

WILDLIFE TRADE MONITORING UNIT

TRAFFIC BULLETIN

Publication of the TRAFFIC Bulletin is funded by THE PEOPLE'S TRUST FOR ENDANGERED SPECIES

Included with this issue is a separate 13 page report by Tim Inskipp -

Indian Trade in Reptile Skins

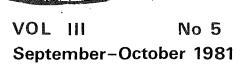
We hope to be able to produce similar reports in the future which will be sent out as special supplements to the Bulletin.

IN THIS ISSUE: -

Japanese Trade in Himalayan Musk, p. 48-9 by Tom Milliken

The Coral Trade in the Philippines, p. 50-1 by Sue Wells

More Parties for CITES Fine for Cactus Importer	52
Appendix I species at Cactus Fair	
Kenyan Primate Export Ban	
Pakistan Export Ban and 1979-80 Exports	52 -3
Senegal Wildlife Trade - 1979/80	53
U.S. Cayman Farm Ban to Stay	54
Turtle Farming in Réunion	
Massive Illegal Market for U.S. Wildife	55
More U.K. Wildife Seizures	
Bird Trade Bans	
South Africa Bans Imports of Primates	
Central African Republic and Elephant	
Hunting	
Facts about U.S. Fur Exports	56
New Wildlife Port for Texas	
Indonesian Seizure of Illegal Skins	
Singapore and the Aquarium Fish Trade	57
News from Switzerland	58



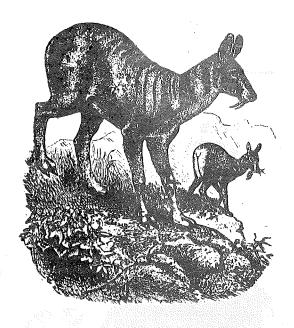
Editors: Clare McCormack and WTMU

Publication of TRAFFIC is funded by the Peoples Trust for Endangered Species, 19 Quarry St., Guildford, Surrey, U.K.

Any opinions expressed in this Bulletin are those of the writers and do not necessarily reflect those of IUCN or any other organization connected with WTMU. Information may be quoted freely, but an acknowledgement to WTMU/IUCN should be made where appropriate.

The Japanese Trade in Himalayan Musk

by Tom Milliken - TRAFFIC (JAPAN)



When Japan ratified CITES in August 1980 the rlimalayan population of the musk deer Moschus moschiferus was included among the nine reservation species. (Since the February 1981 CITES meeting, Japan has added the sei whale Balaenoptera borealis and the sperm whale Physeter catodon to its reservation list making a total of eleven Appendix I species.) The inclusion of the Himalayan musk deer is surprising because most of the musk in trade originates from fully protected populations of the species involved. Pakistan, India, Nepal and Bhutan have all banned the exportation of musk. The Japanese trade can only flourish through a network of illegal poaching, smuggling and official corruption.

According to M.J.B. Green (Himalayan Musk Deer WWF Project No.1328) the once widespread Himalayan animal today has been exterminated from three-quarters of its former range in India, occurs only in scattered isolated pockets in Nepal, and is under heavy poaching pressure in Bhutan, and presumably Tibet. (Unofficial sources confirm that a recent glut of Tibetan musk on the Katmandu black market forced prices down, which indicates that the musk

deer is being widely persecuted there as well.)

Accurate population data is unavailable, but the Himalayan musk deer has been listed as 'vulnerable' in the Red Data Book since 1974, and has been on Appendix I of CITES since its inception. India gave the species complete protection under the Wildlife Protection Act of 1972, and Nepal followed suit the following year banning all exports of musk under the National Parks and Wildlife Conservation Act at a time when musk was the number two foreign exchange earner.

The Himalayan musk deer is persecuted for its musk gland found anterior to the anus in mature males. Known as a 'pod', Green estimates the average weight to be about 22 grams. Musk has enjoyed international popularity in the cosmetics industry for its fixative and scent properties, and in the traditional medicine systems of Asia as both a stimulant and sedative in various medicinal compounds. As musk prices have soared to astronomical heights over the last decade, synthetic musks that are chemically indistinguishable from the natural substance, are now

widely used in the perfumery and cosmetics industries. Traditional medicines, in contrast, still rely on the 'real thing' and the exploitation of the species today is primarily to meet that demand. In Japan, this is also the case.

Despite the various international and national prohibitions governing the trade in musk, the Japanese trade has remained virtually unaffected, and indeed, in recent years has climbed to new peak levels. The year India banned exports, 178 kilos of musk were shipped to Japan. In 1973, 81 kilos of musk from India are recorded in the Boeki Geppo, the official Japanese government journal of international import and export statistics. By 1975, however, the Indian ban had apparently stopped the trade and no further musk imports from that country are recorded.

The situation in Nepal is in marked contrast. Nepal has remained Japan's primary supplier of musk despite the ban, and even today, Kathmandu serves as the black market distribution centre for musk illegally derived from animals both inside and outside Nepalese borders. Recent developments indicate that Nepalese poaching squads are currently operating in neighbouring Sikkim and Bhutan as the Himalayan musk deer has been largely exterminated throughout Nepal even in the so-called protected National Park areas of Langtang and Mount Everest. Tibetan musk finds an outlet in Kathmandu as well.

The year following Nepal's ban 174 kilos of musk were imported from there to Japan, a figure almost 30 kilos more than the pre-ban 1972 level. The level of imports climbed considerably through 1976 and 1977, and in 1978 reached an all-time record of 232 kilos. 1979 and 1980 figures, though less, are nonetheless correspondingly high indicating that the Japanese have purchased virtually all stocks available in an apparent stockpiling of the commodity.

JAPANESE IMPORTS (showing year, exporting country, and weight in kilos):

	NEPAL	INDIA	HONG KONG
1972	146 kg	178 kg	23 kg
1973	174	81	Ž 2
1974	100	16	ц
1975	99		6
1976	179		. 9
1977	193		4
1978	232		3
1979	196		46
1980	156		40
4/81	17		15
TOTAL	1492 kg	275 kg	172 kg

Source: Nihon Boeki Geppo

Nepal is at a loss to stop the trade. An official in the National Parks and Wildlife Conservaton Department expressed it this way: "How can we stop the illegal trade in musk when we cannot even control the smuggling of gold, silver, drugs or commodities?" The Japanese trade now operating with the legal sanction of a CITES reservation continues to undermine all conservation measures implemented to date. From an economic standpoint, poaching requires the least capital investment and thus yields the highest profits in the short term. The economics of extinction are being played out with well-financed and organized poaching and smuggling operations which easily elude law enforcement capabilities in the region.

