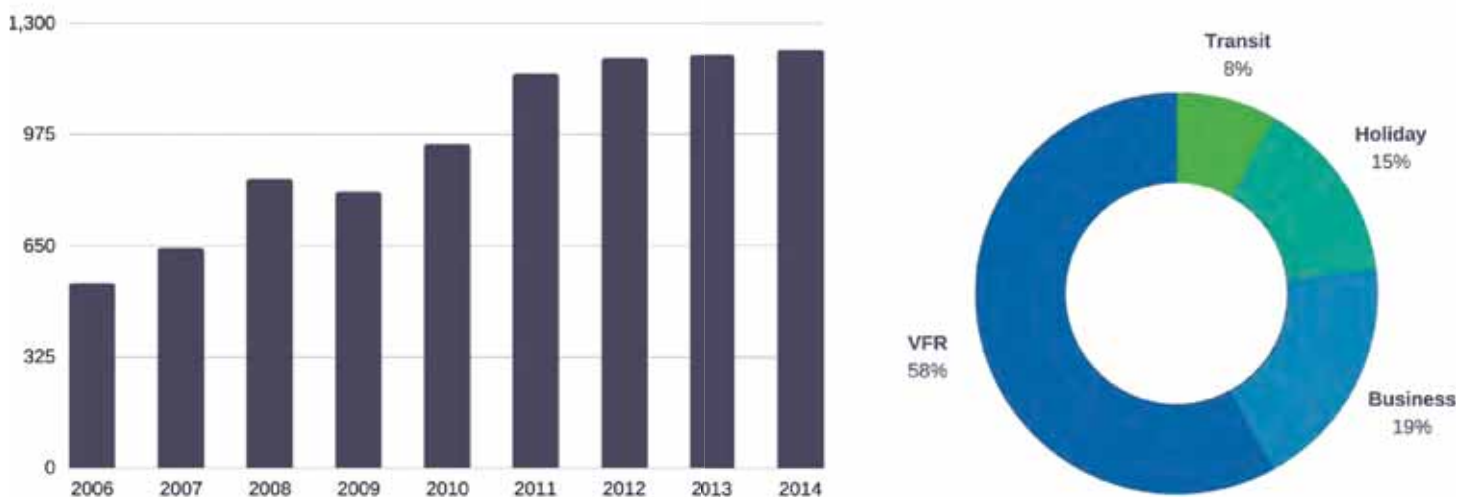
The following paragraphs present an overview of poaching implications on sectoral economies such as tourism or trade, the main trends of poaching and trafficking in Uganda, main drivers and enabling conditions, linkages between war and insurgency, refugee settlements and poaching, structure of poaching syndicates, seizures and prosecution of wildlife crime, linkages to organized crime and the key trafficking routes identified from and to Uganda.

6.3.1 Impacts of wildlife resources depletion on sectoral economies and tourism

Like many other African countries, Uganda relies on its wildlife and natural resources to support its economy, growth, and development through tourism. Wildlife conservation and sustainable use are therefore paramount for the country's global development objectives and for the tourism sector; and as such, is included in the Second National Development Plan (NDP II) 2015/16-2019/20 as one of the priority development areas. "Combat poaching and eliminate the problem of wildlife dispersal to ensure maximum exploitation of tourist attractions and amenities" is specifically mentioned in NDP II as one of the actions for tourism development and improvement (Anon., 2015c).

Uganda offers an extraordinary combination of tourist destinations including wildlife safaris, and primate tracking, combined with one of the continent's highest mountain ranges (Rwenzori), the source of the Nile river and the Great Lakes. During the 1960s Uganda was among Africa's top tourist destinations, however, following decades of instability and war, causing a massive depletion in wildlife stocks and even local extinctions (Anon., 2015b), tourist affluence ceased. Nevertheless, the number of tourists visiting Uganda has resumed over the past decade, as security conditions have improved (Anon., 2015c). Actually, tourism expenditures in Uganda have been steadily increasing between 2007 and 2013, with over a 70% increase between 2009 and 2013. The total contribution of tourism to GDP was estimated at nine percent in 2012 with a projected increase of about three percent in 2013 (Anon., 2012a). The sector is estimated to account for about 19.6% of total exports or over 60% of total inflows from services annually. The sector employs an estimated six percent of the total labour force (C. Tumwesigye, UWA, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016). Graphs below show the increasing trend of tourist arrivals from 2006 to 2014 and the purpose of the tourist visit.

Figure 17: Trend in tourist arrivals and purpose of tourist visits (VFR=visiting friends and relatives)



Source: C. Tumwesigye, UWA, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016

Figures up to 2014 show that the majority of tourists arrived from Africa and this would be consistent with the purpose of tourist visits, where most occurrences are tourists visiting friends and family. The second highest category of tourist arrivals is from European countries (Anon., 2014b). These figures point to a potential increase in the international tourists and western countries markets, as well as an improvement in the quality and profitability of the tourism industry.

The main tourist destinations in Uganda include natural sites with scenic views like Murchison Falls or the Kidepo Valley landscape or the Mountain Gorillas in Bwindi or Mgahinga National Parks, or the rhinos in Ziwa Rhino Sanctuary.

Figures from the Ministry of Tourism Sector Statistical Abstract 2014, show that the Western region is most attractive for tourists followed by the central region. The western region is rich in lakes, hot springs, monuments and national parks; the central region is rich in history since its major attractions are traditional sites (Anon., 2014b).

National Parks and other wildlife protected areas offer a variety of tourism opportunities in Uganda, ranging from gorilla (and chimpanzee) tracking, nature guided walks, mountain trekking (Rwenzori and Mount Elgon), wildlife safari (elephants, giraffe, Lions, hippopotamus, rhinos), village walks, butterfly and bird watching, observation of rare fauna and flora species, sport fishing, boat cruises, and water rafting.

Recently, Uganda registered an increase in visitors to national parks between 2009 and 2013 representing a 41% increase across the overall period; but registered a 13.2% decline between 2011 and 2012. The year 2013 registered an increase in visitors to national parks to represent a 17.5% increase from the previous year. Overall the number of visitors to national parks has increased steadily during the last five years, except for a fall in visitors' number in 2012, as shown from the following graph in Figure 18 below.

Figure 18: Trend of visitors in National Parks from early 2000s to 2015



Source: C. Tumwesigye, UWA, in litt. Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016

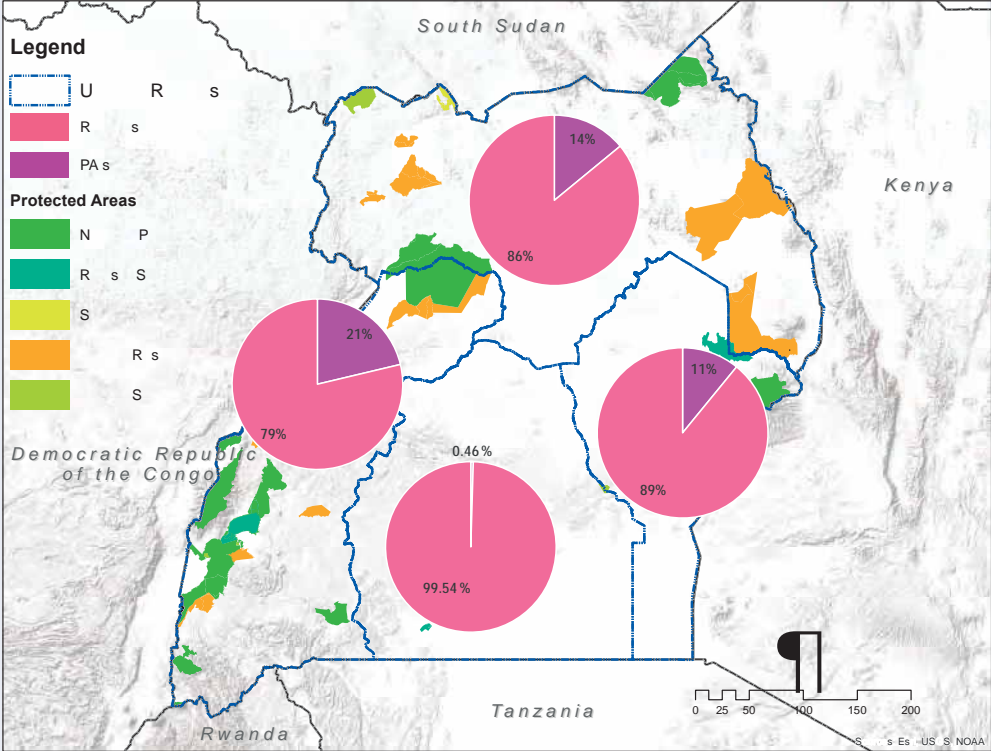
Figure 19 below shows the coverage of protected areas by region and the percentage of protected area surface over the entire surface of the region. The western region has the highest surface of national parks and other protected areas.

The Uganda Wildlife Act Cap 200 (Wildlife Act section 69/2, under the establishment of the Wildlife Fund), provides for the sharing of part of the revenues (20%) deriving from entrance fees for protected areas with local communities living in the surrounding area. The main aim of the revenue sharing is “to enable communities living adjacent to protected areas to derive financial benefits from conservation” (Anon., 2014b). Most of the revenues fund livelihood support and public projects of the community’s choice. The revenue shared with the communities has increased in recent years, because of the increase in tourist visits to protected areas. At the same time, a reduction in illegal activities and encroachment has been associated to a major increase in revenue sharing (Anon., 2014b), demonstrating that, at least for the subsistence driven poaching, the creation of community benefits can relieve pressure on wildlife resources.

According to a recent report released by IIED on Wildlife Crime in Uganda (Harrison *et al.* 2015), major poaching incidents were registered in 17 out of 23 surveyed protected areas with a wider variety of drivers registered in the western and northern regions as they (the regions) have higher population densities and higher surfaces of protected territory. The regions with more protected areas are attracting the highest number of tourists and therefore it is particularly important to effectively tackle any activity that could reduce this important source of revenue for the local communities, and for the continued development of tourism-related sectoral economies.

Poaching, independently from the underlying driver or enabling factor, affects wildlife populations in parks and protected areas, decreasing their potential to attract tourists and generate revenues. Poaching in Uganda, as previously mentioned, has already caused the extinction of some species of high tourism value such as rhinos and oryx. Fewer wildlife species and animal populations in parks generate dissatisfaction leading to decreased tourism, limited resources for revenue sharing with the local communities, and fewer jobs and markets for products (Anon., 2014b).

