

OPPORTUNITY OR THREAT

THE ROLE OF THE EUROPEAN UNION IN GLOBAL WILDLIFE TRADE

MAYLYNN ENGLER
AND
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A TRAFFIC EUROPE REPORT



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June 2007



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ACRONYMS & ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASEAN-RAP	ASEAN Regional Action Plan on Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora
CEP	Country Environment Profile
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna & Flora
CSP	Country Strategy Paper
CSV	CITES Strategic Vision
DCI	Development Cooperation Instrument
DEFRA	Department for Environment, Food, and Rural Affairs
EC	European Commission
ENRTP	Thematic Programme for Environment and Sustainable Management of Natural Resources and Energy
ETIS	Elephant Trade Information System
EU	European Union
EU WTEC	European Union Wildlife Trade Enforcement Coordination (workshop)
EU-TWIX	European Union - Trade in Wildlife Information Exchange
EG	Enforcement Group
FAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization
FLEGT	Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade
IUCN	The World Conservation Union
MEA	Multilateral Environmental Agreement
MDG	Millenium Development Goals
MIKE	Monitoring of Illegal Killing of Elephants
NDF	Non-detriment finding
PAW	Partnership for Action Against Wildlife Crime
SRG	Scientific Review Group
TACIS	Technical Aid to the Commonwealth of Independent States
TRAFFIC	The wildlife trade monitoring network
UN	United Nations
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNEP-WCMC	United Nations Environment Programme - World Conservation Monitoring Centre
VPA	Voluntary Partnership Agreements
WSCS	World Sturgeon Conservation Society
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The European Union (EU) ranks as the top global importer by value of many wild animal and plant commodities, including tropical timber, caviar, reptile skins and live reptiles. In 2005, the legal trade in wildlife products in the EU had an estimated declared import value of EUR93 billion, and EUR2.5 billion excluding timber and fisheries. As EU membership has expanded, the magnitude of the EU market for wildlife and wildlife products has also increased.

The links between biodiversity conservation and sustainable development are now universally acknowledged, for example in the Millennium Development Goals and the conclusions of the World Summit on Sustainable Development. A sustainable trade in wild species can contribute significantly to rural incomes, and the effect upon local economies in developing countries can be substantial. The high value of wildlife and wildlife products can also provide a positive incentive for local communities to conserve wild species and their habitats. Consequently, sustainable wildlife trade is potentially beneficial to species and habitat conservation, as well as contributing towards sustainable livelihoods and development.

However, unsustainable and illegal trade is a major factor driving biodiversity loss and poses a serious threat to the long-term survival of species including Big-leaf Mahogany *Swietenia macrophylla*, Vicuña *Vicugna vicugna*, and sturgeon species. Illegal wildlife trade also affects the economies of developing countries: illegal logging costs developing country governments an estimated EUR10–15 billion every year in lost revenue.

There is a huge and escalating demand in Member States for exotic pets, tropical timber, and other wildlife products. While the majority of this wildlife trade into and within the EU is conducted legally, continued demand for some rare and protected species means that illegal wildlife trade still occurs. From 2003 to 2004, enforcement authorities in the EU made over 7000 seizures involving over 3.5 million CITES-listed specimens; from 2000–2005, almost 12 t of caviar were seized. The effect on wild populations of rare and endangered species can be devastating: in the last four years seizures in the EU of the Critically Endangered Egyptian Tortoise *Testudo kleinmanni* represented around 13% of the total estimated population remaining in the wild.

KEY INSTRUMENTS IN REGULATING THE INTERNATIONAL WILDLIFE TRADE

Globally, international trade in species of plants and animals is controlled through the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES). All EU Member States are Parties to this Convention. Within the EU, wildlife trade is additionally controlled through the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations which are directly applicable in all Member States.

The demand for rare specimens and products means that black market values can be very high: certain species of tortoise can fetch EUR30 000 per specimen. Low political awareness is also an exacerbating factor behind unsustainable and illegal trade, as are high prices for wildlife and low penalties. Low penalties may also influence trade routes: countries with low penalties become the gateway for illegal trade. It is little wonder that organized crime syndicates are engaged in wildlife crime.

The EU has accomplished many significant achievements in wildlife law enforcement. These could be enhanced considerably through greater national, regional and inter-regional co-ordination. A co-ordinated EU wildlife trade enforcement action plan with identified priorities, and building on growing political will would considerably strengthen the EU's response to illegal trade.

The sustainability of the trade in wildlife is another key issue to address. Four case studies in this report (tropical timber, reptiles, caviar, and Vicuña products) highlight the role the EU plays in the global wildlife trade, and how the EU could co-ordinate its external assistance actions to maximise effectiveness.

The European Commission and EU Member States have made a number of laudable interventions to ensure that trade is sustainable. However, EU external interventions are *ad hoc* and there are no means of ensuring co-ordination or complementarity of actions from the Member States or the European Commission. A strategic approach, based on priorities identified in collaboration with range States, would enable synergies to be developed, co-ordination between programmes and monitoring of the effectiveness of assistance interventions.

The EU has made a number of policy commitments relevant to wildlife trade. The EU's Sustainable Development Strategy provides the broad framework for the responsible management of natural resources and requires environmental sustainability to be part of all EU external policies. The Thematic Programme for Environment and Sustainable Management of Natural Resources (ENRTP), under the Thematic Strategy, identifies broad objectives which align strongly with the objectives of the CITES Strategic Vision and with priorities identified in this report for EU external assistance. Furthermore, the EU Biodiversity Action Plan specifically calls for a co-ordinated EU response to unsustainable trade and constructive follow up to EU import suspensions.

These political commitments set a positive course for the EU in taking responsibility to ensure wildlife trade is sustainable. But they are vague in terms of priorities, concrete targets and timelines required to achieve these goals, and lack specific guidance on meeting these obligations.



THE TRADE IN VICUÑA

The trade in vicuña wool provides a significant source of income for 700 000 people in impoverished Andean communities. The EU imports 95% of all global imports and the European Commission and EU Member States, through environment and development programmes, have provided assistance to range States to manage vicuña populations through economic incentives to local communities. The effectiveness of assistance could be significantly enhanced if co-ordinated within a framework of an EU assistance plan to ensure complementarity of aid.

THE TRADE IN CAVIAR

Around 50% of all global trade in caviar is imported into the EU. Good governance and well managed fisheries contributes significantly to livelihoods, but in 2001, around EUR60 million was lost to Caspian Sea range States due to illegal sturgeon fishing and trade. The EU has provided funding under the Caspian Environment Programme for actions related to sturgeon conservation priorities, including coastal sustainable development and governance. The effectiveness of these actions could be enhanced through harmonized and complementary actions, undertaken within a framework of priorities set through consultation with sturgeon range States.

Wildlife trade is implicitly recognized in all EU commitments to biodiversity conservation and its interface with sustainable development. Explicit acknowledgement of the steps required to achieve legal and sustainable wildlife trade came in December 2006 when the EU Council of Ministers adopted Council Conclusions calling upon the European Commission and the Member States:

- To build capacity to strengthen implementation of CITES and policies for the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife in developing countries, ensuring complementarity of assistance provided, and
- To reinforce efforts to combat illegal trade through a strengthened and co-ordinated response and actions for the enforcement of CITES.

CONCLUSIONS

The EU, as one of the biggest global markets for wildlife trade, plays a contradictory role. While the EU advocates environmental governance and sustainable use, high demand in the EU for wildlife and wildlife products is a driver of illegal and unsustainable trade, which threatens the survival of wild plants, animals and their ecosystems, while also severely impacting the livelihoods of rural communities and national economies.

The European Commission and Member States have achieved a number of very positive steps in regulating wildlife trade, including a comprehensive regulatory framework for international and intra-EU trade and a number of very successful law enforcement actions. However, there is as yet no co-ordinated strategic approach to wildlife trade law enforcement, implementation, and compliance in the EU. To move beyond currently *ad hoc* approaches, co-ordinated EU plans for both Enforcement and Assistance are needed.