Hong Kong also emerges as another component in the illegal musk trade. After India effectively controlled musk exports, the Indian trade that remained was largely transplanted to Kathmandu, or in more recent years, to

Hong Kong. Between 1974 and 1978 Japanese trade data indicates that an average of 5 kilos of musk a year was annually imported from Hong Kong. Suddenly in 1979, the figure dramatically shot up to 46 kilos and in 1980 the figure was 40 kilos. It is highly likely that these figures represent Himalayan musk rather than that derived from the northern Asian populations. China, which has been successfully ranching musk deer for about 20 years, is also an exporter to Japan. There seems to be little need for China to use middlemen in Hong Kong in order to distribute the commodity as exporting channels to Japan have been functioning for years. Also, it has been ascertained that Nepalese musk is normally shipped through Hong Kong to Japan. Furthermore, an additional 10 kilos of musk of Nepalese origin finds its way to France annually via the Hong Kong connection.

Green estimates that present snaring and trapping nethods indiscriminately kill four deer for every animal that yields the prized musk pod. It takes about 40 pods to make a kilo, but probably 160 animals are killed in the process. The 1978 Japanese trade figure alone possibly represents more than 37,000 deer, and it seems that within the last decade close to 300,000 animals have fallen to the illegal trade. This is an extremely alarming rate of exploitation and the Himalyan populations could be rendered 'commercially extinct' in the very near future. The animal is also suffering from the effects of deforestation, habitat destruction, and human population increases which throughout the Himalayan region are increasing at a faster rate than in other areas of South Asia.

In Japan, musk is used in over 2000 medicines by some 200 companies according to the Ministry of Health and Welfare. Musk is primarily used as a heart stimulant in a nedicine known as kyushin. Half of the musk imported nto Japan is by the Kyushin company and the other half is livided among a number of smaller companies. According to Esmond Bradley Martin in his report "The Japanese and Korean Trade in Rhinoceros Horn", musk also enjoys copularity as an aphrodisiac. Also, to a very limited extent musk is used in acupuncture where it is rubbed onto needles before insertion into the skin.

Musk is distributed to the Japanese consumer as an angredient in patented medicines, as well as through over-the-counter sales at the hundreds of kanpoyaku - Chinese medicine shops that are found in virtually every city, town, and village in Japan. Prices for the substance are fantastic; musk is the most expensive animal product imported in Japan. Currently musk is wholesaling for JS\$5000 a gram or \$50,000 a kilo, a figure many times its weight in gold.

While the export of musk from Nepal is outright legal (unless the Nepalese government auctions off confiscated contraband stocks which are apparently apprehended from time to time), the import of the substance into Japan can also be legally challenged. Article 20-22 of the Japanese Wildlife Protection and funting Law of 1979 requires official documents from the country of export certifying that the product has been taken or collected lawfully" in the country of origin.

Reporter Sharon Noguchi of the Japan Times Weekly and Manami Suzuki, a part-time researcher for the Sunday imes of London and the Guardian, both asked officials at the Ministry of International Trade and Industry (MITI) how musk could enter Japan in view of the Nepalese robibitions and the Japanese law. First, MITI claimed that the trade was legal and that shipments were companied by proper documents. They cited the trictness of Japanese Customs, but failed to produce a ingle document issued from the Nepalese government to ubstantiate the claim. Later, MITI officials amended

their view to say that the CITES reservation status exempted the commodity from the required documentation. However, CITES became effective in Japan only in November 1980. Prior to that, over a thousand kilos of musk entered Japan presumably without the necessary documentation.

Nonetheless, Mr Amano of MITI maintains that the trade is legal and insists if there is a problem it is because the Nepalese government is negligent. "If they enforced their own laws, the musk would not leave the country", he said. MITI is the government agency that oversees CITES.

Officials at the Ministry of Health and Welfare told Suzuki that since 1980 there has been a 3-year voluntary import restriction as a sort of conservation gesture by the importers of musk themselves. Mr Yoshihiko Mima of the Tokyo Chinese Medical Association, however, told her he had never heard of any such agreement, and insisted that a voluntary import restriction would be impossible to enforce. He claims that musk is now hard to get because of the animal's depleted population, not because of any import restriction, voluntary or otherwise. He also said most musk is probably smuggled to Japan. Recorded musk imports for 1981 have dropped considerably. As of April only 17 kilos have come from Nepal.

The Ministry of Health and Welfare was the government body that requested the reservation status for the Himalayan musk deer. It justifies its action by claiming that musk is vital to the lives of hundreds of Japanese heart patients. Nonetheless, the Japanese policy of uncontrolled exploitation of the deer without regard for the conservation of the species puts these same Japanese patients in a very compromised position if the animal slides into extinction, a very real possibility.

Another government official, Mr Tanaka of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, claims that musk ranching is already being developed as part of Japan's contribution to Economic Cooperative Fund. In non-government team went to Nepal, he said, but no details of the alleged project were forthcoming despite a promise to do so. In a contradictory and somewhat defensive statement, officials at the Ministry of Health and Welfare insisted that it was not the responsibility of the Japanese government to instigate musk ranching projects, throwing the burden to the importing companies themselves. With this attitude the Japanese government seems to be relinquishing its responsibility for placing the species on the reservation list and the implications of that action on the future survival of the animal. The Nepalese embassy in Tokyo said it was completely unaware of any Japanese musk project for their country throwing Mr Tanaka's statement into further doubt.

The consequences of the Japanese trade in Himalayan musk places the survival of the deer species in jeopardy. No country trades in musk to the extent of Japan. Musk ranching perhaps modelled after the Chinese experiment where the substance is extracted without killing the animal seems to be the only answer to saving the species from imminent disaster in view of the Japanese consumer demand for musk. For a developing country like Nepal, successfully developed musk ranching programs could mean long-term financial benefits while promoting conservation of the species at the same time. The Japanese trade single-handedly could deprive the entire Himalayan region of a potentially lucrative development option unless immediate action is taken.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thanks are due to Sharon Noguchi and Masseyi Suz, ka 10, sharing their materials with me. \Box

The Coral Trade in the Philippines By Susan M Wells

Attention has been drawn this year to the plight of Philippine coral reefs by the holding of the 4th International Coral Reef Symposium in Manila in May which was attended by over 300 coral reef biologists from all over the world. Philippine coral reefs cover some 44,000 sq.km. and are some of the richest fringing reefs in the world, over 600 coral species having been described from them. They play a number of important roles: protecting the coastline from erosion; providing a livelihood for the many subsistence fishermen who depend on the reefs for fish (the Philippines has a population density of over 412 per sq.mile, nearly double the south-east Asian average); and forming the basis of the tourist industry, with SCUBA diving and snorkelling tours being organized in increasing numbers.

A survey by the University of the Philippines has shown that more than half the reefs are in progressive states of destruction and that only 25 per cent can be described as being in good condition as far as live coral cover is concerned and only 5 per cent as excellent. Threats to the reefs come from a wide variety of sources. Siltation and sedimentation are among the major destructive activities, and come about through extensive deforestation which is leading to soil erosion, as well as through pollution from industrial development and mining activites. Destructive fishing methods are having a major impact on many reefs. Dynamite blasting for fish occurs illegally throughout most of the country (the fish are stunned and float to the surface, enabling large quantitites to be fished in a short period of time). The collection of coral for local uses such as building and for the ornamental coral trade leads to the removal of the basic structural framework of the reef. The massive slow-growing corals such as Goniopora and Porites are increasingly being used for tiles and decorative materials for buildings; the ornamental coral trade uses the smaller branching coral which are equally important in terms of the habitat they provide for fish. Ornamental corals are now to be found in gift shops and department stores throughout the world, sold as souvenirs in seaside resorts far from any coral reef, as decoration for aquarium fish tanks or simply as an object for the mantelpiece.