Figure 19: Protected areas types and percentage of protected area surface by Uganda regions



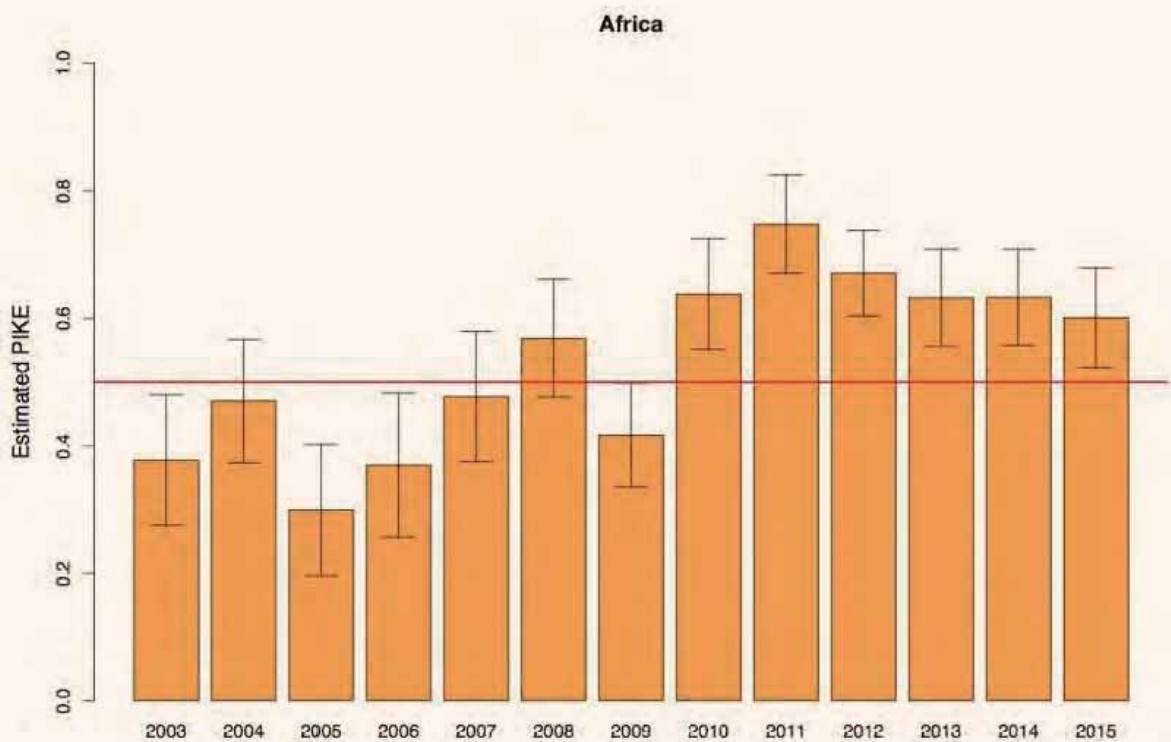
Under the Uganda Wildlife Statute (1996) (section 69/2) and the subsequent establishment of the Community Protected Area Institution (CPI), UWA seeks to achieve benefit sharing with the local communities surrounding the protected areas. The current Wildlife Act provides for the reinvestment into community projects of 20% of the revenues generated by parks. In principle, the conservation of wildlife would attract more tourists and proportionally increase the revenue to be shared with local communities, however, the connection between conservation and revenue sharing is not always straightforward, mainly because of lack of awareness by communities. Ideally, the communities surrounding every protected area in Uganda should be able to implement projects using revenue sharing funds. The example of LMNP, as already mentioned, highlights how the revenue sharing mechanism can improve local communities living standards and needs. Between 2000–2011 in the three districts of Kiruhura, Mbarara, and Isingiro, a total of 33 projects (all of them proposed according to the community needs) were implemented, including roads, schools and latrines construction, rehabilitation and maintenance for health centres, solar power provisioning and a community-based tourism campsite in Mbarara.

6.3.2 Poaching trends

In recent years, Africa has experienced a surge in poaching of elephants and rhinos (T. Milliken, TRAFFIC Elephant and Rhino Programme Leader, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).

The most recent figures presented in the MIKE Report through December 2015 show a steady increase in the levels of illegal killing of elephants starting from 2006, and continuing through 2015. The proportion of illegally killed elephants (PIKE) above the horizontal line at 0.5 (where half of the elephants found dead are likely to have been illegally killed) is considered to be unsustainable, as shown in Figure 20 below (Anon., 2016i).

Figure 20: PIKE trends in Africa with 95% confidence interval



14606 carcasses

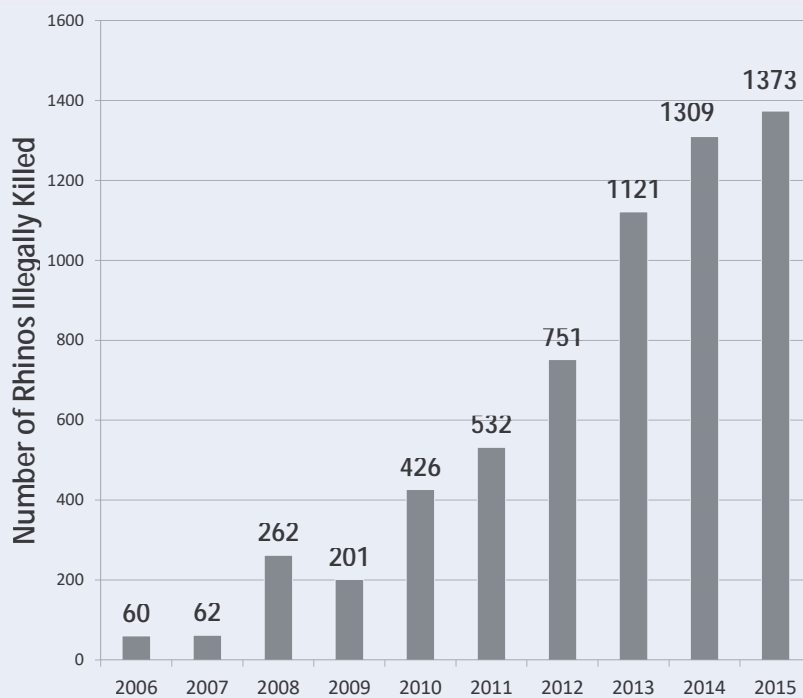
Source: Anon., 2016g

The number of reported poached rhinos in Africa has increased steadily between 2006 and 2015 with a maximum peak of 1,342 rhino in 2015. Poaching numbers in 2015 represent five percent of African rhino numbers (Emslie *et al.* 2016).

In Uganda, the poaching figures concerning elephants and rhinos are not a concern at present. Rhinos are only found in Ziwa Sanctuary managed by the NGO Rhino Fund Uganda, and closely protected under the breeding and conservation programme and elephants, as already mentioned, are slightly increasing nationally from 2010 to 2015 and with few reported poaching incidents.

Poaching in Uganda is a component of wildlife crime. Common wildlife crimes include poaching for meat and trophies, (illegal) trade in wildlife and wildlife products, capturing of live animals for pets and killing for traditional and medicinal uses; illegal wildlife imports and transiting of wildlife and wildlife products into the country for pets or for reaching other destinations (C. Tumwesigye, UWA, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).

Figure 21: Black and White Rhinos illegally killed in African countries from 2006 to 2015



Source: (T. Milliken, TRAFFIC Elephant and Rhino Programme Leader, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).

Since the 1960s and 1970s when Uganda was endowed with abundant wildlife, poaching has increased to such levels that many species are now on the brink of extinction. Rhinos and oryx for instance were poached to extinction. Both rhino species native to Uganda disappeared in the 1980s, as well as the oryx (C. Tumwesigye, UWA, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016). During 2005–2006 the NGO Rhino Fund Uganda managed to reintroduce the first Southern White Rhinos into the privately owned Ziwa farm (located in Nakasongola district) under a special land usage licence (Anon., 2016h) and the numbers have steadily increased.

Since the 1990s, the status of several wildlife populations has improved, and these populations are increasing or stable in protected areas. Elephants, in particular, are increasing. However, Uganda remains a critical transit country for illegal ivory. Since 2011, Uganda conducted several large seizures of both ivory and rhino horn, revealing and uncovering a variety of different concealment methods (C. Tumwesigye, UWA, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).

Table 6: Extinct species of Uganda from the 1960s

Species	1960s	1982 -1983	1995 -1996	1999 -2003	2004 -2006	2007 -2010	2011	2011 -2014
ORYX	2,000	200	0	0	0	0	0	Data not available
BLACK RHINO	300	150	0	0	0	0	0	0
NORTHERN WHITE RHINO	400	20	0		0	0	0	0
EASTERN BLACK RHINO	300	150	0	0	0	0	0	0
SOUTHERN WHITE RHINO			0		8	11	14	7



White Rhinoceros *Diceros bicornis*



African Elephant *Loxodonta africana*

6.3.3 Key drivers of poaching and enabling conditions

In Uganda, the most common drivers of wildlife crime are rooted into subsistence hunting and livelihoods sourcing (poverty), income generation above and beyond basic needs, human-wildlife conflicts in response to perceived injustice, awareness and traditional uses, and political influence (C. Tumwesigye, UWA, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).

Poverty can be considered as one of the drivers for subsistence driven poaching and wildlife trafficking (Harrison *et al.* 2015). In some cases, however, species are poached mainly for their meat (as shown by antelopes and bushmeat seizures), while other species are poached for the derived products (i.e. ivory, pangolin scales, big cat skins), highly valued in the illegal markets and likely to generate a consistent increase in the household income.

In Uganda, after wildlife was decimated from most of the PAs due political instability and civil strife, UWA engaged in efforts to restore wildlife populations that are currently monitored and well known mainly inside protected areas (Anon., 2015b).

Many species are reported outside PAs where, unfortunately, very little is known and very few conservation efforts are maintained (Anon., 2012a). Due to a significant increase in human populations (from around 9.5 million in 1969 to 34.6 million in 2014), and with an average annual growth rate of 3.4%, (Anon., 2012a) human-wildlife conflicts are a major cause of poaching. Figure 22 shows the Uganda population figures by district (as from the last population census 2014), and the protected area network (including forest reserves). Encroachment and poaching episodes are most probable to occur in areas with medium-high population figures.

Out of 23 surveyed protected areas (including national parks, wildlife reserves, and forest reserves), poaching for bushmeat was reported in 17 cases. The main reasons for poaching in the surveyed protected areas are for household consumption, cultural purposes, traditional medicine and income generation or (for primates) as accidental by-catch in traps/snares for other species, for illegal trade (ivory and elephant products), and mainly self-defence or livestock protection in poaching of predators (Canids and big cats), (Harrison *et al.* 2015).