THE TRADE IN TROPICAL TIMBER

EU imports of selected tropical timber commodities including planks, plywood and veneers reached a value of over EUR1.3 billion in 2005. As a major timber importer, the EU has the responsibility to ensure that it is sourced legally and sustainably. The Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) process demonstrates how Community action can be galvanised towards eliminating illegal logging by supporting improved governance in range States. CITES has a crucial complementary role in addressing issues of sustainability.



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THE CITES STRATEGIC VISION 2008-2013

The CITES Strategic Vision Working Group has proposed a draft Strategic Vision for adoption at the 14th meeting of the Conference of the Parties to CITES in June 2007. This key document aligns the CITES agenda with the global development agenda, and provides a strategic guiding framework for the Parties in the implementation of CITES and sustainable wildlife trade.

THE TRADE IN REPTILES

In 2005, the EU was the top global importer by value of live reptiles (EUR7 million) for the pet trade, and reptile skins (EUR100 million) for products such as handbags and shoes. Imports into the EU have been suspended from countries where there are concerns about the sustainability of the trade. However, import suspensions do not automatically address original concerns. For example, 10 years after imports from Indonesia were suspended for certain species of Indonesian monitor lizards, original concerns remain unaddressed. A strategic EU action plan for external assistance should be developed, to enable priorities to be identified and addressed in collaboration with the range States to ensure wildlife trade is sustainable.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Enforcement

The European Commission, in collaboration with the EU Member States, should develop a strengthened response to enforcement within the EU in the form of a co-ordinated EU Wildlife Trade Enforcement Action Plan to ensure strategic enforcement interventions. This Action Plan should build upon initiatives already undertaken, such as the recommendations and action plan developed at the EU Wildlife Trade Enforcement Co-ordination Workshop (2005), ensuring relevance to on-going initiatives such as EU-TWIX, and incorporating findings of studies conducted since that time. The Action Plan should focus on co-ordinating enforcement within the EU while also facilitating inter-regional collaboration.

External assistance

The European Commission, in collaboration with the EU Member States, should develop a strategic EU Plan for External Assistance. This plan should focus on agreed priorities in CITES implementation identified by the EU, and demonstrate linkages with priorities identified by range States and the CITES Strategic Vision. Overarching themes should include incentives to encourage legal trade, building capacity to assist range States in making non-detriment and legal acquisition findings, and following up on import suspensions imposed on range States. Options should be explored within the Thematic Programme (ENRTP) to support priority actions in external countries where funds are not allocated under existing European Commission programmes or from the EU Member States. An EU Strategic Plan for External Assistance would ensure:

- Linkages with national and regional priorities identified by range States;
- Targeted assistance for priorities identified by the Commission and the Member States;
- Coordination between Environment and Development funding instruments;
- Enhanced coordination and complementarity of assistance;
- Maximising the effectiveness of aid provided;
- Monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness EU assistance provided by Commission programmes and through bi-lateral aid from the Member States.

INTRODUCTION

The European Union (EU) is one of the largest global markets for wildlife trade, with imports ranging from tropical timber to reptile skins, caviar, orchids and traditional medicines. Trade in wildlife is regulated in the EU through a common legal framework, the European Wildlife Trade Regulations (*Council Regulation (EC) No. 338/1997* and *Commission Regulation (EC) No. 865/2007*), and supported by national legislation in

The aims of this report are to:

- document the global role of the EU in wildlife trade;
- document the political commitments made by the EU to sustainable wildlife trade, and links to the global agenda of sustainable development;
- draw attention to existing EU regulatory mechanisms and instruments for external assistance and enforcement of wildlife trade regulations, and the potential for linkages with existing external mechanisms and strategies;
- show how the EU can meet its political commitments through building upon and linking with existing frameworks, to create co-ordinated and complementary EU plans for the strategic provision of assistance to range States, and the enforcement of wildlife trade within the EU;
- provide illustrative examples of how such strategic and co-ordinated plans for wildlife trade enforcement and external assistance could be developed, demonstrating also potential linkages with:
 - strategic EU actions for enforcement and existing frameworks;
 - complementary EU actions for sustainable wildlife trade and the draft CITES Strategic Vision (2008–2013);
 - external funding mechanisms for priorities not addressed through on-going programmes, such as the Thematic Programme under the EC.

the EU Member States. The sustainable trade in wildlife can provide social and economic benefits to both importing and exporting countries. However, the very scale of the EU demand for wildlife products can also create incentives for illegal and unsustainable trade, threatening biodiversity conservation and sustainable development.

As this report shows, the European Commission¹ (hereafter referred to as the EC) and EU Member States have taken a number of important steps to curtail illegal trade and have also provided assistance to wildlife range States to ensure trade is sustainable. But these efforts are largely conducted on an *ad hoc* basis: there is no co-ordinated strategy for enforcement within the EU, or for the provision of external assistance to producer countries (wildlife range States).

Co-ordinated efforts within a common framework with linkages and defined targets would enhance the effectiveness of EU actions for legal and sustainable trade. The EC, EU Member States, the European Council of Ministers, and the Secretariat and Parties to the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) have all recognized the need for strategic plans in order to achieve a sustainable and legal wildlife trade and to support sustainable development in range States.

METHODOLOGY

Information for this report was acquired through a literature review, analysis of trade data, and through requests to the European Union Member States' CITES Management Authorities and WWF/TRAFFIC offices for information regarding levels and types of external assistance provided and examples of enforcement actions carried out.

Trade data were obtained from various sources. Value data for wildlife commodities were obtained from the United Nations Commodity Trade Statistics Database (UN Comtrade). Declared import values were used for the commodities considered in this report. Six-digit HS2002 commodity codes were used in all cases for value data obtained from UN Comtrade.

Values for the EU-25 were derived from the "EU-25 global trade classification" of the UN Comtrade database. The 'EU-25' is an economic grouping created for statistical purposes with data provided by the Statistical Office of the European Union (Eurostat), and currently covers the years 1999-2005 (values pre-2004

when there were 15 EU Member States were reportedly adjusted retrospectively). These 'EU-25' values do not include intra-EU trade, and therefore will be different from the sum of individual country data for the EU Member States, which includes the value of trade between Member States. UN Comtrade's 'EU-25' has not yet been adjusted to include the newly acceded EU countries of Bulgaria and Romania and, consequently, as individual submissions from Romania and Bulgaria would include intra-EU trade values, these two countries have not been added to the 'EU-25' during this study.

Value estimates for trade in fisheries and timber were obtained from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations FAOSTAT database. Quantity data on the EU trade in tropical timber were taken from annual statistical publications of the 'Union pour le Commerce des Panneaux en Bois' (UCIP) and the 'Union pour le Commerce des Bois Durs dans l'UE' (UCBD).

All exchange rates used in currency conversions for this report were based on annual averages taken from historical currency exchange rates from the website www.oanda.com, for single or multiple years, as necessary. Prices have not been adjusted for inflation.

Quantities in trade and data on specific CITES Appendix-listed species were obtained from the CITES trade database administered by the United Nations Environ-

ment Programme – World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC). Where quantities are given for the EU, the EU-25 (rather than EU-27) was used for consistency with value data, unless otherwise stated.

The case studies in this report were chosen because they are demonstrative of broader issues in international wildlife trade related to taxonomic groups which are significant in wildlife trade to the EU

THE DEFINITION & SIGNIFICANCE OF WILDLIFE TRADE

‘Wildlife trade’ refers to the sale and exchange of animal and plant resources. This includes ornamental animal products such as corals for aquaria, reptile skins for the leather industry, tortoiseshell, as well as ornamental plants such as orchids and cacti. It also includes timber products, medicinal and aromatic products such as taxol, agarwood, and musk, fisheries products, and live animals for the pet trade including parrots, raptors, primates, and a wide variety of reptiles and ornamental fish (Broad *et al.*, 2003; Roe *et al.*, 2002).