Throughout the early 1970s, the Philippines was the main exporter of stony corals by several orders of magnitude. Exports increased dramatically from just over 200 tonnes in 1969 to over 1800 tonnes in 1976, about 60 per cent destined for the U.S., the rest going to Japan and Europe. In 1977 the Marine Sciences Center of the University of the Philippines carried out a detailed market study of the trade. The distribution system of corals from source to final cutomer usually involves a number of middlemen:

It is not at all clear to what extent the divers are dependent on coral for their livelihood, but it is almost certain that prior to the expansion of the trade they made their living as fishermen, collecting coral and shells as a sideline.

A study of the trade in Zamboanga (Southern Philippines) in 1980 showed that there were then about

1200 coral divers in the region, mainly Samals (Muslims) and Badjaos or sea gypsies. About 20 operated in the Manalipa, Tabtabon and Santa Cruz islands, 500 in Saluping and other islands off Basilan and 500 in the Sulu and Tawi-Tawi waters, supplying 14 major exporters in Zamboanga City. The Samals use motorised bancas with 5-10 divers per boat; the Badjaos use their large vintnas or sailing boats. The divers wear masks or goggles but have no SCUBA equipment; they tend to spend one day dislodging the corals with a tool such as a crow-bar and come back the following day to collect the pieces in baskets or nets. More than 35 varieties of coral were being exported from Zamboanga in 1980 and a single diver could earn about 6-8 pesos (50p) a day collecting between 30-50 pieces.

A similar system seemed to be operating off Mactan Island, Cebu in June 1981. Coral was being brought into at least two beaches along the coast at Punta Engana, the moderately remote north-eastern tip of the island. Motorised bancas were being used and the coral was apparently being collected locally from around Bohol and the islands to the north and south of Mactan, although one collector said it came from as far away as Leyte. It is unloaded in shallow water where it is left for about three days, periodically being shaken to remove the organic matter as it rots. Once it is clean it is piled up to dry and bleach in the sun for about three days. 20 different varieties were identified, and according to the people washing the coral the dealers in Cebu usually specified the types required and came out to Mactan to collect their orders every week or so. Prices seemed to vary; one collector quoted 50c for a piece 12" by 24"; another 50c for a 'small' piece and 2 pesos for a 'larger' piece.

As yet there is no large-scale exploitation of precious or semi-precious corals in the Philippines. Substantial stocks of precious coral occur in the north, in deep waters of the Batan Islands. These were discovered by the Japanese and for a time were exploited (illegally since they occur within the Philippine fishery zone) by both Japanese and Taiwanese coral fishing boats. If managed on a sustainable yield basis as the Hawaiian precious coral fishery is run, these beds could perhaps provide the Philippines with a useful source of income.

Semi-precious corals are exploited primarily for the souvenir trade. Most of the black coral seen was said to come from Zamboanga, although other areas rich in antipatharians include the Batan Islands and Palawan. Much of the black coral collected is used for jewellery for export or for sale to tourists but most of the jewellery seen was of a fairly low quality. A number of other coral species are now being used for jewellery. The blue corals Heliopora and a rather similar red coral are used to make beads and as inlay for bracelets. A firm in Cebu makes jewellery out of lace coral (Stylaster sp. or Distiochopora sp.). When polished this closely resembles precious coral but comes in a number of colours (orange, blue, violet, pink, white). It is made primarily for export and prices vary according to colour from P7 (c.50p) for a small red bracelet to P35 (£2.50) for a gold-coloured necklace.

In 1977, Presidential Decree 1219 was issued prohibiting the gathering and/or exporting of stony corals and the exporting of precious and semi-precious corals as a result of concern expressed over the condition of many Philippine coral reefs and a number of incidences of poaching of precious corals by the Taiwanese. The official export figures for corals showed a dramatic drop that year and ceased altogether in 1978. (The 1976 peak is probably partly attributable to anticipation on the part of the exporters of the ban and their rush to dispose of stocks). Analysis of import figures for other countries showed that export in fact continued after the ban. At least 962 tonnes were exported in 1978 and in 1980 the US imported over

236 tonnes of Philippine corals. Much of this left the country quite legally through Zamboanga City in the south, which was granted special dispensation, probably because it was thought to be too difficult to enforce controls in the midst of the uneasy atmosphere created by the Muslim rebels. The decree contained a number of loopholes, however, and exports were leaving other areas of the country as well. In 1980 Presidential Decree 1698 amended the previous legislation, forbidding the use of corals as building materials, improving facilities for enforcement and requiring all stock to be cleared within 15 days. The Philippine Constabulary, the Navy, the Coastguards and the Bureau of Customs are now responsible for enforcing the provisions of the decree.

But a visit to the Philippines in June 1981 showed that the illegal trade is still flourishing, although coral and shell dealers visited in Cebu and Zamboanga Cities were clearly aware of the current legislation. Cebu appears to be the centre of the current trade; most of the firms visited had corals piled up in their warehouses and in a number coral was actually seen being loaded into vans. Not surprisingly the dealers did not refer to coral when discussing the trade or refused to be interviewed if they suspected the reason for questioning. Corals are exported labelled as shells or shellcraft or as 'fillers' - as illustrated by a letter from 'Ponce's Shell Novelties' shop in Cebu which, in answer to an enquiry about coral and shell price lists for export, replied: "Regarding corals we are banned from exporting them, however we can mix them with other items so we have to use them as fillers. Hoping to make business with you"! In Zamboanga where the ban came into force in May 1980 enforcement seems to have been much stricter. By June 1981 a number of firms had gone out of business and others had deleted corals from their price lists. Many still had stocks of corals in their warehouses but in most cases these looked very dusty and there was little evidence of packaging. Two of the dealers pointed out that the shell trade was suffering as a result of the coral ban. As one put it "Corals and shells go together like coffee and milk". Importers are cancelling their orders if they are unable to get coral as well. They maintained that this had created further unemployment in the town; the men could sometimes get jobs in the construction industry but there were few other opportunities for the women and children who worked in the warehouses.

One of the reasons for the apparent relative ease with which the trade is continuing at Cebu is probably the difficulties of enforcement there. International deep-draft carriers are able to use Cebu port and so consignments can be loaded directly onto foreign ships. At Zamboanga, consignments having been checked by the apparently vigilant Bureau of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources, are loaded onto small Philippine boats for shipment to Manila, where they are checked again before loading on foreign boats. Bribery is also a widespread practice in Cebu. It was easy to obtain photos of coral being packed and loaded in the various warehouses and on Mactan it was being brought into the beach quite openly, the only token attempt at concealment being the palm branches laid casually across the piles of cleaned coral. Two local coral reef biologists had witnessed the exchange of a bribe in June 1981, when a police boat apprehended a boat laden with coral coming into Mactan; about P500 (c.£33) was handed over. Bribery is also said to occur at Customs and an employee for Sealink, one of the container firms, had seen corals going out with consignments of shells.