Figure 22 below shows a selection of protected areas where poaching occurred and the associated drivers for the poaching episodes. Densely populated areas and districts (of both humans and livestock) have higher poaching incidence as well as a greater variety of underlying causes and drivers. The percentage of households that engage in livestock rearing in Uganda is high on average (around 70%), with percentages above 70% for both the western and the eastern regions (Anon., 2008c).

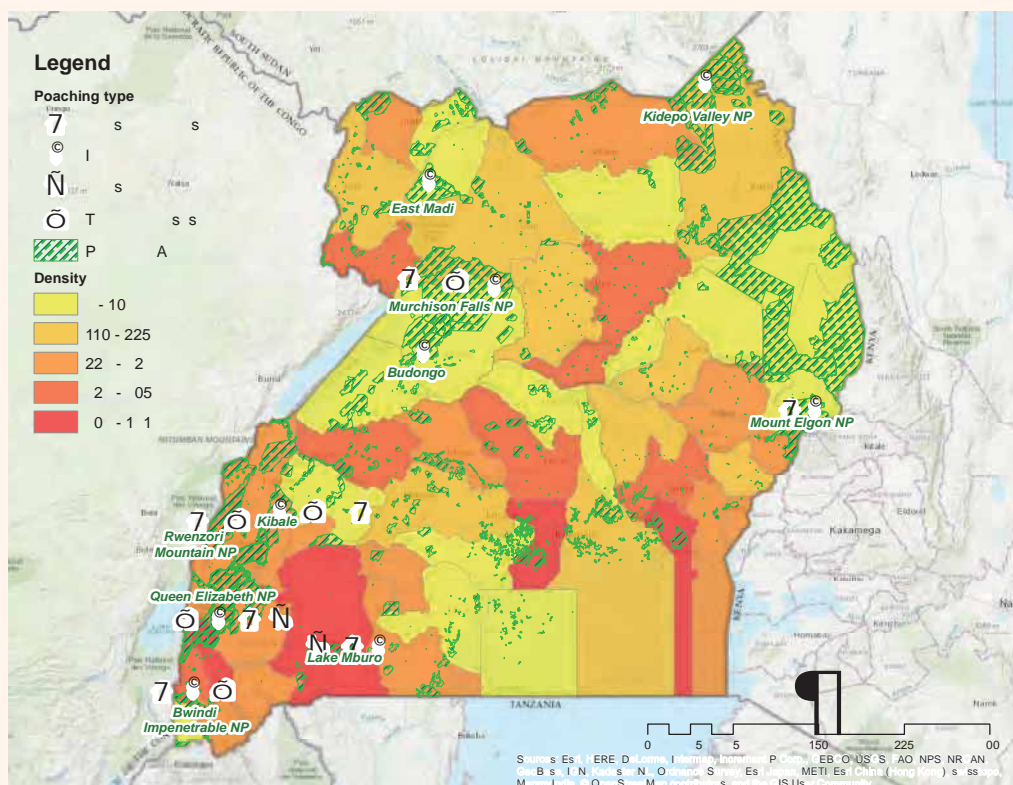
Conflicts over resource access by local rural communities and the perceived limited user rights of protected areas are often reported as a major source of illegal activities and poaching, where illicit acts are perpetrated either as revenge, or to complement household income and to protect livestock (Harrison *et al.* 2015).

The Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop also reported cultural and traditional uses of wildlife products as one of the drivers of poaching. The establishment of protected areas and the enforcement by UWA of the restriction on use and right of access has limited or halted the traditional uses of certain resources historically perpetrated by the various tribes and ethnic groups present in Uganda. This has led to conflicts and disregard of prohibitions, since many of the traditionally used resources are not found outside protected areas (Harrison *et al.* 2015).

The UWA seizure database shows that the species where commercial exploitation could be a driver of poaching are: elephants, pangolins, hippopotamus, Leopards, Lions, pythons, crocodiles, chameleons, and birds. Commercial wildlife crime is driven by a desire of achieving wealth above and beyond basic needs (Harrison *et al.* 2015), by engaging in illicit activities that are potentially highly profitable (even if the major share of the profit will not rest in the hands of the local poacher) and are often facilitated by non-deterrent penalties and sanctions (A. Barirega, in litt. Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).

The Uganda Stakeholder Workshop reported that poaching can be covered and facilitated by political influence, where political leaders, especially at the local level, and in the rural contexts, can be lenient towards encroachment in protected areas and/or wildlife crime as a strategy to gain votes and consensus; promising impunity and protection for breaching the laws (C. Tumwesigye, UWA, in litt. Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016 and Harrison, *et al.* 2015).

Figure 22: Population density by district (census 2014) and protected areas where poaching has occurred (by driver)



Source of population data: Anon. 2014a

6.3.4 Linkages between political conflict, insurgency, refugee settlements and poaching

The effects of political conflict and instability on natural resources depletion and poaching are documented in many instances and from different regions. In Uganda, massive declines in elephant population and large ungulates were reported over the period 1979–1987 (Dudley *et al.* 2002); coinciding with the Ugandan-Tanzanian War and the Ugandan Bush War. After the establishment of the Yoweri Museveni government in 1986, Joseph Kony formed a new group that would come to be known as the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA). LRA is accused of widespread human rights violations involving mainly children abduction, mutilation, kidnapping, and killing. The LRA insurgency has led to the displacement of 1.6 million people from Northern Uganda and the death, mutilation, and kidnapping of more than a hundred thousand people (Anon., 2010b). Peace negotiation between the Ugandan Government and the LRA initiated in 2008 in Juba has led to relative peace and stability in Northern Uganda. However, the LRA continues its atrocities in Eastern DRC, parts of the Central African Republic, and Sudan (Anon., 2010b).

"The LRA insurgency has led to the displacement of 1.6 million people from Northern Uganda and the death, mutilation and kidnapping of more than a hundred thousand people."

After having endured war and civil strife for many years, and due to an increase in peace and stability in the country, Uganda is now becoming one of the African countries receiving the greatest numbers of refugees, with a total number of almost 511,000 refugees and asylum-seekers registered as of December 2015 (Yaxley, C. 2015). This is the highest number ever recorded in the country's history, making Uganda the third-largest refugee-hosting country in Africa, after Ethiopia and Kenya (Yaxley, C. 2015).

While Uganda's effort towards receiving refugees and asylum seekers from neighbouring countries is commendable from a humanitarian perspective, the associated threats to wildlife and natural resources resulting from overpopulated areas should also be considered.

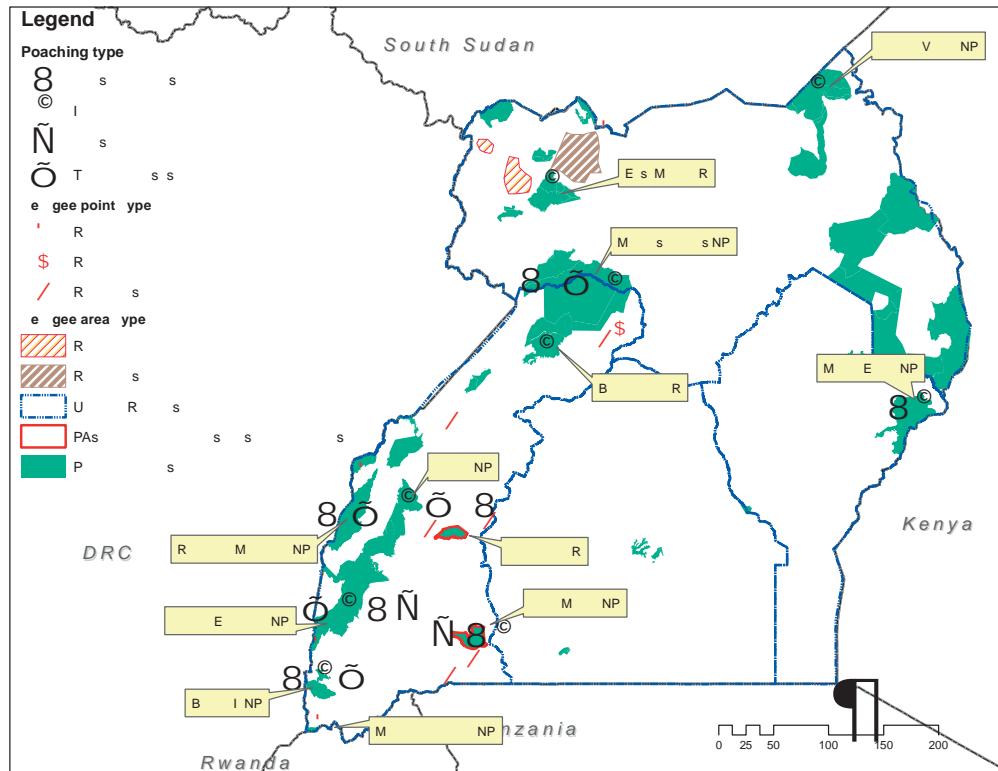
A considerable increase in bushmeat hunting has been reported in Tanzania in areas with refugee camps, as bushmeat hunting is both a means to meet protein requirements and also an opportunity to generate income (Jambiya *et al.* 2007).

Poaching resulting from the increased demand for protein food around refugee and internally displaced people (IDPs) camps, was reported in East Madi Wildlife reserve for instance, while in Semiliki NP, bushmeat hunting is perpetrated by UPDF (Uganda People's Defense Force) deployed in the reserve (Harrison *et al.* 2015). Figure 23 below shows the location of main refugee settlements (Anon. 2015d), the protected areas and the poaching types reported for some of the protected areas. Poaching for money and for household consumption is frequently associated with the presence of refugee settlements and areas; as shown in the following Figure 23.

Unsustainable use of natural resources in the proximity of refugee settlements, and as being practiced by refugees, is extensively documented in the District Wetland Inventory Reports produced by the Ministry of Water and Environment/Wetland Management Department (MWE-WMD), under the

Wetland mapping exercise and National Wetlands Information System (NWIS) carried out between the end of the 1990s and early 2000s. Adjumani and Moyo, with the Adjumani-Pakelle refugee settlements area and Masindi with Kiryadongo and Ranch 1 settlements, are key areas with refugee-related pressures on the natural resources. In these cases, the reported unsustainable use refers to the encroachment and cultivation of wetland areas since most of this territory is not protected and/or regulated.

Figure 23: Location of refugee settlements, protected areas and poaching types



Cases in which poaching was associated with the presence of refugee settlements refer to Katonga and Lake Mburo (red circled areas in Figure 23 above), located nearby Rwamwanja, Kyaka II, Nakivale, and Oruchinga refugee settlements (J. Tusbira, Conservation Department, UWA, pers. comm., October 2016). In these cases, the responsible persons were identified and relocated to other camps far away from protected areas. The poaching nature for these particular cases was for subsistence, and not ivory or other high-value wildlife products.