Products made of wild animals and plants and their parts and derivatives contribute to the welfare of humans around the world, and especially in developing countries. Wildlife trade can occur at a very small scale of quantity and value, or it can be commercial and can represent significant economic value, such as the trade in timber and fisheries – valued globally at an estimated EUR222 billion in 2005 (see Table 1, p10). Also, the subsistence use of wild species as food can represent important sources of protein for people in rural communities, while trees and other plants provide fuel and construction materials. Wild species are also used for traditional medicines, for clothing and ornamentation, and may also have cultural significance.

THE GLOBAL AND EU WILDLIFE TRADE VALUES

The value of legal global international wildlife trade, including non-CITES species and based on declared import values in 2005, is conservatively estimated to be about EUR249 billion per year, with timber and fisheries accounting for about 90% of this value. As a comparison, the UN Statistics Division records the declared import value of the global trade in coffee, tea, and spices in 2005 at about EUR14 billion; while domestic sales of medicinal plants in China was valued at around EUR19 billion in 2002, and has increased by 8% a year since 1994 (T. Cunningham, People and Plants International, *in litt.*, 2007). Table 1 provides an estimate of the annual global value of international wildlife trade, and an

estimate of these values specifically for the EU. Wildlife traded at the national level or within the EU is not included in these estimates, but can represent significant value. Also, these estimates include only certain categories of commodities and do not include the value of the illegal trade in wildlife products. Consequently, this table is far from a complete representation of the value of wildlife trade either globally or in the EU, however it serves as an indication of its scale.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF WILDLIFE TRADE IN SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The trade in wild species can contribute significantly to rural incomes, and the effect upon local economies can be substantial, such as in the trade in Vicuña products (see page 56) (McNeill & Lichtenstein, 2003; Roe *et al.*, 2002). The high value of wildlife products and derivatives can also provide positive economic incentives that can compete with other land use options available to local people, protect wild species and their habitats, and maintain the resource for sustainable and profitable use in the medium and long term. Consequently, sustainable wildlife trade can be beneficial to species and habitat conservation, as well as contributing towards sustainable livelihoods and social development (Broad *et al.*, 2003; Roe *et al.*, 2002).² The sustainable trade in wildlife can consequently represent a positive contribution to human societies, without which we would live very different lives.

Wildlife trade can also represent a sizeable contribution to developed country economies. As Table 1 shows, the estimated declared import value of wildlife products in the EU was approximately EUR93 billion in 2005.³

The estimated import value for the global wildlife trade in 2005 was over EUR239 billion

The declared import value of the global trade in coffee, tea, and spices in 2005 was estimated at about EUR14 billion



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Table 1: Estimate of global and EU wildlife trade values, 2005

Commodity	Estimated global value (EUR)	Estimated EU value (EUR)
Live animals		
Primates	75 million	15 million
Cage birds	38 million	7 million
Birds of prey	5 million	0.2 million
Reptiles, including snakes & turtles	31 million	7 million
Ornamental fish	257 million	89 million
Animal products for clothing/ornamental		
Mammal furs and fur products	4 billion	494 million
Reptile skins	255 million	100 million
Ornamental corals and shells	85 million	15 million
Natural pearls	57 million	12 million
Animal products for food (excluding fish)		
Game meat	365 million	126 million
Frogs legs	40 million	16 million
Edible snails	60 million	19 million
Plant products		
Medicinal plants*	1 billion	324 million
Ornamental plants	11 billion	1.2 billion
Subtotal (excluding fisheries food products & timber)	17.2 billion	2.5 billion
Fisheries food products (excluding aquaculture)	68.6 billion	**26 billion
Timber	154 billion	64 billion
TOTAL	***239.5 billion	93 billion

* Estimate from 2004

** Estimate for all European countries.

*** Does not include global estimate for non-wood forest products of €9.5 bn (Iqbal 1995)

Source: TRAFFIC analysis based on UN Comtrade and FAOSTAT databases, 2006.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF WILDLIFE TRADE IN BIODIVERSITY LOSS

A number of factors including habitat loss and climate change contribute to global biodiversity loss. However, wildlife trade can be an equally significant threat to the survival of certain species, such as the Tiger for medicine and skins, and the Tibetan Antelope for its wool (Mills, 1999; Nowell, 2000). The 2006 IUCN Red List of Threatened Species records a significant increase in the number of animals and plants in the Critically Endangered, Endangered and Vulnerable categories between 1996 and 2006 (IUCN, 2007). The high value of wildlife

trade can increase threats to biodiversity by acting as a financial incentive for people to trade in wildlife products even when the trade is not sustainable (Broad *et al.*, 2003). For instance, in six UK wildlife trade prosecutions that occurred between 1996 and 2002, the value of the wildlife products concerned totalled GBP4 058 000 (over EUR6 million). These cases involved commodities from highly endangered species, such as rhino horns, shah-toosh shawls, and certain parrots and birds of prey (UK National Wildlife Crime Unit, *in litt.*, March 2007).

Due to the environmental, economic and social impacts of wildlife trade, regulation is necessary to ensure sustainable resource use and to avoid the depletion of natural capital and biodiversity loss (Broad *et al.*, 2003; Roe *et al.*, 2002).

Soft and hard corals, Fiji



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REGULATION OF INTERNATIONAL WILDLIFE TRADE

THE CONVENTION ON INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN ENDANGERED SPECIES OF WILD FAUNA & FLORA

CITES is an international agreement between governments that came into force in 1975. Its purpose is to ensure that no species of wild fauna or flora becomes or remains subject to unsustainable exploitation because of international trade. Because the trade in wild animals and plants crosses international borders, the effort to regulate it requires international co-operation to safeguard certain species from over-exploitation. CITES was conceived in the spirit of such co-operation. As of June 2007, there will be 171 member countries (Parties) to CITES.

Today, CITES accords varying degrees of protection to over 30 000 species of animals and plants, whether they are traded as live or dead specimens, parts (such as ivory or leather) or derivatives (such as medicines).

Parties to CITES act together by regulating trade in species listed in one of the three Appendices of CITES. Trade in specimens of CITES Appendix-listed species requires a permit or certificate issued by a national Management Authority. The Management Authority can only issue these permits when the national Scientific Authority has advised that the trade will not have a harmful impact on the status of the wild population (see also Annex I for further information).



Golden Barrel Cactus,
Echinocactus grusonii,
Arizona, USA

THE EU WILDLIFE TRADE REGULATIONS

All 27 EU Member States are Parties to CITES, and CITES is implemented in the EU through common regulations: *Council Regulation (EC) No. 338/97* and *Commission Regulation (EC) 865/2006* – henceforth the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations. The EU Wildlife Trade Regulations are directly applicable in all Member States. Each Member State is responsible for enacting national legislation appointing the CITES Management and Scientific Authorities, enabling seizure and confiscation of illegal specimens and laying down the penalties for illegal wildlife trade.

There are four Annexes (A, B, C and D) to the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations. Annexes A, B and C largely correspond to Appendix I, II and III of CITES, but also contain some non-CITES-listed species. Annex D, for which there is no equivalent in CITES, includes species that might be eligible for listing in one of the other Annexes and for which EU import levels are therefore monitored. To be consistent with other legal instruments in the EU, i.e. the Habitats Directive⁴ and the Birds Directive⁵, certain indigenous species listed in Appendices II and III of CITES are included in Annex A of the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations.