Judging from newspaper reports, Customs at Manila have stepped up their vigilance. In February 1981, a 30ft van destined for Seattle and shipped by the Cebu Shell House was found to contain P500,000 worth of coral when checked at Manila. In July and August two further shipments bound for the U.S. were seized, both probably

from the Zamboanga Sea Shell House. One contained corals and sea shells worth P500,000 and the other, weighing 20,000 kilos, was valued at P1 million.

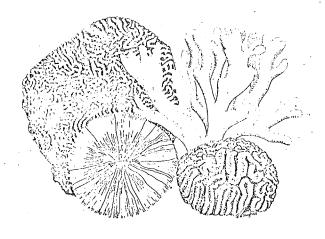
Although there are currently a number of studies underway to investigate growth rate and regenerative capacity of corals with a view to drawing up management plans for this resource, there is still much research to be done. Some species may grow fairly fast, but there are indications that some are so slow-growing that any form of harvesting would be unwise. Until such time as sustainable yields can be calculated or some other form of management introduced, a total ban seems to be the only feasible way of preventing excessive damage to the reefs.

For the ban to be effective, however, considerably more effort needs to be put into its enforcement than is currently the case. Firstly, importing countries and specifically the U.S. and European consumers, must contribute by prohibiting imports of Philippine corals. It looks as if corals will be added to the Lacey Act, which should have a major effect on the trade since most of the demand comes from the U.S. No attempt has been made by any European country to control coral imports but the Philippines, having now ratified CITES, has the option of adding corals at least to Appendix III. A public awareness campaign to deter people from buying ornamental corals would also have some impact.

Sue Wells' report on the coral trade can be obtained from the Conservation Monitoring Centre, 219c Huntingdon Road, Cambridge CB3 ODL, U.K.

International Trade in Corals

by Susan M. Wells



IUCN Conservation Monitoring Centre

More Parties for CITES

Good news for CITES with two more countries ratifying the Convention and one acceding to it. The Philippines ratified on 18 August 1981 (effective as of 16 November 1981) and Colombia finally ratified on 31 August 1981 (effective as of 29 November 1981). The Revolutionary People's Republic of Guinea acceded to the Convention on 21 September 1981 (effective as of 20 December 1981) thus becoming the 74th member country of CITES.

Although you may have read in several publications that Belgium has at last become a Party to CITES, this is unfortunately not absolutely correct. The Belgian Parliament approved ratification in June 1981 but as the instrument of ratification has not yet (October 1981) been deposited with the Swiss Government, Belgium is still not an official CITES member state.

Fine for Cactus Importer

The 'Frankfurter Allgemeine' of 11.6.81 reported that a civil servant was fined 420DM for bringing in 400 rare cacti from Mexico. The cactophile was stopped by Customs at Frankfurt airport on 29 March 1979 as he did not have the import permit required under CITES. In his defence he stated he had not realised that the permit was necessary. However the judge ruled that as chairman of a cactus society he ought to have known about the legal requirements for the importation of these plants.



Appendix I Species at Cactus Fair

The first British Cactus Sales Fair was held in Harrogate on 15 August. 16 nurseries sold a wide variety of succulents, with cacti being by far the most numerous family represented. Prices ranged from 50p for small nursery-grown plants of the more common cultivated species to £60 for a specimen of Carnegia gigantea about 18" high and £85 for a specimen of Mammillaria plumosa.

Field-collected plants were on sale on several stalls, in some cases distinctly displayed. One stall, for example, had a section labelled, 'Habitats from America and S.Africa'. The South African specimens were mainly succulents of the genus Euphorbia which, like the Cactaceae, are all included in Appendix II of CITES. Another stall had a range of small 'collected imports', whereas on other stalls habitat-collected plants were mixed in with nursery grown specimens.

Of the cacti species transferred to Appendix I of CITES at the New Delhi meeting, Obregonia denegrii, Pelecyphora aselliformis, Ariocarpus scapharostrus and Ariocarpus agavoides were all on sale at the Fair. The latter two species were both displayed as wild-collected along with other species of this slow growing and desirable genus, i.e. A. lloydii, A. trigonus, A. kotxhoubeyanus, A. fissuratus and A. retusus var. furfuraceus.

Kenyan Export Ban on Primates

According to the September International Primate Protection League (IPPL) newsletter, on 15 July 1981 Kenya announced a ban on the export of monkeys and baboons. Dealers trading in primates were told to dispose of their stocks within two weeks. In the last few years Kenya has exported a large number of monkeys and baboons which are considered agricultural pests in some areas. Smaller numbers of other species such as Colobus monkeys have also been exported.

A letter has also been published from Richard Leakey, the Director of National Museums of Kenya which operates the Institute for Primate Research. IPPL and other concerned groups had expressed shock that a new Primate Research Centre was to be set up in the Olulua Forest Preserve the construction of which involved destruction of part of the forest. 'Primate News', the publication of the Oregon Regional Primate Centre, in an article on the new Centre had stated that one of its purposes was to control the trapping and exporting of primates. However, in his letter of 31 July 1981 to the 'Weekly Review', Richard Leakey declares that "the National Museum does not intend to export animals as such and it was never the purpose of the I.P.R. to do so" which supports the statement made in the previous week's edition by the Kenyan President, Mr Daniel arap Moi that African countries should not export fauna and flora for research purposes.

We hope to bring you further details on Kenya's wildlife export bans in our next issue.

Pakistan Export Ban & 1979-80 Exports

Syed Ali Ghalib, a WTMU consultant, has sent us a list of the 1979-80 Pakistan live wildlife exports which we reproduce below.

He has also informed us that the export of mammals and reptiles and their derivatives from Pakistan has been stopped as from I September 1981 for a period of 3 years. Further details will be given as soon as the government notification is received.

Statistics of live wildlife exported from Pakistan during November 1979 - March 1980

co.co	
Five-striped Palm Squirrel	1000
(Funambulus pennanti)	
Budgerigar (Melopsittacus undulatus)	4000

Countries to which exported:

Japan, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, West Germany.