Given the unstable political situation of DRC (Anon., 2015e) and South Sudan (Anon., 2016k), the smuggling routes across these two countries are sustaining the trafficking of ivory coming from central and western Africa. During 2014–2015, a new ivory terrestrial route was discovered by the Lusaka Agreement Task Force, departing from Malawi going to DRC, passing through Congo River, then Brazzaville and downstream to the sea. The seizure was made in Thailand, and it was destined for Viet Nam. The DRC is a transit and source country for ivory, especially from Garamba National Park, and South Sudan is also identified as a major insecure area through which ivory is being smuggled (M. Kasumba and J.O. Emitchell, Law Enforcement Department, UWA, pers. comm., October 2016). There is evidence of ivory being smuggled through terrestrial routes from Entebbe to Juba and then shipped to China. CAR is also identified as a source country from which the ivory is transported terrestrially to DRC and to other destinations, including Uganda, for finalization of the transport towards east and southeast Asian countries/territories, mainly China, Malaysia and Viet Nam (D. Kabagambe, URA - CITES desk office, Enforcement Department, pers. Comm., October 2016).

6.3.5 Structure of poaching and trafficking network

As discussed above, poaching can be associated with the need for basic requirements and obtaining protein food, or for economic benefits and income generation beyond meeting basic needs. Poaching performed for lucrative purposes would be usually associated with a more organized network, while for subsistence poaching, the crimes are usually perpetrated on an individual basis and in absence of a facilitating organized network.

As described in Milliken *et al.*, 2012 with reference to ivory smuggling, big seizures (i.e. more than 500 kg) are indicative of the existence of a criminal organization driving the poaching, as only with such organization can the whole set of arrangements, planning, and intelligence be financially sustained.

The typical structure of this poaching and trafficking chain was described by Weru 2016, and Msuha *et al.* 2016 and in T. Milliken, TRAFFIC Elephant and Rhino Programme Leader, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016. It consists of at least five organizational levels.

The local poachers (level one): in most of the cases the poachers are recruited from local communities living in the vicinity of the protected areas or in the animal ranges, and in some cases, as previously mentioned, the presence of refugee and internally displaced people can also play a prominent role in poaching episodes. In some instances, the poachers are coming from other regions, or even other countries, or armed groups.

The local middlemen (level two): these people are responsible for providing the logistic, financial and organizational support to the local poachers. They usually receive a major share of the generated revenue as compared to the poachers on the ground.

Local transporters (level three): usually the local middlemen organize a transportation network which involves the use of trucks or other vehicles to transport the illegal items hidden in between other goods, or by using secret compartments.

Urban middlemen (level four): once the smuggled ivory or other illegally obtained wildlife products have been transported from the bush, they need to be prepared for shipping to the desired destination. This is usually done by urban middlemen using residential houses or storehouses where they can consolidate the shipment and organize the export.

Exporters (level five): information collected from Uganda stakeholders suggest the existence of another level in the trafficking chain: the exporters. These individuals are the leaders of the organized transnational crime network; they provide for the high-level planning, organization, and intelligence; they can avail great levels of financial resources to invest in facilities for storage and shipping; they are

Figure 24: Poaching structure in Uganda



responsible and involved in the setting in place and maintenance of trading links; and they also play a key role in the corruption and collusion process necessary to support the transactions.

Kingpins (level six): the kingpin finances the poaching network and uses corrupt connections in the public and private sector to move the contraband across county and country borders (Weru, 2016).

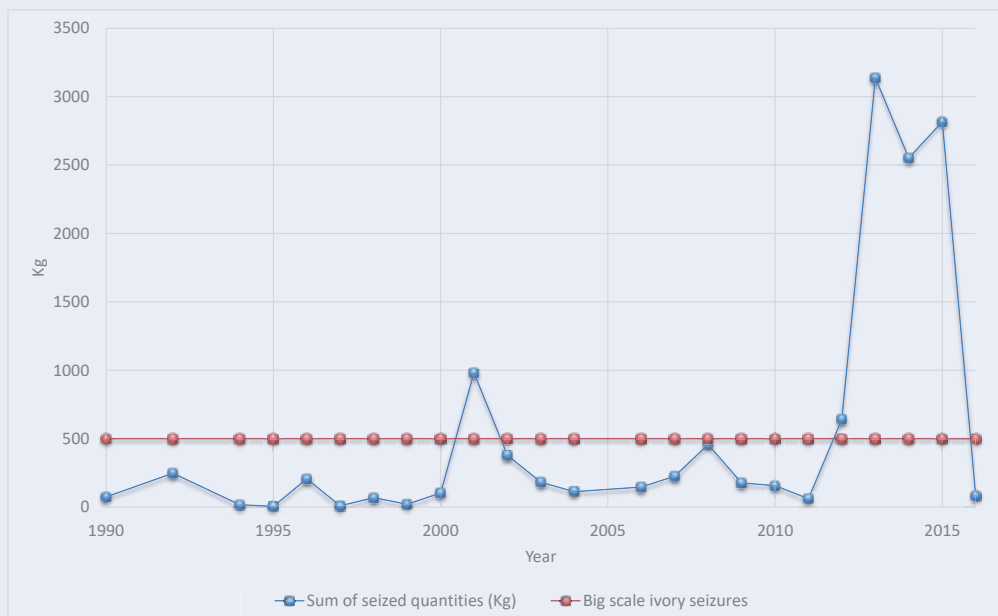
Kingpins are usually involved in and finance various types of criminal activities with no particular focus on wildlife crime. The poachers and the middlemen are usually recruited locally while the kingpins are often in the countries of destination. The money is provided to the middlemen through provisioning expensive items such as vehicles or high technology products. Local middlemen can finance the sourcing and/or transportation of the illegal products through the selling of the expensive products provided by the organization.

Regarding ivory trafficking in Uganda, the poaching chain most frequently starts from level three up to level four/five (level six is usually at the destination country), since poaching for sourcing ivory in Uganda is sporadic and the criminals that are usually caught and prosecuted in Uganda appear to play a role either as transporters (with Ugandan nationals mostly involved) or as middlemen and organizers of the shipment to destination countries (and in this case there is a prevalence of foreign nationals involved) (M. Kasumba and J.O. Emitchell, Law Enforcement Department, UWA, pers. comm., October 2016).

6.3.6 Seizures and prosecutions

The Wildlife Trade Seizure Database maintained by UWA reports all domestic seizures of live animals and wildlife products that were obtained illegally (i.e. in contravention of the provisions of the Wildlife Act). Ivory seizures were reported consistently throughout the period covered (1990–2016), with big scale ivory seizures (i.e. above 500 kg) reported in seven separate incidents from 2013 to March 2016, and in all cases but one the seizure took place at Entebbe international airport. An additional record of 1,478 kg of ivory from Uganda destined for Malaysia and disguised as fish maws was seized in Kenya in July 2013. Suspects arrested in Kenya were prosecuted. Those arrested in Uganda are awaiting trial before the Jinja Court.

Figure 25: Sum of seized quantities of ivory from 1990 to 2016

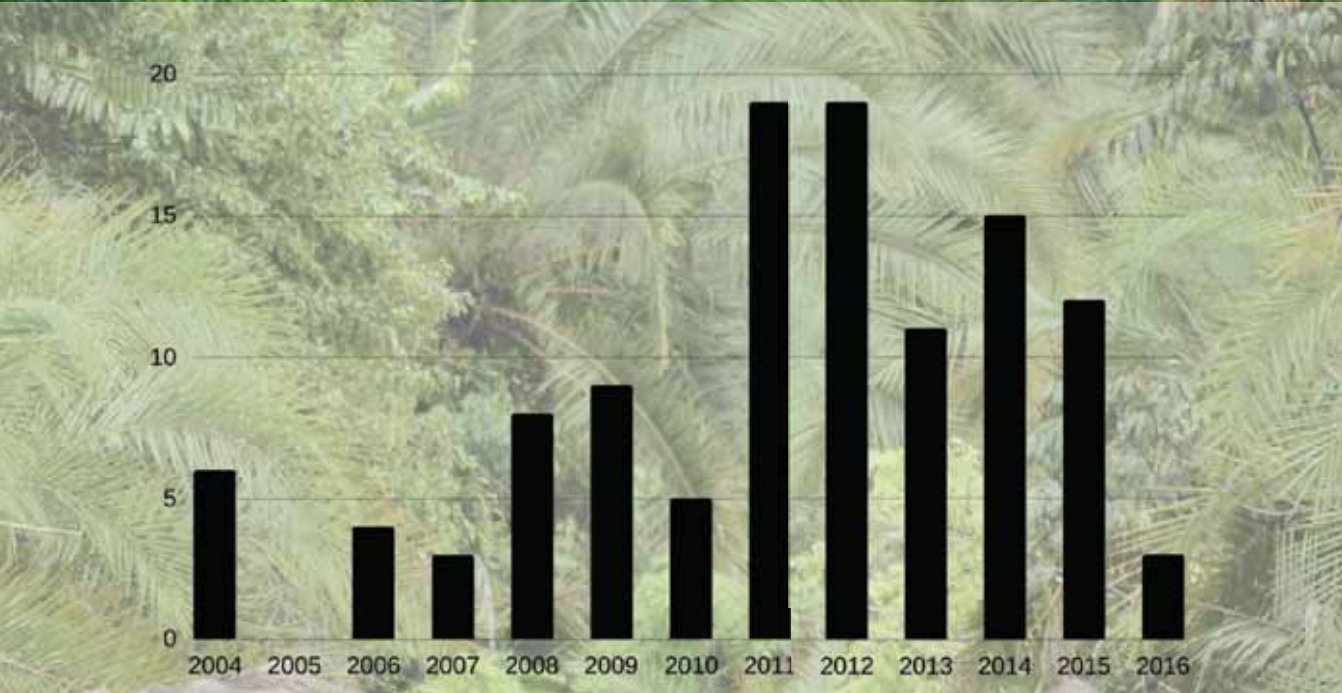


Source: Uganda Wildlife Authority Seizures Database 2016

The following graphs show seizures concerning other illegally obtained wildlife through the study period. Hippopotamus teeth and pangolin scales are the most seized items, followed by leopards, pythons, and rhinos. Certain years including 2005 and 2006 show an abundance of seizures in bushmeat species, especially as they concern antelope, with a minor incidence of warthog and wild pig. Seizure data, when referring to domestic seizures can provide a good approximation of the species that are most targeted by poachers nationally, and the product seized can help identify the drivers for poaching.