THE ROLE OF THE EU IN GLOBAL WILDLIFE TRADE

LEGAL WILDLIFE TRADE IN THE EU

The EU is one of the largest and most diverse markets in the world for live species, their products and derivatives (see Tables 1 & 2, p10 & 12). As EU membership has expanded from ten Member States in 1981 up to

27 Member States in 2007, the magnitude of the EU market for wildlife products has also increased. The EU-27 ranks as top global importer by value of many wildlife commodities, including reptile skins, live reptiles, caviar, live parrots⁶ and tropical timber (UNSD, 2006). In 2005, the trade in wildlife products in the EU had an estimated declared import value of EUR93 billion, and EUR2.5 billion excluding timber and fisheries

Table 2: Overview of quantity of global wildlife trade in major categories, 2000–2005

Taxa*	EU 27		US		RoW	
	Rank	% trade	Rank	% trade	Rank	% trade
African teak	1	66%	3	3%	2	31%
Caviar	1	49%	3	24%	2	27%
Live birds	1	70%	3	2%	2	28%
Corals	2	20%	1	63%	3	17%
Live reptiles	2	20%	1	62%	3	17%
Ramin	2	35%	3	7%	1	58%
Reptile skins	2	32%	3	8%	1	60%
Cacti	3	29%	2	33%	1	38%
Mahogany	3	2%	2	48%	1	50%
Orchids	3	10%	2	25%	1	65%

(see Table 1). EU Member States import significant quantities of both CITES-listed and non-CITES-listed taxa. For example, Germany's imports of medicinal plants, many not listed in CITES, amounted to over 36 000 tonnes with a value of over EUR85 million between 2003 and 2004 (R. Melisch, WWF/TRAFFIC Germany, *in litt.*, February 2007).

Table 2 presents an overview of wildlife trade in the main importing regions (EU-27, USA, and Rest of the World, abbreviated to 'RoW') for selected categories of CITES-listed species between 2000 and 2005 (details on quantities are provided in Annex II). The USA is used as a comparison as it too is a major global importer of wildlife products. From 2000–2005, the countries in the current EU-27 traded in significant quantities of wildlife products from CITES-listed species, including over 424 000 kg of caviar.

In Table 2, it is notable that the low quantity of live birds in trade to the USA is likely due to the USA Wild Bird Conservation Act of 1992, and a continuing moratorium on the importation of certain CITES-listed bird species. Interestingly, this moratorium may have played a role in the large volume of the live reptile trade in the USA, as the pet industry and consumers seek alternative pets to fill the market niche (Hoover, 1998). There is anecdotal evidence of a similar shift in trade from birds to reptiles in at least one EU Member State, following the ban on imports of birds due to the perceived threat of avian influenza.

ILLEGAL WILDLIFE TRADE IN THE EU

The globalization of world trade and advances in technology such as the Internet has provided new avenues for trade, both legal and illegal. At the same time, the creation of a common market within the EU has resulted

in fewer controls on intra-EU wildlife trade. The majority of wildlife trade is legal, however significant illegal trade also occurs. In part, this is due to the low political priority attached to wildlife trade which, in turn, leads to low risk of detection and often, low penalties relative to the high value of certain wildlife products.

Illegal trade in the EU can be a significant factor in biodiversity loss. Biennial reports submitted by the EU-25 to the EC show that from 2003 to 2004, enforcement authorities in the EU-25 made over 7000 seizures involving over 3.5 million CITES-listed specimens. Since 2001, the UK alone has seized over 142 t of illegally traded Ramin, a CITES Appendix II-listed timber species often used for picture frames and snooker cues. In addition, between 2000 and 2005, almost 12 t of caviar were reported as having been seized in the EU and Switzerland (see Table 11). More recent selected examples of seizures and confiscations from Member States are provided in Table 3.

In recent years, an increasing number of live parrots and reptiles have been seized in the newer EU Member States. For example, between 2000 and 2002, 248 parrots were seized in the Czech Republic and 172 in Slovakia. Among them were several EU Annex A and CITES Appendix I-listed species, such as the rare Cuban Amazon *Amazona leucocephala*, which has a low price in Cuba but is highly valued and often frequently

* Major categories of selected taxa only

Source: Adapted from UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database.

Table 3: Selected recent wildlife seizures by EU Member States, 2005–2007

Country	Date	Quantity	Specimen	Species
Austria	January 06	35	Live Indian Star Tortoises	<i>Geochelone elegans</i>
Estonia	December 06	5484	Seahorse specimens in jars	<i>Hippocampus spp.</i>
Hungary	February 06	400	Tins of repacked Russian caviar	Unspecified
	June 06	201	Live Hermann's Tortoises	<i>Testudo hermanni</i>
Romania	August 05	210	Kg of sturgeon meat	Unspecified
France	June 05	1839	Live orchids	Unspecified
	June 05	10	Live Ploughshare Tortoises	<i>Geochelone yniphora</i>
Italy	June 05	9000	Items of Traditional Asian Medicine products, including rhino, tiger, leopard, Musk Deer, pangolin, sea turtle, seahorse, and orchid root derivatives	Unspecified
	June 05	406	Live Egyptian Tortoises	<i>Testudo kleinmanni</i>
	November 06	409	Live Egyptian Tortoises	<i>Testudo kleinmanni</i>

Source: TRAFFIC compilation of information provided by EU Member States, *in litt.* to TRAFFIC Europe.



The legal trade in species used in traditional Asian medicines (TAM), and the associated illegal trade, illustrates the global scale of the trade in endangered species from source countries in Asia. Of 41 premises surveyed in the UK in 2000, over half stocked TAM ingredients claiming to contain EU Wildlife Trade Regulation Annex A-listed species including Costus root, leopard bone, bear bile, and musk (Pendry, 2000; Theile, 2000). In the Netherlands, eight sea containers containing medicinal derivatives of Tiger, rhino, bears, Musk Deer, Saiga Antelope and pangolin were seized along with Hawksbill Turtle shell and dried orchid roots (Lowther *et al.*, 2002).

illegally traded in the EU (Theile *et al.*, 2004; M. Rocco, TRAFFIC Europe, *pers. comm.*, April 2007).

Tortoises are frequently found in illegal trade into the EU: between 2000 and 2001 on the Polish-Ukrainian border, Polish authorities seized over 2200 Horsfield's Tortoises *Testudo horsfieldii* (Theile, *et al.*, 2004). This is particularly significant because although Horsfield's tortoises are listed in CITES Appendix II and EU Annex B, trade is banned in specimens which originate from the wild. In the 1990s, more specimens of Egyptian Tortoise *Testudo kleinmanni* were seized in illegal trade than are estimated to survive in the wild today⁷ (IUCN Red List, 2003; TRAFFIC, 2006b). The Egyptian Tortoise is listed in CITES Appendix I and EU Annex A, and is classified as Critically Endangered on the IUCN 2003 Red List. From 2002–2006, almost 1000 Egyptian Tortoises were seized in trade to the EU, representing around 13% of the total population in the wild (TRAFFIC, 2006b).

Illegal trade is by definition a hidden activity with no reliable data, so quantifying its scale and value is difficult. However, the black market value for wildlife products can be very high: for example, on the black market, one Ploughshare Tortoise can fetch EUR30 000 and a pair of Radiated Tortoises *Geochelone radiata*, popular in the pet trade, can fetch over EUR7370 (Broad *et al.*, 2003; Theile, *et al.*, 2004; TRAFFIC, 2006).

Illegal wildlife trade:
Chinese medicine made
of wildlife species, seized
at customs

The high value of wildlife products can create a significant incentive for people to become involved in the trade, especially the rural poor (Roe *et al.*, 2002). For example, the value of the illegal trade in caviar is thought to be several times greater than the value of the legal trade (Knapp *et al.*, 2006) which was estimated at over EUR244 million in 2005 (UNSD, 2006). When unsustainable trade leads to international trade restrictions either through CITES or through the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations, but conservation and socio-economic concerns are not addressed, people previously dependent on the trade may decide to trade wildlife illegally in order to maintain their income. Moreover, illegal trade bypasses the mechanisms designed to ensure sustainability, circumvents taxes and can result in significant losses to local and national economies. In Tanzania for example, 96% of potential government revenue from the timber industry was lost due to under-collection of royalties and illegal trade (Milledge *et al.*, 2007).