Statistics of live wildlife exported from Pakistan during April 1980 - March 1981

Five-striped Palm Squirrel	60
(Funambulus pennanti)	
Pigeon (Columba sp.)	2250
Budgerigar (Melopsittacus undulatus)	6100
Rose-ringed Parakeet (Psittacula krameri)	3343
Black-headed Bunting (Emberiza melanocephala)	693
Red Avadavat [Tigerfinch] (Amandava amandava)	17,848
Indian Silverbill [White-throated Munia]	12,222
(Euodice malabarica)	
Brahminy River Turtle (Hardella thurji)	30
Brown River Turtle (Kachuga smithi)	180

Narrow-headed Softbill Turtle (Chitra indica)	10
Leopard Gecko (Eublepharis macularius)	190
Spotted House Gecko (Hemidactylus brooki)	100
Sind Broad-tailed Gecko (Teratolepis fasciata)	20
Baluch Sand Gecko (Teratoscincus microlepis)	10
Turkestan Sand Gecko (Teratoscincus scincus)	40
Agamas (Agama spp.)	28
Common Garden Lizard (Calotes versicolor)	147
Spiny-tailed Lizard (Uromastyx hardwicki)	350
Mekran Fringe-toed Lizard	30
(Acanthodactylus cantoris blanfordi)	
Yellow-bellied Mole Skink (Eumeces taeniolatus)	20
Sand Boas (Eryx johni & E. conicus)	440
Cliff Racer (Coluber rhodorachis)	60
Glossy-bellied Racer (Coluber ventromaculatus)	.120
Sind River Snake (Enhydris pakistanica)	30
Rat Snake [Dhaman] (Ptyas mucosus)	55
Dark-bellied Marsh Snake	70
(Xenochrophis cerasogaster)	
Checkered Keelback (Xenochrophis piscator)	80
Blue Krait (Bungarus caeruleus)	70
Sea Snakes (Hydrophis, Enhydrina & Pelamis spp.)	90
Saw-scaled Viper (Echis carinatus)	28
Asian Sand Viper (Eristicophis mcmahoni)	30
False Horned Viper (Vipera persica)	16
Russell's Viper (Vipera russelli)	80
•	

Countries to which exported: Austria, France, Holland, Italy, Japan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Switzerland, Syria, U.K., U.S.A.

Senegal Wildlife Trade - 1979/80

The Republic of Senegal recently submitted, to the CITES Secretariat, reports on wildlife exports for the years 1979 and 1980.

Legal exports in these years are confined almost entirely to birds most of them being non-CITES species. A total of 205,966 live birds was exported in 1979. The major recipient in that year was France with 71,898 birds, with Spain and the U.S.A. each receiving more than 30,000 birds. There were 5600 birds exported to the U.K.; however, according to U.K. Customs statistics the number imported from Senegal was 94,850! Apart from birds, the only live exports were a total of 3 Patas monkeys Cercopithecus patas to Spain and Lebanon for non-commercial purposes. The Federal Republic of Germany were sent a small number of skins and products of rock pythons Python sebae and Nile monitor lizards Varanus niloticus.

In 1980, all live exports were confined to birds, a total of 301,506 being exported; an increase of just over 46 per cent on the previous year. Exports to France dropped by approximately 74 per cent to 18,410 but exports to the U.S.A. increased to 108,508 (250 per cent up) making them the major rec_ipient. Exports to the U.K. went up dramatically by 550 per cent to 36,400 (but once again this figure bears no resemblance to the U.K. Customs statistics which show that 103,563 birds were imported from Senegal) and Japan became an important consumer receiving a total

of 22,880 birds.

Exports of reptiles in 1980 were again confined to skins and products of P. sebae and V. niloticus, the receiving countries being the Federal Republic of Germany, Canada and the U.S.A. The 1980 report also lists re-exports of raw and worked ivory of the African elephant Loxodonta africana, to the Federal Republic of Germany, France and Italy, but does not indicate from which country or countries the ivory originated. (The elephant is a totally protected species in Senegal under Decree No.67-610 of 30 May 1967).

A list of birds which may be exported from Senegal in 1981, subject to quota, is annexed to the reports. The species listed are as follows:-

I. Columbidae

Oena capensis Namaqua dove

Streptopelia senegalensis Laughing dove

Turtur afer Blue-spotted wood-dove

Turtur chalcospilos Emerald-spotted wood-dove

2. Ploceidae

Euplectes afer Golden bishop

Euplectes franciscanus Red bishop

Euplectes hordeaceus Red-crowned bishop

Euplectes macrourus Yellow-mantled whydan

Passer luteus Sudan golden sparrow

Ploceus cucullatus Spot-backed weaver

Ploceus melanocephalus Black-headed weaver

Quelea erythrops Red-headed quelea

Quelea quelea Red-billed quelea

Vidua chalybeata Village indigobird

Vidua macroura Pin-tailed whydah

Vidua orientalis Broad-tailed paradise whydah

3. Psittacidae
Poicephalus senegalus Senegal parrot
Psittacus erithacus Grey parrot
Psittacula krameri Rose-ringed parakeet

4. Sturnidae

<u>Lamprotornis caudatus</u> Long-tailed glossy starling

<u>Lamprotornis chalybaeus</u> Blue-eared glossy starling

<u>Spreo pulcher</u> Chestnut-bellied starling

5. Fringillidae
Serinus leucopygius White-rumped canary
Serinus mozambicus Yellow-fronted canary

6. Estrildidae

Amadina fasciata Cut-throat finch

Amandava subflava Zebra waxbill

Estrilda caerulescens Lavender waxbill

Estrilda melpoda Orange-cheeked waxbill

Estrilda troglodytes Black-rumped waxbill

Euodice cantans African silverbill

Lagonostica larvata Black-faced firefinch

Lagonostica rubticata Brown-backed firefinch

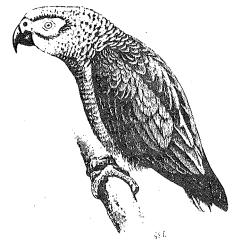
Lagonostica senegala Red-billed firefinch

Lonchura cucullata Bronze mannikin

Pytilia melba Green-winged pytilia

Pytilia phoenicoptera Crimson-winged pytilia

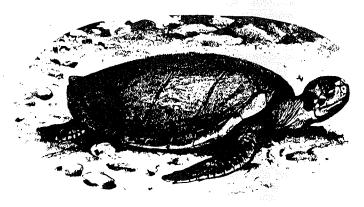
Uraeginthus bengalus Red-cheeked cordon-bleu



Grey Parrot. Psithiens erithe(u).

U.S. Cayman Farm Ban To Stay

In the US, the Court of Appeals for the district of Columbia recently affirmed the district court's rejection of a Cayman Turtle Farm challenge of Endangered Species Act and CITES restrictions on sea turtle trade. In June 1979 the USA banned all farmed turtle products but CTF argued that ESA and CITES prohibitions did not apply to farmed products. The Secretaries of Interior and Commerce had considered granting a mariculture exemption for sea turtles and products but concluded that this would increase the demand for wild stocks of sea turtles.



Turtle Farming on Réunion

The May issue of 'Oryx' reports that a new turtle farm has been set up at St Leu on the Indian Ocean island of Réunion (a French dependency) by the French Government and a French business firm. It will exploit the green turtle Chelonia mydas which has one of its largest nesting populations on two small islands in the dependency, Tromelin and Europa.

The company, Compagnie Réunionnaise d'Aquaculture et d'Industries Littorales, says it has perfected an ideal food to stimulate the turtles' quick growth which, it expects, will enable the turtles' weight to increase to 40-50 kg after three years - the first harvest should be in 1982. 30 tanks each holding 1500 turtles have been installed by the edge of the sea. It is planned that 15,000 hatchlings will be taken annually from the wild. 'Oryx' expresses concern that the Europa population might not be able to stand this exploitation combined with the active turtle hunting that goes on in the Moçambique Channel.