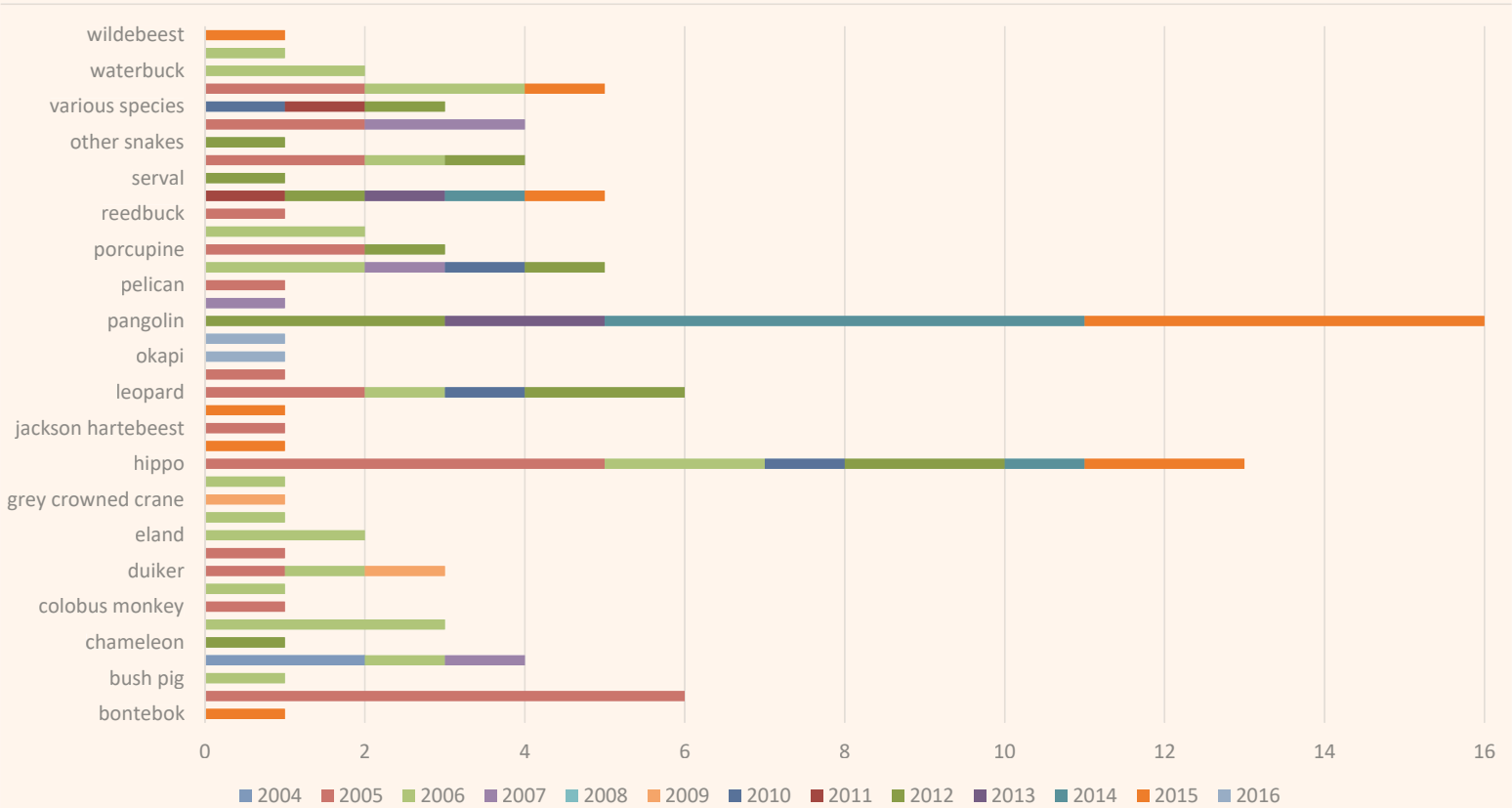
From the analysis of seizure data, it appears that antelopes, warthogs and wild pigs are mostly poached for meat and skins, while pangolins (relatively recently registered in the illegal market) are sought for their scales, hippopotamus for their teeth (for ivory carvings and ornamental products), Leopards and Lions for their skins, pythons, and crocodiles for their skins and trophies (crocodile), while other wildlife such as chameleons and birds are captured for the live trade (pet or traditional uses). For optimization of display elephant seizures have been omitted in the global seizures graph: the elephant products (mainly ivory) seizure incidents are shown separately.

Figure 26: Elephant seizure incidents 2004-2016



African Elephants *Loxodonta africana*

Figure 27: Seizures (No. of incidents) of wildlife products by species between 1996 and 2015



Source: Uganda Wildlife Authority Seizures Database 2016

The table below shows some recent seizures of (mostly) pangolin scales from Uganda with one seizure of live pangolins reported in 2016.



Tree Pangolin *Manis tricuspis*

Year	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Commodity Type	Quantity (kg or number)
2012	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Scales/Skins	129 kg scales 8 skins
2013	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Scales	183.5 kg
2014	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Scales	72.4 kg
2015	Ground/Giant/White/Black	Scales	2,213.9 kg
2016	Giant	Live	2

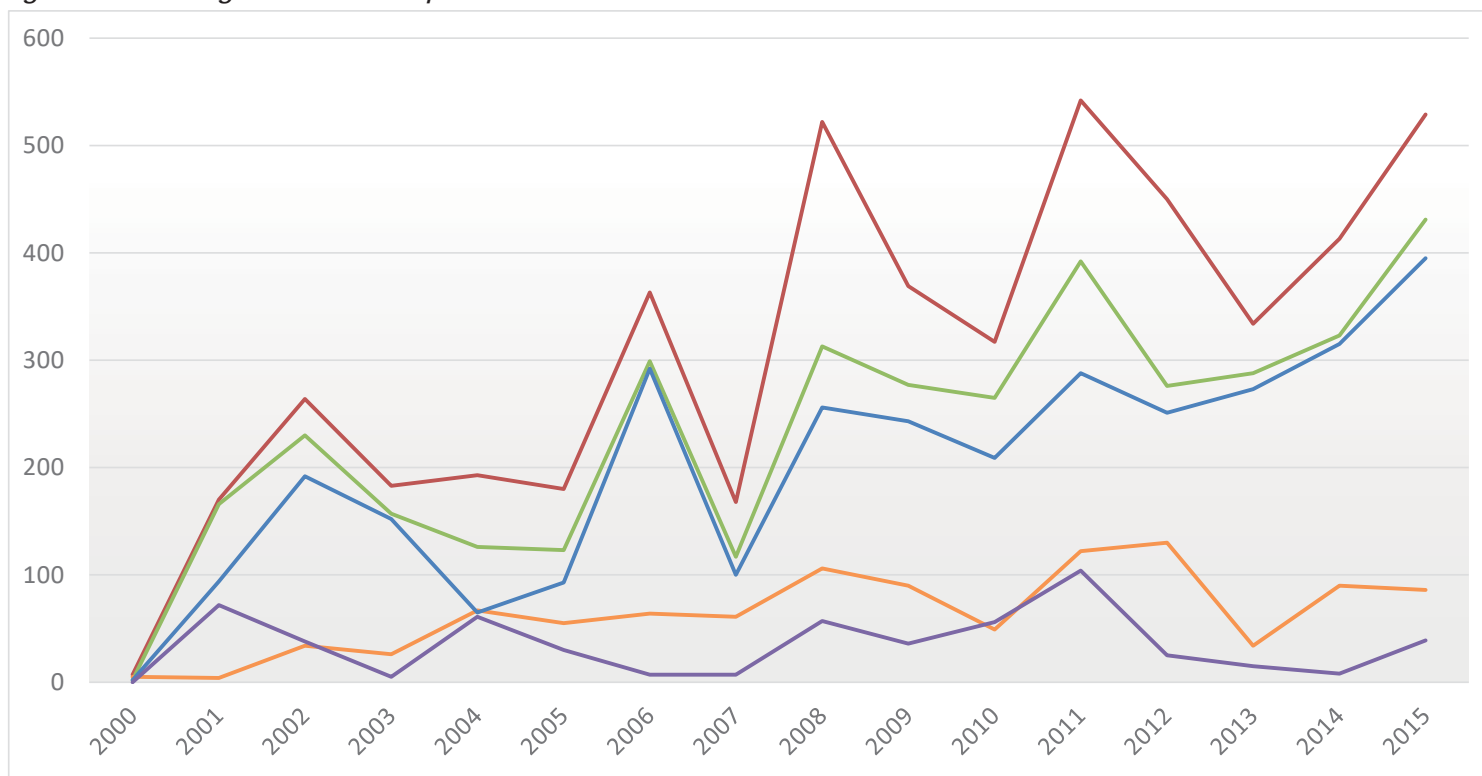


Mountain Gorilla *Gorilla beringei beringei*

Seizures of live gorillas were reported as one of the combined enforcement activities of the Greater Virunga Transboundary Collaboration. In 2004, two live Mountain Gorillas and seven Grauer Gorillas were confiscated; all of them alive and aged three-eight years with two of them confiscated while being smuggled from DRC to Rwanda (J. Byamukama, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).

Court cases related to poaching and their outcomes were reported and registered by UWA from 2000 to 2015 as shown in the following Figure 28. It is worth noting that the number of arrests and prosecutions has been fluctuating between 2005 and 2015, however, the number of arrests, prosecutions, and convictions has increased overall. This is likely to correspond to an increased capacity and efficiency in enforcement operations in recent years (C. Tumwesigye, Deputy Director Conservation, UWA, pers. comm., August 2016).

Figure 28: Poaching incidents inside protected areas and court cases outcomes for wildlife crime



Source: elaboration from C: Tumwesigye, UWA, in litt. Uganda Wildlife Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016

Prosecution of wildlife crime in Uganda is done by the Directorate of Public Prosecution (DPP). DPP is mandated, under the Ugandan Constitution, to:

- direct the police to investigate any information of a criminal nature;
- institute criminal proceedings against any person or authority in any court other than a court-martial;
- take over and continue any criminal proceedings instituted by any person or authority;
- discontinue at any stage before judgment any criminal proceedings.