OBSTACLES TO COMBATING ILLEGAL WILDLIFE TRADE

Wildlife is traded illegally in many ways, for instance by changing the items' appearance or concealing them within legal shipments, false Customs declarations, using fraudulent permits, and through diplomatic baggage which can bypass Customs checks (Cook *et al.*, 2002).

Further difficulties are encountered because many range States face difficulties in implementing and enforcing CITES and domestic legislation. To take just one example, there is a documented lack of enforcement, management and other human resource capacities required to support the sustainable wildlife trade from range States such as those in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)⁸. Identified needs

Examples of seizures where wildlife products have been concealed include rhino horns concealed within statues, stained ivory hidden in wood shipments, live hatchlings of rare bird species mixed with shipments of domestic chicken hatchlings, and even suitcases filled with rare birds stuffed into tubes (Coward, 2002).

include: training (e.g. for Customs and enforcement officers); the development of tools such as species identification guides; and increased communication and co-operation to ensure successful enforcement of wildlife trade legislation (CITES, 2003; Soehartono & Mardiasuti, 2002; ASEAN Regional Action Plan).

The difficulties created by inadequate capacity for successful enforcement are exacerbated by the complex trade routes of many wildlife products. For example, products such as reptile skins are imported, processed, re-exported for manufacture, and finally imported for sale in several different countries, passing through transit countries before reaching their final destinations. Such multiple re-exports through different stages of processing can be exploited to launder illegal specimens with legal shipments. Also, certain producer and transit countries have special trading relationships with particular EU countries (e.g. Suriname and the Netherlands) that may result in less stringent import controls (Cowdrey, 2002). Also, trade from dependant overseas territories, such as the British Virgin Islands and the Dutch and French Antilles is considered as intra-EU trade although it originates from overseas. Complex trade dynamics, differing national legislation and varying levels of enforcement capacity mean that communication and co-ordination between enforcement officers at the national, regional and international levels is essential to address illegal trade.

Although some offenders are linked with legitimate trade networks, there is growing evidence that organised crime syndicates are engaged in the more lucrative areas of illegal wildlife trade for both CITES-listed and non-CITES-listed species, and increasingly use sophisticated poaching and smuggling techniques, fraudulent permits, and violence towards enforcement officers (Raymakers, 2002; Parry-Jones *et al.*, 2005). Particular groups of species such as birds of prey, parrots, and tortoises are consistently targeted by organised crime groups. Other major groups include plants (e.g. timber, bulbs, moss and orchids), fish (e.g. sturgeon and Patagonian Toothfish) as well as rhinoceros and tiger products. There are also instances of wildlife trade being associated with the illegal trade in drugs, as the techniques and principles for smuggling wildlife and wildlife products are the same as for smuggling drugs, weapons, and people.

Tourist souvenirs are frequently seized, and many wildlife products are smuggled into the EU in personal luggage or in the post. For example, in January 2007, over 24 kg caviar worth about EUR100 000 was seized at Cologne Airport. The shipment had been sent in the post, probably originating from the Russian Federation, and did not adhere to the caviar labelling requirements which have been in place in the EU since July 2006.⁹

Sale of wildlife over the internet is an emerging trend that is difficult to regulate (IFAW, 2005). In the UK in December 2005, a man was sentenced to eight months in custody for illegally purchasing and selling specimens of CITES-listed bird species for taxidermy over the internet.

A large herd of Chiru or Tibetan Antelope, *Pantholops hodgsoni*, in the Aqik Lake plain (4250m high) Arjin Mountains Nature Reserve, Xinjiang, China



In April 2000, UK Metropolitan Police seized 138 shahtoosh shawls from a London company. Shahtoosh is derived from the Tibetan Antelope *Pantholops hodgsonii*, fully protected in China and listed in CITES Appendix I and Annex A of the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations. Tibetan Antelope are hunted illegally on the Tibet plateau in China, and their wool is smuggled to India where it is woven. An estimated 1000 Tibetan Antelope would have been killed to provide the wool for these 138 shawls, which had a market value estimated at EUR517 000. The company was fined only EUR2195. Although the merchandise was also forfeited, inconsequential fines like this have little deterrent effect for illegal traders (Cook *et al.*, 2002).

Increasing penalties and raising awareness amongst the judiciary has evident benefits. In October 2006 a leading London barber was fined over EUR15 000 after 24 ivory specimens were seized from three of their upmarket shops (Anon., 2006). Specimens included shaving brushes, ivory hairbrushes, glove stretchers and an elephant's tusk, and were on sale for up to GBP1100 each. This seizure of illegal ivory products is an example of positive enforcement action, where the penalty for illegal traders was significant relative to the value of the illegal products, and therefore a deterrent to other illegal wildlife traders. Penalties against illegal wildlife traders were strengthened in the UK in 2003, to lead to more successful prosecutions such as this. Illegal trade in wildlife was made an arrestable offence and the maximum prison sentence was increased from two to five years (WWF, 2003).

Low awareness amongst the judiciary is also an exacerbating factor: even EU Member States with legislation allowing for high penalties may find that illegal traders escape heavy fines or imprisonment because prosecutors do not understand the impact that illegal trade can have on species, ecosystems and livelihoods. Since 2000 when the low penalty for the shahtoosh seizure was imposed, penalties in the UK have been increased and training workshops to raise awareness amongst the judiciary carried out.

THE CURRENT STATUS & EFFECTIVENESS OF EU ACTIVITIES

EU POLITICAL COMMITMENTS

The EU has made several international and regional commitments to ensuring wildlife trade in both CITES and non-CITES-listed species is sustainable, and that it is linked to sustainable development. At the international level, the EU has committed to meeting the targets for sustainable development agreed upon in the 2000 UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD). These commitments focus on integrating the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes, and reversing the loss of environmental resources at the international scale. Within the European region there are a number of policy commitments relevant to wildlife trade:

Following from the 2006 Conference on Integrating Biodiversity in European Development Co-operation in Paris, the Council of the EU¹⁵ adopted Conclusions¹⁶ that strongly emphasised that conservation, sustainable use and equitable sharing of benefits from biodiversity are core development issues. The Conclusions also highlighted the importance of including biodiversity in policy dialogue processes with partner countries and regions, encouraging them to further identify needs and prioritize them in national and regional development strategies and plans. The links to good governance and coherence with relevant international conventions, such as CITES, were emphasized.

These political commitments set a positive course for the EU in taking responsibility for the potential negative effects of its vast demand for wildlife, integrating sustainable development into policies, and linking good governance and biodiversity conservation. However, they are vague in terms of actions, concrete targets

The EU Sustainable Development Strategy¹⁰ adopted in 2001 and revised in June 2006, aims in part to manage natural resources more responsibly. The environmental component for this was provided by the Sixth Community Environment Action Plan, which establishes a programme of Community action on the environment for 2002–2012, and which gave rise to 'Countdown 2010'. Launched in May 2004, Countdown 2010 includes EU objectives of supporting the full implementation of all the existing binding international commitments and necessary actions to conserve biodiversity.

The Community Environment Action Plan also led to the development of the Thematic Strategy on the Sustainable Use of Natural Resources¹¹ in 2005, which sets out a framework to factor the environmental impact of resource use into public policy-making. Another relevant instrument is the Thematic Programme for Environment and Sustainable Management of Natural Resources in the Context of the 2007–2013 Financial Perspectives, September 2005.

In general terms, these commitments aim to reduce the negative environmental impacts generated by the use of natural resources in a growing economy, to address the environmental dimensions of the EU's external policies and to address global environmental changes.