This hunting takes place mainly in the coastal waters of Madagascar where, although there is perfectly adequate sea turtle protective legislation, exploitation continues as, for many reasons, it is almost impossible to enforce the law. Dr George Hughes of the Natal Parks, Game & Fish Preservation Board, writes that over 13,000 individual turtles are killed along some 600 km of the south-west coast of Madagascar every year. Recently one taxidermist shop in Diego Saurez had a licence to take 400 hawksbills Eretmochelys imbricata annually. Stuffed juvenile hawksbills are displayed for sale in almost every major market place and general store. All other species are exploited mainly for domestic consumption but the juvenile hawksbill is an article of commerce. Recoveries of tagged turtles from Europa and Tromelin show that Madagascar is heavily dependent for its harvests on the protected, French-controlled islands.

It is a different story in Réunion and its dependencies where turtles are afforded complete protection and there appears to be little violation of the law, resulting in healthy populations of <u>Chelonia mydas</u>. The 1978 estimate of green turtle females nesting on Tromelin island is 4400+ and the 1978/79 estimate for Europa Island is 9000-18,000 (Lebeau, et al). The number of eggs laid in that season was in excess of 3,4 million.

Dr Hughes writes that there is no exploitation of adult green turtles but that hatchlings have recently been captured on Europa for market rearing:

"All collection of hatchlings is undertaken by the Scientific Institute and every hatchling collected is one that has emerged during the day and which would almost certainly have been destroyed by frigatebirds (Fregata minor or F ariel) whose predation on daylight emergencies is virtually 100 per cent effective.

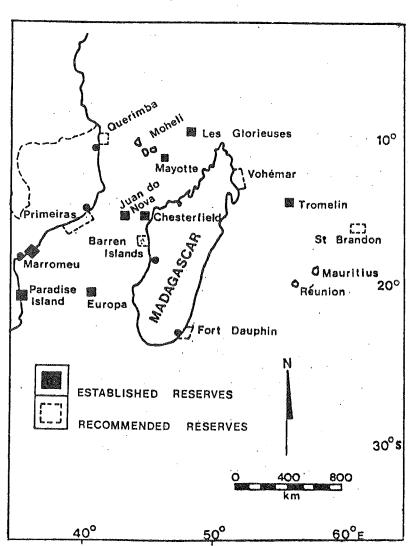
"It is stressed, therefore, that this exploitation programme is in no way interfering with the natural survival rate or recruitment of green turtles on Europa Island. The rearing station is situated near the town of St Leu on the south west coast of Réunion and it intends to export its products which are expected to eventually reach 100-200 tonnes a year.

"The conservation situation in the areas under French control is admirable and there is no need for concern."

Whether another turtle 'farm' or ranch may further stimulate the demand for turtle products, and whether the farm will eventually be able to meet the requirements of the CITES Costa Rica Resolution 2.12 (Specimens Bred in Captivity or Artificially Propagated) to qualify for trade under CITES, are other matters for debate.

Sources: Oryx, May 1981, Vol.XVI No.1.
The Conservation Situation of Sea Turtle
Populations in the Southern African Region
by George R Hughes.

The map reproduced below is from this report, and shows existing marine reserves and parks and some areas recommended for protective status.

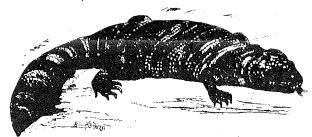


Massive Illegal Market for U.S. Wildlife

After its success in uncovering a multi-million dollar interstate business dealing in illegal walrus ivory, U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service agents concluded in July an 18 month investigation which revealed a massive illegal trade in protected and endangered U.S. reptiles and migratory pirds. Federal agents set up the wholesale 'Wildlife Exchange' in an Atlanta suburb and advertised their price list, adding that it was interested in purchasing 'native species', a codeword for protected animals. Business flourished - by the end of the operation, agents had bought and sold 10,000 animals that had been caught in the wild illegally. 54 U.S. reptile species and 7 U.S. bird species, protected by either state or federal regulations, were bought in the 'sting' operation. Species on sale included the Texas gray-banded kingsnake <u>Lampropeltis mexicana</u> alterna \$200, the California mountain kingsnake <u>L. zonata</u> \$150, Gila monster Heloderma suspectum \$200 and Indian python Python molurus \$500.

The trade was set up in an informal network of small groups and altogether 175 individuals were involved and 27 scrests made. The demand for the trade came mainly from private collectors among whom were included bankers, police officers, an attorney and a sheriff. A large proportion of the animals were shipped to Europe and Japan where prices are even higher.

The operation also disclosed that at least 100,000 venomous and non-venomous snakes are illegally sent through the U.S. mails every year - it was quite common for masking tape to be placed over the rattles of rattlesnakes to quiet them.



-- Heloderma suspectum (the Gila Mouster).

More U.K. Seizures

In our last issue (p.38) we reported the seizure and subsequent sale to the trade of an illegal export of Ghanaian reptiles to the U.K. Customs later seized another illegal consignment of about 150 Royal pythons Python regius, ranging from fully grown specimens of two metres long to babies a few inches long. 40 of the smaller ones died but the rest were air-freighted back to Ghana at a cost of £500 provided by the RSPCA and the Fauna & Flora Preservation Society. This is the first time that it has been possible to arrange for animals, seized under the provisions of the Endangered Species Act, to be sent back to their country of origin.

Another wildlife export, this time two consignments of Cyclamen, was seized by Customs. One consignment contained 7000 tubers and the other 4000, and both were of Turkish origin and had arrived via Holland without documentation acceptable to the U.K. under the terms of CITES. Sample tubers were sent to Kew for identification and they were found to be as labelled, though in one batch there were some tubers of the rare species C. mirabile. Almost certainly all the tubers were wild collected in west Turkey. The plants are being overwintered in frames and those that survive will be distributed to other botanic gardens and national gardens.

The seizures are another example of the increasing vigilance of the U.K. Customs in intercepting illegal exports of wildlife.

Bird Trade Bans

Bahrain: Further to the note published in TRAFFIC (Vol.III(3/4):32) concerning new regulations on the live bird trade in Bahrain, our correspondent now informs us that a total ban has been imposed by the authorities on exports of parrot-like birds. Two accredited zoos only are exempted from the ban. This news made the front page in Bahrain with a comment from the Minister concerned. We are still awaiting full details and official confirmation.

<u>U.K.</u>: On 1 October 1981, the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food (MAFF), with little warning, imposed a complete ban on bird imports (alive or dead) into the U.K., the official reason for the ban being a scare of importing Newcastle disease from mainland Europe. Any live birds coming into the country after 1 October would be either returned to whence they came or destroyed. If the ban persists for any length of time, it is likely that a number of dealers may be put out of business. However, protests against the ban have been coming not only from the traders but also from some conservationists who are worried that if any rare species are imported regardless of the ban, the birds will be destroyed. At the time of writing there are rumours that MAFF may be forced to lift the ban in early November.