The main instrument/tool used to address crime by DPP is the Penal Code Act. The Act, however, has very few provisions pertaining specifically to wildlife crimes, and the Wildlife Act has been identified as a more appropriate legislative tool. Nevertheless, one of the limits of the Wildlife Act is the weakness of sanctions and penalties. In general, when the case is particularly sensitive or of transnational importance, UWA can decide to bring it under the responsibility of DPP. Typically, it is UWA that decides where the case will be debated in court. However, this depends on many factors such as: the territory where the seizure or the crime was committed, the witnesses presented and their availability, the evidence collected, and the jurisdiction where the offense was committed. Some of the challenges identified in Uganda refer to the possibility of disappearance of critical exhibits, unavailability of witnesses, poor investigations, lack of knowledge in the field of wildlife crime, weak sanctions, and poor co-operation among stakeholders (D. Sayuni, DPP, pers. comm., October 2016).

A national database on cases prosecuted is maintained by UWA in co-operation with Natural Resources Conservation Network (NRCN), DPP receives copies of the database as quarterly reports. UWA has appointed some of its officers as prosecutors to work closely with DPP, for the successful follow-up of wildlife crimes and prosecution of cases, as a matter of fact, a successful prosecution depends on a good investigation, and the role of the prosecutor is to ensure that the investigation is carried out in such a way to avail robust evidence before the cases are tried in court (D. Sayuni, *in litt.* Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop, August 2016).



Seized Ivory in Thailand

6.3.7 Linkages to organized crime and armed groups

Organized crime can be identified as gangs of criminals operating systematically with a common purpose. Wildlife crime can be regarded as a subset of organized crime, operating through wildlife specific criminal syndicates with specific people dedicated to wildlife trafficking. The types of organized crimes are identified in the following: wildlife trafficking, drug trafficking and counterfeit goods, human trafficking, firearms/weapons trafficking, high-tech cybercrimes, and money laundering. The last two are often means to achieve the financial and economic resources to engage in the other types of trafficking, especially money laundering to sustain wildlife trafficking.

The presence of criminal organizations behind wildlife trafficking in Uganda is mainly associated with ivory trafficking, military and/or armed groups identified as possibly having a role in poaching for ivory; even if in most cases there is no hard evidence of such activities. Although limited evidence is available, there is information about seizures originating in Central African Republic, where LRA might be implicated. Al Shabaab was claimed to be involved in ivory trafficking although this has been largely discredited (Maguire, Haenlein, 2015). The Allied Democratic Forces at the border with DRC were also linked to ivory trafficking (M. Kasumba and J.O. Emitchell, Law Enforcement Department, UWA, pers. comm., October 2016). Al Shabaab has also been linked to charcoal trafficking to finance its activities, and, according to United Nations monitors, Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) are believed to play a role in facilitating the movement and smuggling of the illegal goods through the KDF-controlled Kismayu port (Kelley, 2014).

"The presence of criminal organizations behind wildlife trafficking in Uganda is mainly associated with ivory trafficking, military and/or armed groups identified as possibly having a role in poaching for ivory; even if in most cases there is no hard evidence of such activities."

Evidence of the LRA being implicated in poaching (for elephant ivory and possibly meat) does exist with specific reference to the period when the LRA was chased away from Uganda in 2006 and moved into DRC. Episodes of elephant poaching were reported there from this criminal organization, to finance their activities. Now the LRA is mainly operating in CAR so there could be poaching for financing the crimes there as well. However, it is difficult to link specific ivory or other wildlife seizures to the activities of the armed groups in terms of evidence (J. S. Otim, Commissioner - Interpol - Environmental Crimes, pers. comm., October 2016).

Nationally, the presence of a very powerful trans-national criminal syndicate is suspected, where foreign nationals are involved in collecting ivory and other high-value wildlife products, organizing their transnational and internal transportation and storage at urban hubs (mainly Kampala), and coordinating the delivery via air to the final destinations (M. Kasumba, J.O. Emitchell, Law Enforcement Department – UWA, and A. Ahabwe, Head of Investigations – NRCN, pers. comm., October 2016).

Trafficking Source, Transit & Destination Countries



Destination Countries



Source & Transit Countries



Transit Countries/Regions



6.3.8 Key trafficking routes and destination countries

Main trafficking routes for ivory and rhino horns were identified and discussed in a number of reports and literature records, such as Milliken *et al.* 2012, Milliken, 2014, Weru, 2015, Msuha *et al.* 2016.

Concerning Uganda, the UNODC Wildlife Crime Report 2016, has identified that it plays a role as a transit country for ivory going to both Kenya and then to Malaysia as a transit port for other east Asian destinations. Large volumes of ivory (> 500 kg) that have been seized by Uganda identify the country (together with Sudan possibly) as being a major transit hub where ivory is flowing in from the central and East Africa region (Anon. 2016j).

There is evidence of terrestrial smuggling routes for ivory in Tanzania and Kenya. As a consequence of improved control and enforcement at airports in these countries, some might try to transport ivory via road to Uganda, where additional organization and networking takes place for shipments to exit from Entebbe. Some of the flight companies that have been used by criminal networks to ship ivory via air cargo include: Emirates Airline, Etihad Airways, Qatar Airways, Kenyan Airways, and Ethiopian Airlines. Usually when smuggling ivory, the direct destinations are avoided and sometimes Entebbe is used as a transit; because of a lower control of transit shipments. In east and southeast Asia the main destination countries are mainland China for ivory and Viet Nam and mainland China for rhino horns; using Hong Kong SAR and Malaysia as transit hubs (M. Kasumba and J.O. Emitchell, Law Enforcement Department, UWA, pers. comm., October 2016); seizures at both destination and transit ports indicate that the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, and other Middle Eastern countries are emerging as transit countries for ivory (J. S. Otim, Commissioner - Interpol - Environmental Crimes, pers. comm., October 2016).

Information from Milliken 2014, has shown that from 2000 up to 2014 there has been a substantial shift of the ivory trade routes, where from 2000 until 2008 ivory flows were originating from central and western African countries mainly to Japan by using Europe as a transit point, probably as a consequence of the lack of direct flights at the time. There was a dramatic shift in trafficking routes between 2009 and 2011 with East Africa becoming a primary source for illegal wildlife exports to China and Thailand via Malaysia. The most recent examined period (2011–2013), shows that Tanzania and Kenya, in particular, are playing a major role as transit countries in East Africa with Malaysia playing a leading transit role for southeast Asia, while Middle Eastern countries are emerging as new transit routes with China remaining as the main final destination.

Concerning the trade in rhino horns, the major implicated countries (in terms of origin, export, transit or destination) have been identified as South Africa, Mozambique, China and Viet Nam (CITES CoP17 Doc. 68, Annex 5), where Mozambique appears to play a prominent role as a transiting country. South Africa ranks first in terms of seizures made and implication



Destination Countries



Source & Transit Countries



Pangolin

Destination Countries



Source & Transit Countries



in seizures made elsewhere, analysis shows that only a minor percentage of seized horns were actually originating from South Africa, while for the majority of the seizures the origin is lost (Anon. 2016j).

Another important trafficking route identified in Uganda refers to pangolin products, where Uganda, together with other African countries, accounted for about 20% of all seizures globally; most of the seizures in pangolin products were destined to China or Viet Nam (Anon. 2016j).

Figure 29a: Ivory flows in East Africa as they appear from seizures in Uganda

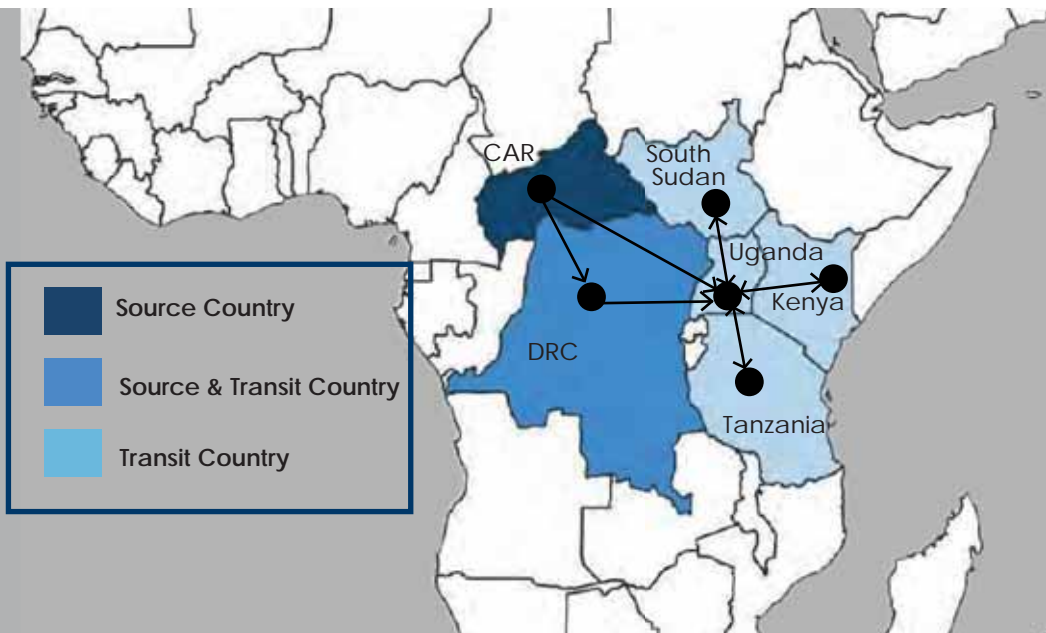
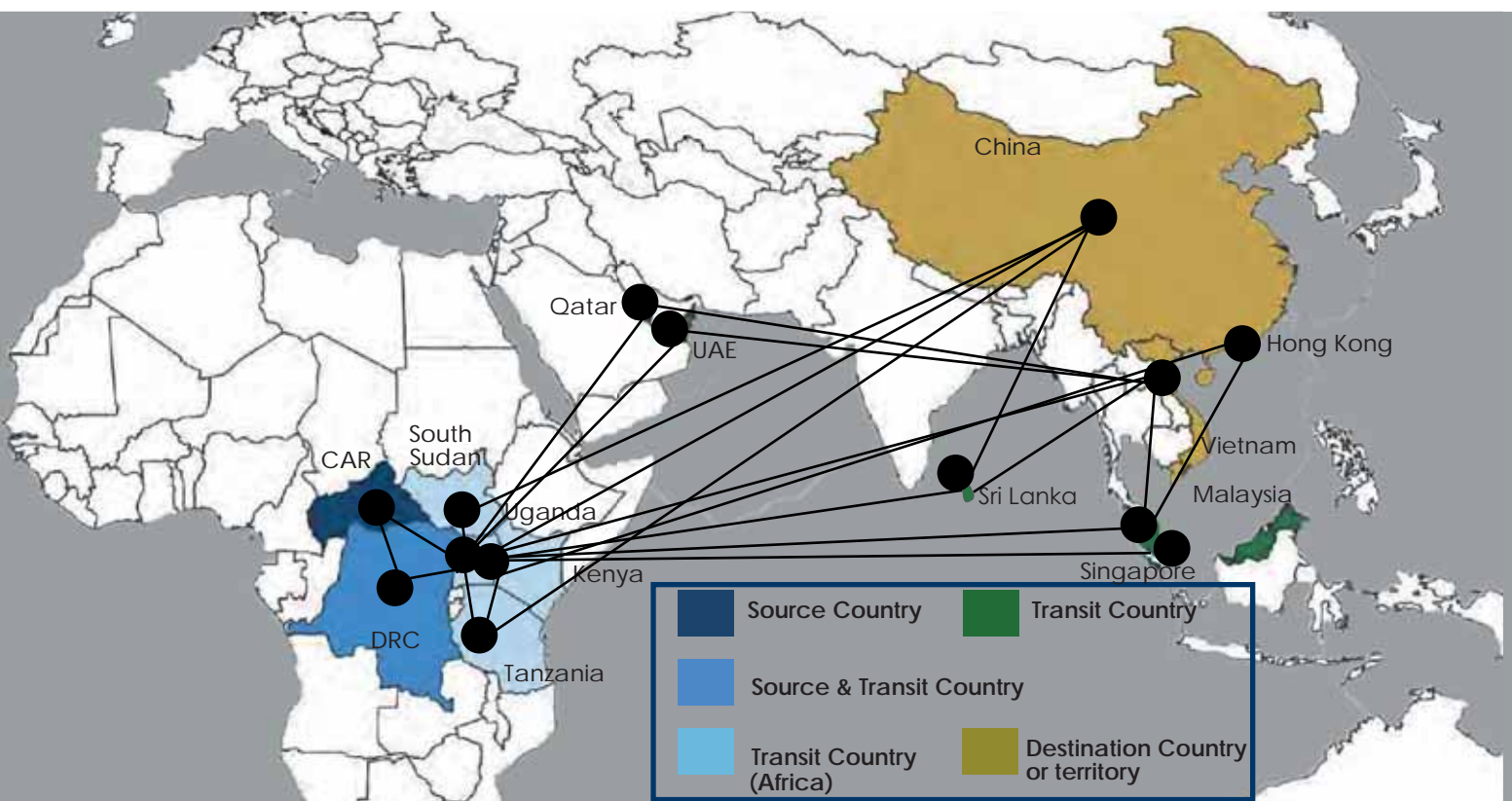