The 2004 European Neighbourhood Policy and Action Plans further note the importance of protecting biodiversity and the need for action plans to prevent environmental degradation through national and regional approaches. To fulfil the EU's responsibility to sustainable development under Goal 7 of the UN MDGs, the EU has committed¹² to lead global efforts to curb unsustainable consumption and production patterns and assist developing countries in implementing Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs), such as CITES.

The 2006 Biodiversity Action Plan¹³ implements the broad strategy outlined in the European Commission Communication 'Halting the Loss of Biodiversity by 2010 – And Beyond: Sustaining ecosystem services for human well-being'¹⁴. Objective 8 specifically aims to substantially reduce the impact of international trade on global biodiversity and ecosystem services, and to ensure that trade in CITES species is effectively regulated.

The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness of 2005 focuses specifically on external assistance of all Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) donors. As a result, the EU has committed to increased efforts in harmonization, alignment and managing external assistance to recipient countries. This Declaration was a follow-up to previous commitments on harmonization of assistance at the High-Level Forum on Harmonization in Rome (2003) and the Marrakech Roundtable on Managing Development Results (2004), which included increasing the impact of aid on reducing poverty and building capacity.

and timelines required to achieve these goals, and lack specific guidance on meeting these obligations. Furthermore, despite the existence of the Scientific Review Group (SRG) process (see page 19) which attempts to reduce unsustainable wildlife trade into the EU through restricting imports, the lack of targeted and complementary follow-up assistance to affected countries hinders the much-needed capacity building efforts for those range States to meet their goals of sustainable wildlife trade.

Recognising the need for a more co-ordinated and strategic approach in the CITES arena, the Council of Ministers of the EU enacted Council Conclusions on biodiversity conservation in December 2006 which refer specifically to CITES implementation. Requirements were noted in two key areas to achieve sustainable trade in wildlife:

- Capacity-building to strengthen the implementation of CITES and of policies for the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife in developing countries, ensuring complementarity of assistance provided; and,
- Enhanced co-ordination and co-operation in enforcement efforts in the EU, to combat illegal wildlife trade.

CONCLUSION

The EU's high-level political commitments provide a solid foundation for regulating wildlife trade, conserving biodiversity, and supporting sustainable development.

However, comprehensive EU-level plans on assistance and enforcement remain a much needed and important practical measure to fulfil these goals. The EC goals of enhanced complementarity and co-ordination are supported by the Goals and Objectives of the draft CITES Strategic Vision for 2008–2013 (see Annex I), for discussion at CITES CoP 14 in June 2007.

The CITES Strategic Vision (CSV) is being developed to contribute to the achievement of the WSSD targets of significantly reducing the rate of biodiversity loss by 2010. In addition to calling for co-ordination of assistance efforts for more effective capacity building and technical assistance in range States, the CSV aims at enhancing co-operation in wildlife trade enforcement efforts. The CSV does not serve as an action plan that prescribes how the goals and objectives are to be achieved, but leaves the CITES Committees, Secretariat and the Parties to specify their own required actions.

EU ACHIEVEMENTS IN EFFECTIVE ENFORCEMENT

The EU-27 is not only one of the main markets for wildlife trade, but it is also one of the most complex, being one trading block with one set of comprehensive Wildlife Trade Regulations, but 27 different sets of measures and procedures for controlling wildlife trade and enforcing the Wildlife Trade Regulations. Lack of internal border controls within the EU means that strict controls are required at external borders,

Certified tropical rain-forest with commercial Meranti tree, Northern Malaysia



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and that there is a need for strong co-operation among the different enforcement agencies in Member States (Parry-Jones *et al.*, 2005). EU Member States have accomplished a number of positive wildlife trade enforcement initiatives in recent years. Four examples are detailed below.

1. FOREST LAW ENFORCEMENT, GOVERNANCE AND TRADE

Logging that occurs in contravention of national and international laws causes enormous environmental damage in developing countries, threatening species, ecosystems and impoverishing rural communities that depend upon forest products. Illegal logging also costs governments in developing countries an estimated EUR10–15 billion every year in lost revenue (EC, 2003). Illegal logging is closely associated with bribery and corruption which, in turn, curtails much growth and prosperity in the developing world.

Building on commitments given at the WSSD, in May 2003 the EC published an EU Action Plan for Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT). The Action Plan sets out an innovative approach to tackling illegal logging, which links the push for good governance in developing countries with the legal instruments and leverage offered by the EU's own internal market. The core components of the Action Plan are support for improved governance in wood-producing countries, and a licensing scheme for range States that enter into bilateral Voluntary Partnership Agreements (VPAs), to ensure only legal timber enters the EU. It provides a means of strategic capacity-building efforts in producer countries, development of tools such as verification systems for legal timber, and strengthening enforcement co-ordination to combat illegal trade. The FLEGT Action Plan creates a voluntary bilateral export licensing system for legal timber with 'Partner Countries', initially for a small set of unprocessed and minimally processed commodities (EC, 2003; Chen, 2006).

The EU has begun the process for achieving these VPAs, identifying a few key producer countries in Africa and Asia for fact-finding missions and intergovernmental discussions. EU missions for VPA negotiations to tropical timber range States include those from the Netherlands to Malaysia, from Germany to Cameroon, from the UK to Ghana, and from France to the Republic of the Congo and Gabon (Chen, 2006).

The FLEGT Action Plan also provides some measures for the provision of assistance from EU Member States. It recognizes that implementing the VPA scheme would require capacity building and investment by Partner Countries, and states that as a consequence they would be given priority for EU development assistance for FLEGT-related measures. Assistance to Partner Countries for building the capacity required to meet the FLEGT commitments could be included through EU technical and financial assistance negoti-

Illegal logging costs governments in developing countries an estimated EUR10–15 billion every year in lost revenue.

Below: Loading logs, Congo



2. ENFORCEMENT CO-ORDINATION STRUCTURES

Effective enforcement depends entirely upon collaboration at the national, regional or inter-regional level. Under the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations, the EU has established the Enforcement Group (EG) to co-ordinate enforcement activities within the EU-27. Although the EG meets twice a year to identify and address issues of common concern, there is currently no strategic plan guiding its actions. The EG has no mandate to form national co-ordination structures within each EU Member State. However, national enforcement co-ordination structures are critical; they form the very foundation upon which national, regional and inter-regional collaboration can effectively happen. Examples of national, regional and international collaboration in enforcement include:

The UK's Partnership for Action Against Wildlife Crime (PAW) brings together the Police, HM Revenue and Customs, and representatives of Government Departments and voluntary bodies to provide a co-ordinated and strategic approach to wildlife law enforcement. Examples of successes include an investigation in December 2006, which resulted in a person in the UK being fined the equivalent of over EUR8 000 for selling endangered species including products derived from bear, seahorse, saiga antelope, musk deer and rare species of orchid and tree fern.

Operation CONDOR: in 2005 the Italian enforcement authorities carried out a highly successful investigation and joint enforcement action with Austrian and German enforcement authorities. Subsequently, 'Operation CONDOR' resulted in the seizure of 12 eggs and 186 CITES Appendix-listed birds of prey as well as the conviction of two persons (M. Rocco, TRAFFIC Italy, *in litt.*, 2007).

The Task Force on Organised Crime in the Baltic Sea Region, comprised of Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Iceland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Poland, Russian Federation and Sweden, provides a suitable forum for exchange of information between the EU and the Baltic Sea Region.