South Africa Bans Imports of Primates

News has been recently received, in the form of a letter Town's Department of Nature and Environmental Conservation to the Bolivian Wildlife Society, that all the provincial administrations in South Africa (conservation is organized on a provincial basis in S.Africa) have placed import bans on primates. This is largely as a result of a visit to South Africa by Reginald Hardy, the founder and overseas representative of the Bolivian Wildlife Society, following an enquiry by WTMU into the export of supposedly captive bred squirrel monkeys Saimiri sciureus from Bolivia to South Africa. Previously, the Cape administration in South Africa had only permitted imports of captive bred primates and was worried by shipments of Bolivian squirrel monkeys declared as captive bred. It has now been established that there is no captive breeding programme in operation in Bolivia.

The new ban apparently extends not only to squirre monkeys but primates generally.

Readers interested in the work of the Bolivian Wildlife Society (PRODENA BOLIVIA) should write to:

PRODENA BOLIVIA, Casilla 894, La Paz, Bolivia or to the overseas representative:

Mr R Hardy, The Veddw Farm, Devauden, Gwent NP6 6PH, U.K.

Central African Republic and Elephant Hunting

The Bulletin of the International Foundation for the Conservation of Game (1st quarter 1981) reports that the President of the Central African Republic has informed them that big game shooting, in particular elephant hunting, will be opened in December 1981. In March 1980 the president, David Dacko, had imposed a complete ban on the killing of elephants anywhere in the country and on 'the collection, commercialisation, importation, exportation or transit of ivory'. It will be interesting to see whether the opening of elephant hunting will be accompanied by an increase in the, at present illegal, consignments of ivory coming from that country. (see TRAFFIC, Vol.III(2):23&28).

Facts about U.S. Fur Exports

The following facts are from the American Fur Industry and were published in 'Fur Review', May 1981.

Total Fur Exports:

(Pelts & Garments): \$552 million in 1980 \$515.1 million in 1979 Pelts: \$469.2 million in 1980 \$452.7 million in 1979 Garments: \$83.1 million in 1980 \$63.0 million in 1979

World Markets

The United States exports fur garments and pelts to more than 30 countries throughout the world. West Germany, Japan and Switzerland are principal buyers.

Export Growth Rate

In 1980, exports of garments increased 37 per cent, compared with 1979. The most spectacular gains have been recorded in fur garments during the past two years. Since the American International Fur Fair was started in 1979, fur garment exports more than doubled.

Favourable Trade Balance:

Furs are one of the few American consumer products industries that enjoy a favourable balance of trade.

1980 Fur exports

\$552 million \$310 million

Source: U.S. Dept. of Commerce

US Retail Sales:

1976 - \$565.0 million 1978 - \$750.0 million 1980 - \$944.0 million

Exports (wholesale):

1976 - \$329.1 million 1978 - \$264.1 million 1979 - \$515.1 million

1980 - \$552.2 million

Manufacturers:

Approximately 600, the overwhelming majority located in New York City.

Retail Establishments

7400 in the United States.

Employees:

Some 250,000 employed directly or indirectly in the United States.

Ranching:

Virtually all mink and chinchilla, and many fox, are bred on fur farms. Mink accounts for an estimated 55 per cent of retail fur sales.

The Conibear "instant kill" trap is outlawed in 18 states for use on land.

Wild Furs:

Account for about 45 per cent of retail fur sales. \$250 million collected annually for licences and permits of hunters, trappers, fishermen constitutes a major source of revenue for wildlife conservation.

Endangered Species:

The American Fur Industry does not use pelts of endangered species, a policy established prior to Government regulations.



New Wildlife Port for Texas

The Dallas-Fort Worth airport has been chosen as the U.S.A.'s ninth port of entry for wildlife imported or exported under the Endangered Species Act. In 1979, it was recommended that Houston be designated as a new port for the Southwest since it had both a huge seaport and a large airport. However, after requests from Dallas (including from the prestigious Neiman-Marcus store) to reconsider, the recommendation was reviewed.

The resulting study showed that a major change had taken place in the international wildlife trade. Instead of using ships, according to the study, "70 per cent of the wildlife inspected and cleared by the Service (Fish & Wildlife) now arrives in the US as air cargo and another 10 per cent as the accompanying baggage of airline passengers". In addition most wildlife imports are now in the form of products from animals used by the fashion industry. Because of this, Houston's seaport became almost irrelevant and the Dallas-Fort Worth airport was chosen to be the new port of entry.

Source: Washington Post, 10.9.81

Indonesian Seizure of Illegal Skins

The following report is from 'Conservation Indonesia', March 1981.

A team from the Directorate of Nature Conservation (PPA), Bogor, and PPA, Padang, in cooperation with West Sumatran Police, recently made perhaps the largest single assault on organized poaching of protected wildlife in Indonesia, and certainly the most significant blow to the illegal trafficking in West Sumatra of skins and trophies of protected birds and mammals. On 19 January 1981, the authorities visited the home of a taxidermist in Padang Panjang who for several years had been preparing and mounting skins given to him by poachers. Many of these skins were subsequently sold within Indonesia or smuggled out of the country to Singapore where they fetched very high prices.

The team from PPA and West Sumatran police confiscated no less than 244 skins (including dried skins, fresh skins still being processed, and mounted specimens). Most significant was the confiscation of 29 tiger skins all originally taken from the forests of West Sumatra. Six of the skins were mounted in a life-like position, eight were flat and processed, while 15 fresh tiger skins were still being processed. Other confiscated wildlife remains included hawks (50), Argus pheasants (about 40), storks, herons, egrets, wreathed hornbills, rhinoceros hornbills, helmeted hornbills, birds of paradise, (about 20), siamang, gibbons (including some from the Mentawai islands), leaf monkeys, macaques, flying squirrels, tree squirrels, civet cats, binturongs, clouded leopards, leopard cats, barking deer, mounted heads of sambar deer and serows, and cockatoos and other parrots from Maluku Province.

This recent confiscation by PPA in West Sumatra is commendable and, through its publicity, people will come to learn that PPA is committed to upholding and enforcing the wildlife protection laws of Indonesia. However, enforcement of these laws in Indonesia will always be hampered until countries such as Singapore which openly sell the protected species of other countries either ban the import of animals protected by ASEAN states or accede to CITES which was signed by Indonesia on 28 December 1978.

The next issue of TRAFFIC will include a list of the protected animals in Indonesia.

Singapore and the Aquarium Fish Trade

An article in the 1981 Straits Times Annual describes how Singapore has become the world's leading centre for the breeding and export of tropical aquarium fish. Over 200 species and varieties are flown from Singapore to aquarists in over 100 countries.

There are at present about 2000 fish farms in Singapore as fish farming has now become big business. The old, unkempt fish ponds have given way to modern mechanised farms with neat rows of concrete or fibreglass tanks supplied with potable water, and special filtration and breeding tanks and aerated hatcheries have been installed. Some farmers have already become millionaires and the entrepreneurs on the other side of the business, the fish exporters, are also doing very well as the 1979 export figures show. In 1964, before Singapore became a sovereign state, tropical fish exports totalled S\$1 million in 1979, some 110 million fish were exported at a value of \$35.5 million which constitutes about one third of world exports and half the Asian total. The following tables show the 1979 exports of the most popular fish and the main importing countries.