Figure 29b: Destination and transit countries for ivory flows in East Africa as they appear from seizures in Uganda



CONCLUSIONS

Lake Victoria, Uganda



7. CONCLUSIONS

Uganda's natural resources and wildlife are threatened by a growing population, deforestation and encroachment into protected areas, where the main resources sought are land for agriculture, firewood, and bushmeat (Anon., 2012a). Harvesting of wildlife and poaching are reported mainly for bushmeat, due to human-wildlife conflict, and for traditional uses. Many mammal species (impala, zebra, waterbuck, bush pigs, buffaloes, warthogs, oribi, topi, and hippopotamus) are found outside protected areas on private land or rangelands and the policies and legislation for management of terrestrial biodiversity outside protected areas are considered inadequate (Anon. 2012a). In consideration of this, particular attention should be devoted to the facilitation and development of interventions to conserve/protect species outside PAs, possibly in the community context.

As poverty, and in some circumstances the presence of refugee settlements, have been identified as one of the drivers for subsistence poaching (Harrison *et al.* 2015), special focus should be given to the development of poverty alleviation policies and programmes, with a view to developing and establishing alternative income source activities at community level, and to awareness raising initiatives.

The species sourced from the country for the international illegal trade are pangolins, elephants in very limited numbers, and some chameleon and other reptile species that could enter the illegal market taking advantage of a parallel legal trade channel.

The major concerns for Uganda are the evidence of a strong role as transit hub for wildlife trafficking (mainly ivory) from western and central Africa or from Kenya and Tanzania to be shipped from Entebbe airport, relying on the weaker controls usually devoted to transiting shipments (M. Kasumba and J.O. Emitchell, Law Enforcement Department, UWA, pers. comm., October 2016). A recent strengthening of enforcement controls and a greater institutional commitment, made the detection of such a kind of traffic possible, as shown by the increase in the large-scale ivory seizures between 2013 and 2016. The illegal transit of wildlife is facilitated by a number of factors among which include: an intrinsic weakness of the current legislation in force, the presence of powerful and highly organized criminal networks with national and transnational hubs, loopholes of law enforcement in the trade chain, corruption, weak capacity, and a growing demand from east and southeast Asian markets. The interventions and recommendations identified in this report, originate from the stakeholders' discussion during the Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop and from the follow-up consultations, which have refined the main issues to provide the most appropriate actions/recommendations.



Grey Crowned-crane
Balearica regulorum

The principal need within the country is the structuring of a nationally co-ordinated system of institutions, organizations, agencies and various concerned stakeholders that would take action to:

- Strengthen the control, and increase the capacity for identification of species and specimens.
- Finance and establish the use of modern tools and technologies for identification, detection of smuggled items and safe storage of collected evidence.
- Review current legislation and make sure that new, stricter provisions are promulgated and enforced.
- Data harmonization and sharing among national institutions.
- Establish relevant co-operation and involvement mechanisms to partner with local communities and ensure that they share the benefits of wildlife conservation, and play an active role in local management initiatives.
- Promote wildlife conservation through organizing targeted educational and awareness programmes for sector operators, high-level political leaders, and the general public.
- Promote transboundary co-operation, through the establishment, for example, of MoUs and other types of agreements to strengthen information sharing and the co-ordinated organization of anti-poaching/anti-trafficking actions and operations.

In addition to the above, a need for strengthening the national knowledge about the status of species in trade emerges also as a priority from the analysis of trade data. A review of the currently available knowledge concerning the status of (CITES-listed and non CITES-listed) species that are mostly traded is considered particularly necessary, taking into account that the current conservation status of any (CITES) but even non-CITES export has to verify the sustainability of the trade and the potential impacts that such trade has on the population. The policies for the management of species outside protected areas need to be strengthened and improved and a number of measures put in place to address poverty-related poaching and human-wildlife conflict.



Johnston's Three-Horned Chameleon skin
Trioceros johnstoni

RECOMMENDATIONS

Forty recommendations or priority actions resulted from the Stakeholder Workshop. They were grouped into nine main focal areas and focus on different aspects of law enforcement, ivory stock management, information management, partnering with local communities, education and awareness, and transboundary co-operation. Each priority action was combined with key partners and institutions that could provide assistance or be responsible for action implementation.



Priority Actions

Focal Area 1: Law enforcement and national-level co-ordination

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Develop a strategy to combat poaching and wildlife trafficking	EU, USAID, UNODC, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE TRAFFIC	MTWA, UWA
Establish a multi-agency national task force with sufficient resources and mandate	EU, USAID, UNODC, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, GVTC, NRCN	UWA, URA, CAA, UPF/INTERPOL, DPP, Judiciary, FIA
Enhance co-ordination across agencies and organizations in fighting poaching and wildlife trafficking (i.e. implement co-ordinated multi-agency approach and strategic partnership), building on URA's performance-based reporting model with other agencies and neighbouring countries.	URA	MTWA, UWA, DPP, URA, UPF/INTERPOL, FIA
Set up information sharing and exchange mechanisms across national law enforcement agencies (i.e clearing house mechanisms)	EU, USAID, UNODC, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, CAA, UPF/INTERPOL, FIA
Implement a multi-stakeholder approach that includes the private sector and local communities as well as government agencies	TRAFFIC, AIMM Green, AUTO, UEPB, UWEC	UWA, Tourism and Transport Associations, Oil Companies, CBAs



Priority Actions

Focal Area 2: Law enforcement: capacity building, awareness raising, data dissemination

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Build internal capacity across relevant law enforcement agencies, such as strengthening UWA capacity in the intelligence section, canine section, improving detection capacity on poaching and wildlife trafficking, strengthening wildlife crime investigations capacity	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE TRAFFIC, NRCN, UNODC, INTERPOL	UWA, UPF, URA, CAA, FIA
Strengthen capacity for wildlife crime investigations and crime scene/evidence management	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, NRCN, TRACE, UNODC, INTERPOL	UWA, Judiciary, DPP, UPF, CAA
Strengthen/improve capacity for prosecution, litigation and judiciary	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, ACCU, TRAFFIC, NRCN,	DPP, Judiciary, FIA
Raise capacity of key stakeholders (local communities, law enforcement officers, key government agencies) to identify key species in trade	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, TRAFFIC, WCS, Makerere University, AWF, JGI	UWA, UPF, URA, CAA, CBAs
Identify and mandate nationally-recognized experts in particular taxa who can serve as resources for different agencies	Makerere University, WCS, NU, JGI, AWF, WWF UCO, IUCN UCO	UWA, UPF, URA, CAA, Judiciary, DPP
Document and disseminate information on the species in legal and illegal trade for all concerned stakeholders (local communities, law enforcement officers, key government agencies)	EU, USAID, WB, UKAID TRAFFIC, UWA, NRCN, WCS, GVTC, AWF	Tourist and Transport Associations, Private companies (i.e. logistics/freight forwarders), UPF, Judiciary, DPP, URA, CBAs



Priority Actions

Focal Area 3: Law enforcement: methods and tools

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Adopt the use of modern technology for combating poaching and wildlife trafficking	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, TRACE, WCS	UWA, UPF/INTERPOL, CAA, URA, FIA
Deploy detection dogs at airport permanently	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, NRCN, SFG, UNODC	DPP, Judiciary, UWA, FIA
Enable and support wildlife crime courts and specialized wildlife crime prosecutors	UNODC, LWOB	DPP, Judiciary, FIA
Secure adequate funding to support and expand incentive-based intelligence networks (i.e. incentives and contributions for intelligence information systems)	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, UNODC, LWOB, NWC, NRCN	MTWA, UWA, URA, UPF, INTERPOL, CAA, FIA
Establish a fully-fledged investigation section at UWA	Intelligence Agencies of donor countries, UNODC TRAFFIC, NRCN	UWA
Establish a forensic lab at UWA (depending on funding and further evaluation) and establish collaborative agreements with existing forensic labs in the region (i.e. Kenya)	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, TRACE, NFI, SWFS	UWA
Use modern information technology in investigations	TRAFFIC, NRCN	UWA, UPF, CAA, URA, FIA