3. EU TRADE IN WILDLIFE INFORMATION EXCHANGE

One of the obstacles facing EU enforcement officers in combating illegal wildlife trade used to be the lack of data sharing between Member States, and the use of outdated information technology. EU-TWIX (European Union

– Trade in Wildlife Information Exchange) was created in 2005 as an innovative enforcement database and as a mailing list to facilitate the exchange of information between Member State enforcement agencies on illegal wildlife trade. Co-founded by the Belgian Federal Police, Customs and CITES Management Authority, as well as TRAFFIC Europe, with financial support from the EC, EU-TWIX grants officials designated by the EU-27 exclusive access to centralised information on wildlife trade seizures reported by Member States, and information on forensics institutes, rescue centres and wildlife trade experts (TRAFFIC, 2005). As of March 2007, 300 law enforcement officers from the 27 EU Member States have access to EU-TWIX and 16 000 seizure cases have been recorded in the database. Collaboration and information exchange with the World Customs Organization (WCO) concerning the transfer of seizures data to the EU-TWIX database is on-going and reduces the reporting burden for law enforcement agencies. Exchange of information via the EU-TWIX email list enabled two EU Member States jointly to investigate illegal trade in January 2006, and facilitated the arrest of persons involved in the traffic of poison arrow frogs (*Dendrobates* spp.) in March 2006 (TRAFFIC Europe, *in litt.*, 2007). EU-TWIX is currently funded by the UK Department for Environment, Food, and Rural Affairs (Defra), and the Dutch Ministry of Agriculture, Nature, and Food Quality.

4. EU WILDLIFE TRADE ENFORCEMENT COORDINATION WORKSHOP AND ACTION PLAN

During the UK's last presidency of the EU, the UK Government in collaboration with TRAFFIC, co-hosted the EU WTEC workshop in October 2005, recognising that improved co-ordination between Member States was required for effective enforcement to combat the growing illegal trade in wildlife. It was attended by enforcement officers involved in the control of wildlife trade, such as Customs, police and inspection officers from all EU Member States, the EC, Interpol and the CITES Secretariat. It resulted in a comprehensive Action Plan for Combating Illicit Wildlife Trade in the European Union, 2006–2010, for increased enforcement co-ordination in the EU (Parry-Jones *et al.*, 2005).

The Action Plan consists of four major objectives, and specific action points for achieving them. The objectives are:

- To assist Member States in strengthening cooperation and communication within and beyond the EU;
- To assist national enforcement co-ordination within Member States;
- To increase the capacity and ability of Member States to implement and enforce the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations, and
- To ensure that further development of legislation is in place so that Member States are able to effectively implement and enforce the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations.



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Blue poison frog,
Dendrobates azureus,
Suriname

CONCLUSION

The outcomes of the EU WTEC workshop provide a solid framework for an EU Wildlife Trade Enforcement Action Plan for co-ordinated and strategic interventions to combat illegal wildlife trade.

The EC and the EU Member States have achieved a number of very positive steps in regulating wildlife trade. However, there is as yet no co-ordinated strategic approach to wildlife trade law enforcement in the EU and current approaches are on an *ad hoc* basis. This shortcoming has been acknowledged from ground-level enforcement officers right up to the Ministers of Environment of every EU Member State.

The Council Conclusion¹⁷ adopted by the EU Council of Ministers on 18 December 2006 calls upon the EC and the Member States to reinforce efforts to combat illegal trade in CITES-listed species, and to strengthen a co-ordinated response and actions for the enforcement of CITES.

A co-ordinated EU Wildlife Trade Enforcement Action Plan provides an appropriate response to build upon these commitments for more effective enforcement.

EU EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENTAL ASSISTANCE FOR SUSTAINABLE WILDLIFE TRADE

The EC states that sustainable development, integration into the world economy, poverty reduction, and democracy and the rule of law are the overall objectives for Official Development Assistance (ODA). The relationship between sustainable development and biodiversity conservation is now universally accepted: the WSSD called for a significant reduction by 2010 in the current rate of loss of biodiversity, and achievement of the MDGs and WSSD objectives relating to poverty eradication and environmental sustainability also rely significantly on reducing the rate of biodiversity loss.

ODA from the EC and EU Member States totalled approximately EUR35 billion in 2004. The EC distributed 53% of external aid to Africa, and 24% to Asia, with 44% going to social sectors, 12% to infrastructure, and 11% to programme assistance (EC & OECD, 2006). At a global level, the EU¹⁸ ranks third in ODA as percentage of Gross National Income in 2004 (0.34%), after Norway and Switzerland.

Between 2003 and 2004, through the European Development Fund and the general budget of the EU, budgetary commitments to general environmental protection totalled EUR279 million, representing 1.8% of total EC aid (OJEU, 2006). In 2005, the EC and Member States invested roughly EUR45 billion, which represents more than half (52%) of global official development assistance (EC& OECD, 2006).

Support for multilateral environmental agreements is provided in part through the EC's International Environment budget line, which provides EUR8 million per year (EC, 2006a). Additionally, in 2004 the EC dedicated EUR19 million through its Environment Programme, which focused on capacity building in developing countries for the implementation of multilateral environmental agreements. Commitments from the EU which were focused principally or significantly on the environment are not available but, from 1995 to 2004, multi-sectoral aid which includes environment represented only 8% of the EU's total ODA commitments (EC & OECD, 2006). EU

funding has been crucial in putting the international environmental architecture in place and the focus for external assistance has now moved to implementation (EC, 2006a).

The EC has stated that enhanced co-ordination between EU development and external assistance policy, and other relevant EU-led policies is required in order to effectively implement the MDGs (EC, 2006). It specifies that donors should focus on areas where they can add the most value, given what others are doing, and improve co-operation and complementarity as a result. While good cases of complementarity are being developed on an *ad hoc* basis with range States, they remain limited, and the EC states that they “*lack the systematic approach that will create the qualitative jump essential to responding effectively to the MDGs*”. Pursuant to these requirements, at the Council of November 2004, EU Member States agreed to establish complementarity as an operational objective (EC, 2006). Furthermore, while the EC provided significant assistance to external countries in 2005, they explain that the effectiveness of such aid could be enhanced considerably:

“The picture that is emerging of progress in implementing the commitments made in Rome¹⁹ and Marrakech²⁰ shows that, while the scope of activities undertaken and their geographical coverage is impressive, good practice has not yet become general. When measured against the commitment to make significant changes to the ways donors manage and deliver aid in partner countries, the progress made so far lacks momentum in applying good practice deeply and systematically. There is still need for a considerable effort by donors – bilateral and multilateral, working with country partners – to scale up aid effectiveness collectively.” (EC, 2006, p. 121)

Mechanisms for improving co-ordination and complementarity of bilateral aid from Member States and other donors have been discussed by the European Council in the context of the Country Strategy Papers (CSPs). The CSP, along with the Regional Strategy Paper (RSP), is an EC tool for prioritising development assistance efforts to recipient countries. Within the CSP/RSP is the Country or Regional Environment Profile (CEP/REP), created to guide the environmental priorities and mainstreaming of CSPs. Despite this, since the creation of CSPs in 2001, environmental issues have not featured strongly in CSPs. Out of 60 CSPs reviewed by the European Court of Auditors in 2006, not one of them mentioned the MDG on environmental sustainability and only a quarter of them referred to other multilateral environmental agreements. Furthermore, out of 20 African, Caribbean and Pacific countries reviewed, only one country, Tanzania, had EC budget support designated for environmental issues (OJEU, 2006).

Official Development Assistance from the EC and EU Member States totalled approximately EUR35 billion in 2004

A second generation of CSPs is being developed for Asia, Latin America and the Mediterranean for the period 2007–2013, and for Africa, Caribbean and the Pacific for 2008–2013. However, the impact of this improvement will depend on the level of priority both recipient countries and the EC place on addressing environmental issues in the CSP (OJEU, 2006). Although recipient countries determine the direction that the CSPs will go, not all countries are aware of the value of the resources that are being taken out of the country or of potential revenue lost and in some cases, are not even aware that resources are being taken out of the country. Consumer countries or regions, such as the EU, therefore have a key role in working with recipient countries and ensuring that environmental priorities are included in the CSPs.