FRESHWATER FISH EXPORTS (in Singapore dollars)

COUMNIEK LIOL	EVEOR 3 (m 2mgabore dome
Guppies	4,876,185
Angels	3,842,270
Mollies	2,984,268
Swordtails	2,161,998
Tetras	1,961,522
Loaches	1,659,266
Gourami	1,569,569
Barbs	1,520,211
Platies	1,498,159
Fighting fish	574,576
RINE FISH	
Butterfly fish	37,685
Damsels	32,853
Clown fish	23,219

MA

MAIN IMPORTERS OF SINGAPORE FISH IN 1979 (in Singapore dollars)

Fed. Rep. of Germany	6,004,683
USA	5,507,206
UK	4,330,685
Australia	2,452,282
France	1,992,672
Belgium & Luxembourg	1,871,318

The article ends by noting that the fish industry generates employment and income for thousands of Singaporeans other than the fish breeders, the exporters and the There is a subsidiary industry including middlemen. suppliers of tubifex worms and food pellets to feed the fish, companies providing the various types of tanks and pumps, and firms supplying the plastic bags and styrofoam boxes to the exporters. However another article in the Straits Times says that there are problems in the industry small fish farmers are dying out and natural fish food like worms and fleas are being eliminated by urban redevelopment. It was also experiencing the threats common to all industry: labour shortages, wage increases and inflation. The chairman of the newly formed Singapore Aquarium Fish Exporters Association, however, felt that with the establishment of this association, which includes 30 members who export over 90 per cent of Singapore's aquarium fish, these problems could be solved.

THE GOLDEN DRAGON FISH

A correspondent in Singapore has sent us several cuttings and adverts concerning the Asian bonytongue fish Scleropages formosus. This species - known by the Chinese as the Golden Dragon or Emperor fish, as Kelesa in Malay, and commonly called the Ar owana - is listed in the Red Data Book and is included in Appendix I of CITES. It is renowned as a valuable food fish among the local populaces where it occurs and has also been recognized as a freshwater game fish. As early as 1927 an attempt was made at captive breeding but without success though the enthusiasm has recently been revived and researches are underway.

Now it is prized mostly by aquarium enthusiasts and the Singapore adverts sent to us show that there is a great demand for this fish with prices reaching S\$950 for a 15" Golden Arowana, S\$1300 for a 19" fish, and S\$2300 for a 2'3" specimen.

Along with these cuttings our correspondent sent us a report on a recent convention for the Singapore fish exporters association and overseas buyers. Although the Ar owana is an Appendix I species, a few days after the meeting there was an advert proclaiming "Need green Arrowana and Golden Arrowana for export". It will be interesting to find out which countries will be importing this fish and we would welcome any information from readers who have seen Scleropages formosus on sale in aquarium shops.

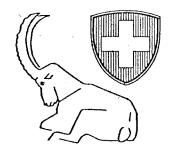
Sources: 'The farmers who fish for fine profits' 1981 Straits Times Annual: Straits Times: Nature Malaysiana, Vol.1 no.2.

Times Annual;	straits Time	s; Nature Mala	ysiana, voi.i r	10.2.
₹^}	4			
Subscription	n Form	\mathcal{V}		☆
N AME				
ORGANIZATION				
ADDRESS			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
DATE				

I wish to continue to receive the TRAFFIC Bulletin

I enclose cheque for £5.00 for Vol.IV, payable to the Conservation Monitoring Centre (219c Huntingdon Road, Cambridge CB3 ODL, U.K.).

The Bulletin is sent free to WTMU and IUCN consultants, Government agencies, conservation organizations and other institutions in a position to further the conservation of threatened species. Donations to defray costs will continue to be welcomed. To commercial enterprises and private individuals the Bulletin subscription is £5.00 per volume.



FEDERAL VETERINARY OFFICE

On 11 June the Federal Veterinary Office submitted its 1980 report on the implementation of CITES in Switzerland and Liechtenstein to the Convention's Secretariat.

The following information might be of general interest:

Only one of 39 live Appendix-I-specimens had been taken from the wild after entry into force of CITES. The wild caught animal was a snow leopard from Mongolia which will be used for a joint breeding programme of Zurich and Helsinki zoo.

Appendix-II-listing apparently does not restrict the number of specimens involved in trade. This clearly can be pointed out by comparing all Swiss reports since 1976. The Swiss industry needs about 100'000 Varanus skins p.a. for the fabrication of watch straps. While the number of Appendix-I-skins has been reduced to zero, the number of Appendix-II-skins has increased accordingly.

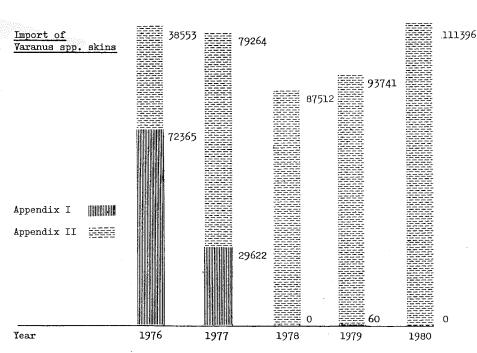
Altogether 589 consignments were objected to by the Border Veterinary Service, i.e. 9,1 % of all consignments controlled at importation. Most of the objected consignments could be released after elimination of the reason for objection, but some specimens had to be confiscated, and a considerable number of persons was fined for attempted illegal importation.

Peter Dollinger

News from Switzerland

Import of live animals					
	Mammals	Birds	Reptiles	Amphibia	Total
Appendix I	17	16	6	-	39
Appendix II	248	. 53	8735	-	9036
Appendix III	13	8411	103	-	957
Birds protected in the terms of the	1946 197 26				
Swiss Hunting Law	-	, 90	- ,	-	90
others	.1916	41176	10186	11537 ²)	64815
Total	2194	42176	19030	11537	74937

- 1) not included are Passerines protected according to the Appendix III Ghana, originating from other countries than Ghana
- 2) not included are 148'586 kgs. of live frogs for human consumption, corresponding to about 1'525'000 animals



Confiscations

Live animals: 1 Vervet Monkey (Cercopithecus aethiops), 3 Palm
Cockatoos (Probosciger aterrimus), 1 Rose-ringed Parakeet (Psittacula krameri), 500 small Passerines, 1 Testudo marginata, 1 Tupinambis teguixin, 1 Constrictor constrictor imperator.

Goods: 5 Leopard skins (Panthera pardus), 1 Cheetah skin (Acinonyx jubatus), 1 Crocodile skin, 1 Python sebae skin, 1 Python molurus skin, 4 Elephant tusks and 7 ivory figures (Loxodonta africana/ Elephantidae spp.), zoological preparations of 2 Crocodiles, 1 Crocodylus novaeguineae mindorensis, 3 Green Turtles (Chelonia mydas) and 4 Hawksbill Turtles (Eretmochelys imbricata).