Priority Actions

Focal Area 4: Law enforcement: Policy/Legislation

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Undertake necessary legislative and policy reforms to ensure that sentences serve as deterrents and to remove loopholes	TRAFFIC, LWOB, NRCN	MTWA, UWA, DPP, Judiciary, FIA
Develop or strengthen standard prosecutors and sentencing guidelines for judges/magistrates in wildlife crime	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, NRCN, SFG, UNODC	DPP, Judiciary, UWA, FIA
Disseminate all relevant laws and policies concerning wildlife to all stakeholders	TRAFFIC, UWA	UPF, CAA, FIA, URA, DPP, Judiciary

Focal Area 5: Ivory stock management

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Improve ivory stock management and security, including exploring the possibility of a central, secure ivory stockpile, in consultation with all relevant agencies	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UPF/INTERPOL
Explore ways to improve the handling of exhibits in court cases in order to reduce the security burden of managing high-value exhibits	TRAFFIC, TRACE, LWOB, UNODC, NRCN	DPP, Judiciary, UWA, URA, UPF/INTERPOL, FIA
Develop standard operating procedures for handling exhibits	TRAFFIC, TRACE, LWOB, UNODC, NRCN	DPP, UWA, URA, FIA



Priority Actions

Focal Area 6: Wildlife trade and seizures information management

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
<p>Ensure harmonization and cross-referencing across different databases (seizures and illegal trade, legal trade, CITES database, court cases, financial investigation files kept by UWA, URA, UPF, FIA, UBOS, DPP) so that data is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • consistent with Uganda’s international reporting requirements • available to a wide range of stakeholders 	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UPF, FIA, Uganda Bureau of Statistics, DPP
Explore the possibility of a central data clearing-house to ensure that relevant data is available to all stakeholders	EU, USAID, UNODC, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA
Broaden data collection protocols for wildlife exports in order to record a greater level of detail on wildlife trade recorded through Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS)	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA
Undertake an analysis of data sources, information available, and gaps in information needs and use.	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA
Establish a mechanism for sharing, dissemination and feedback of data and information from identified stakeholders	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA
Minimize the number of data returns – rationalize information collection and distribution, including paths of data flow	TRAFFIC, UNODC	MTWA, UWA, URA, UBOS, DPP, Judiciary, UBOS, FIA, UPF, CAA



Priority Actions

Focal Area 7: Partnering with local communities

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Identify and implement incentive mechanisms (besides the current or in addition to the current benefit sharing) to enhance engagement of local communities in anti-poaching and combating of wildlife trafficking	TRAFFIC, AIMM Green, IUCN, WWF, WCS, AWF, SULi	UWA, CPIs from main PAs, Local Governments, CBAs
Address human-wildlife conflict interventions	TRAFFIC, AIMM GREEN, IUCN, WWF, WCS, AWF	UWA, CPIs from main PAs, Local Governments, CBAs
Ensure clarity of messages at the local community level regarding legal vs. illegal harvesting	TRAFFIC, IUCN, AIMM Green, SULi	Local Governments, CBAs

Focal Area 8: Education and awareness

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Undertake targeted awareness programmes about poaching and wildlife trafficking for Judiciary, police, URA, Customs & immigration (and any other relevant law enforcement agency)	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, USFWS/OLE, TRAFFIC, SFG, WWF, AWF, WCS, NRCN, UNODC	UWA, UPF, CAA, URA, DPP, Judiciary
Raise political awareness of poaching and wildlife trafficking, particularly at parliamentary and cabinet level	ICCF, ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID, TRAFFIC,	Prime Minister Office, MTWA, UWA
Raise public awareness of the cultural and economic importance of Uganda's wildlife and the impact of wildlife crime on this natural capital	ACBF, EU, USAID, WB, UKAID TRAFFIC, WWF, AWF, WCS, JGI	Public, media, press offices of main Ministries



Priority Actions

Focal Area 9: Transboundary co-operation

Priority Action	Supporting Partners	Target Institution
Harmonize legislation (particularly penalties) and policies across borders	ICCF, TRAFFIC, LATF, GVTC, NRCN	MTWA, UWA, DPP, Judiciary, Transboundary organizations/bodies
Integrate national-level priority actions into the implementation plan of the African Union’s African Strategy on Combating Illegal Exploitation and Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora in Africa	TRAFFIC, Permanent Representatives Committee of the AU, LATF, GVTC, NRCN	MTWA, UWA, DPP
Explore mechanisms for enhanced co-ordination through the structures, mechanisms, policies and strategies of the East African Community and the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD)	TRAFFIC, EAC Secretariat, IGAD Secretariat	MTWA, UWA
Identify and implement best practices from Kenya, Tanzania and South Africa	TRAFFIC, Kenya, Tanzania and South Africa Wildlife Authorities	MTWA, UWA, DPP, Judiciary, Transboundary organizations/bodies

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Annex II – Agenda of the Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop



Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Stakeholder Workshop

Protea Hotel, Kampala Uganda

August 8th and 9th, 2016

Agenda

Monday August 8 th 2016	
8:00 – 8:30	Registration of Participants TRAFFIC
Session 1: Opening Remarks and Context Setting	
8:30 – 9:30	Welcoming Remarks & Workshop Overview Facilitator Mr. Karl Edison Karugaba
	Opening remarks TRAFFIC East Africa Head of Office Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA) Executive Director United States of America Ambassador Minister of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities
9:30 – 9:45	Morning Coffee Break – Head Table Departs Group Photograph
9:45 – 10:00	Workshop Objectives Facilitator
Session 2: Presentations and Panel Discussion on Status of Key Species in Uganda	
Session Objective: Provide an overview of the status of key species in Uganda that are currently being impacted by illegal trade	
10:00 – 11:30	Status of Species in Trade in Uganda Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA): <i>Overview of main taxa in trade</i> TRAFFIC East Africa: <i>Global Pangolin trade, implications on African Pangolin species</i> BirdLife: <i>Incidental impacts of poaching on bird species, especially vultures</i>



		Nature Uganda: <i>Bird species affected by trade</i> Greater Virunga Transboundary Collaboration (GVTC): <i>Closing Porous borders to (primate) trafficking through transboundary collaboration, case of GVTC</i>
11:30 – 12:00	Panel- Questions and Answers Session	
12:00 – 12:30	Identify & Set Priority Actions	
12:30 – 1:30	Lunch	
Session 3: Presentations & Panel Discussion on Poaching and Trafficking		
Session Objective: To provide an overview of the poaching and trafficking trends in Uganda		
1:30 – 2:45	The Extent of Poaching and wildlife trafficking in Uganda and beyond (i.e. Central and East Africa)	Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA) Natural Resources Conservation Network (NRCN)
	Trafficking Routes and structure of trafficking networks in Uganda and regionally-	TRAFFIC International
	Regional Law Enforcement Efforts and Data Sharing	Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA): <i>Lusaka Agreement Task Force Activities</i>
2:45 – 3:15	Panel- Question & Answers Session	
3:15 – 3:30	Identify & Set Priority Actions	
3:30 – 4:00	Afternoon Tea Break	
Session 4: Plenary Discussion and Day 1 Wrap Up		
4:00 – 4:45	Summary Priority Actions from Day One	TRAFFIC/Facilitator
End of Day 1		
Tuesday August 9th 2016		
Session 5: Panel Discussion and Presentations on Port and Airport Interventions, Trade data, Travel and Tourism Engagement		



Session Objective: Provide an overview of interventions to secure Uganda's ports and airports, the storage and dissemination of trade data and the role of tourism operators		
8:30 – 9:45	Securing Uganda's Ports and Airports- The Container Control Programme	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)
	Securing Uganda's land borders from transit trade	Uganda Revenue Authority (URA): <i>URA's Commitment to Fighting Illicit Trade in Wildlife</i>
	The collection, management and dissemination of external trade data	Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS)
	Impacts of Illegal Trade on Travel and Tourism	Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA): <i>Tourism data, its linkages with wildlife trade and views from Protected Areas managers</i> Association of Uganda Tourism Operators (AUTO): <i>AUTO Perspective about the impacts of wildlife trafficking on tourism and the importance of awareness raising activities</i>
9:45 – 10:15	Panel- Question and Answer Session	
10:15 – 10:30	Identify & Set Priority Actions	
10:30 – 10:45	Morning Coffee Break	
Session 6: Panel Discussion & Presentations on Wildlife Policy and Law Enforcement		
Session Objective: Review the policies and law enforcement efforts to combat the illegal trade in Uganda		
10:45 – 12:00	Efficacy of Uganda's Wildlife Law and Policy in Securing Uganda Wildlife	Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities
	Prosecuting Wildlife Crime in Uganda	Directorate of Public Prosecutions (DPP)
	Financial investigation, sanctions and recovering proceeds in Uganda	Financial Intelligence Authority (FIA): <i>Role of Financial Intelligence Authority in the Fight against Money Laundering and Terrorist Financing Crimes</i>
	Investigation of Wildlife Crime	Natural Resources Conservation Network (NRCN) Uganda Wildlife Education Centre (UWEC): <i>Target species recovered by UWEC and seized at Entebbe International Airport</i>



	Judicial Challenges in Prosecuting Wildlife Crime: the recently established Environmental Court	Chief Magistrate Environmental Court: <i>The role of the Judiciary in combating wildlife crime. The new Magistrate's Court (Standards, Utilities and Wildlife Division)</i>
12:00 – 12:20	Panel - Question and Answer Session	
12:20 – 12:45	Identify & Set Priority Actions	
12:45 – 1:45	Lunch	
Session 7: Establishing a Wildlife Trade Co-ordination Forum		
Session Objective: To Map out existing and future initiatives, and establish a donor/partner co-ordination forum for illegal wildlife trade		
1:45 – 2:30	The Role of Development Partners in Securing Uganda's Wildlife, Mapping out Current and Future Initiatives	Brief remarks from: <i>Embassy of The Netherlands</i> <i>British High Commission</i> <i>Delegation of the European Union to Uganda</i>
2:30 – 2:45	Structuring an Illegal Wildlife Trade Co-ordination Forum	Facilitator/Plenary
2:45- 3:00	Afternoon Tea Break	
Session 8: Identifying Priority Actions and Day 2 Wrap Up		
3:00 – 3:45	Identifying Priority Actions from Sessions and Panel Discussions	Group Work
3:45- 4:15	Summary Priority Actions Day 1 and Day 2	Facilitator/TRAFFIC
4:15 – 5:00	Next Steps and Close of Workshop	UWA/TRAFFIC/USAID
End of Day 2 and Workshop		



Fort Portal, Uganda

TRAFFIC, the wildlife trade monitoring network, is a leading non-governmental organisation working globally on trade in wild animals and plants in the context of both biodiversity conservation and sustainable development.

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