ACHIEVING CO-ORDINATED AND EFFECTIVE EXTERNAL ASSISTANCE

Initial steps towards increasing the co-ordination and complementarity of development assistance have been taken by the EC. These steps, a major part of the Development Consensus, include the publication of the EU Donor Atlas and EC Annual Reports on the European Community's development policy and the implementation of external assistance, to highlight areas and scope for improvements. EU Member States agreed to open debate at cross-country level on the basis of the EU Donor Atlas (EC, 2006).

Given the EU's major role in global wildlife trade and its political commitments to sustainable development and sustainable wildlife trade, the EU has the responsibility to work with range States to address problems identified in managing wildlife trade. This leads to a significant role for the EU in the provision of external assistance, to:

- Ensure trade from range States is sustainable and legal; and,
- Support sustainable development in range States.

The EC and Member States are involved in a number of external assistance efforts relating to wildlife trade, including FLEGT, as noted earlier. Another example is the EC's support to the CITES programme Monitoring the Illegal Killing of Elephants (MIKE) (EC, 2006b). The EC contributes just under EUR10 million over five years to MIKE. This is considered as contributing to the EC Development Policy objectives of reducing poverty as it entails a support for sustainable economic, social and environmental development, based, *inter alia*, on the wise use of natural resources (CITES, 2006a). Funding for MIKE was allocated under African, Caribbean, and Pacific (ACP) project financing which, in turn, came under financing for operations under the ninth European Development Fund (EDF). EC funding for external environmental issues which are not particular to one

country and therefore not appropriate for funding from a geographical budget (Country or Regional Strategy Paper) is allocated under the newly developed Thematic Programme (ENRTP), organized under the Development Co-operation Instrument (DCI) (EC, 2006b). Priority areas under the ENRTP are:

1. Working upstream on MDG7 – capacity building for environmental integration, supporting civil society, environmental monitoring and assessment;
2. Promoting implementation of EU and internationally agreed commitments including FLEGT, fisheries, marine resources, biodiversity, water, chemicals, sustainable consumption;
3. Better integration by EU – practical approaches for poverty and the environment under new forms of aid delivery;
4. Strengthening environmental governance and EU leadership. Promotion of a United Nations Environment Office, voluntary support for secretariats of multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs), promoting effective compliance regimes for MEAs, supporting developing country preparation for and participation in negotiations, monitoring and assessment initiatives, and
5. Support for sustainable energy options in partner countries and regions.



Individual EU Member States also contributed funds to MIKE, as well as to the Elephant Trade Information System (ETIS), established to monitor and evaluate trends in illegal ivory trade²¹ (see Annex III for further examples). Finding comprehensive information on where funds have been provided from Member States and/or the EC for projects in third countries proved extremely difficult. Some information was obtained from the regional reports submitted to the CITES Standing Committee (see Annex III), but consolidated records on funds provided for CITES-related projects in third countries from development or environment programmes in the EC or in Member States do not currently exist.

An information-sharing system would provide a simple means of monitoring where assistance has been provided and where gaps still remain. Prioritised goals based on an EU external assistance strategic plan would enable funds to be targeted where they were most needed and technical expertise to be provided according to the principles of labour division, that is, according to the strengths of the Member States, thereby ensuring that the impact of such aid was maximised.

CONCLUSION

A first step towards achieving transparency and more co-ordinated assistance would be through common goals and a common information sharing system, which could be managed by the EC. This database would provide both an overview and an early warning system to identify overlaps and gaps in needed support.

Steps towards identifying needs of range States and the role of consumer countries include dialogue and workshops bringing together relevant stakeholders. A CITES workshop on mega-biodiversity exporters was held in 2001 in Belgium, focusing on capacity-building for countries that export significant numbers of CITES-listed species. This workshop was hosted by the CITES Secretariat with financial assistance from the EC, and provided a forum for range States and the EU to exchange experiences and identify main challenges in CITES implementation in range States. Many challenges were identified, from administrative and resource capacity matters to science and resource management, and the integration of economics and development into wildlife conservation.

Another example of consultation with range States for sustainable wildlife trade is the on-going National Wildlife Trade Policy Reviews project under CITES. This project was funded by the EU through the UNEP-UNCTAD²² Capacity Building Task Force on Trade, Environment and Development (UNEP-UNCTAD CBTF) and the Geneva International Academic Network (GIAN), and focuses on the development of guidelines for conducting wildlife trade policy reviews and the implementation of pilot projects in four developing countries: Madagascar, Nicaragua, Uganda and Viet Nam. These countries were selected in part due to mega-biodiversity and significant volumes of wildlife trade in CITES-listed species. This project is one with which the EU may wish to remain engaged, as the policy reviews are likely to identify cross-cutting themes across countries involved and, particularly for significant exporters to the EU, could be considered within the context of the ENRTP and EU assistance to range States (CITES, 2007).

Prioritising and streamlining assistance to States which export wildlife products to the EU would be facilitated through a workshop bringing range States together with the EC and EU Member States. A workshop would stimulate dialogue between exporting countries and the EU, identify the broad themes and challenges in CITES implementation and identify priorities for EU external assistance.



THE EC SCIENTIFIC REVIEW GROUP PROCESS

One process for the EC and Member States to work with range States in prioritising external EU actions for sustainable wildlife trade is already established within the work of the Scientific Review Group (SRG). Although the purpose and spirit behind the SRG process is laudable, in practice there are many obstacles to overcome, and the potential of the SRG process has yet to be fully realized.

SCIENTIFIC REVIEW GROUP AND IMPORT RESTRICTIONS

To ensure that wildlife trade in the EU is occurring on a sustainable basis, the SRG was established under *Council Regulation (EC) No 338/97* to conduct reviews of the conservation status of species listed in the Annexes of the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations. The SRG consists of representatives from all EU Scientific Authorities who meet regularly and evaluate available data to determine whether imports of a species from a particular country into the EU should be restricted. Such decisions are based predominantly upon whether trade would have a harmful impact on the status of the species in the wild.

Negative Opinions (temporary restriction of imports) or Import Suspensions (longer term and formalised through inclusion in an EC regulation) for specific species and country combinations are formulated upon the advice of the SRG. These are reviewed, where possible, to determine whether the situation has improved and whether the import restrictions could be lifted.

In practice, import restrictions put in place via the SRG can mean that exports of a species from a country are not allowed into the EU until that country has addressed the concerns of the SRG. This may include providing information regarding management plans and methodology for the establishment of export quotas.

Unintended outcomes of this process, however, can occur. For example, trade from range States with a trade suspension can be re-directed to the EU via countries that are not subject to trade restrictions. In the early 1990s, as a result of EU import restrictions, specimens of African Grey Parrots *Psittacus erithacus* (pictured left) were exported from Côte d'Ivoire to South Africa then re-exported to the EU. Another unintended outcome is that trade from other countries increases, perhaps at unsustainable levels: following the suspension of African Grey Parrot imports from Ghana, the Central African Republic, Guinea and Liberia, trade in this species increased from other range States (Valaoras, 1998).

Of great concern also, is that after a trade restriction has been imposed, capacity building in the range State to address the original SRG concerns may not occur, either because it is not explicit in the SRG mandate or because it is not identified as a priority for the EC or any Member State. Therefore the underlying socio-economic, scientific and resource management problems which generated the unsustainable trade remain unaddressed.

CONCLUSION

For example, in 1997/98, EU import restrictions were put in place for Indonesia on four species of monitor lizard, among others: Dumeril's Monitor *Varanus dumerilii*, Peach-throated Monitors *V. jobiensis*, Beccari's Monitor *V. prasinus beccari*, and the Crocodile Monitor *V. salvadorii*, due to a lack of scientific justification for export quotas. To this day, the original conservation concerns for these species remain unaddressed and the EU import restrictions are still in place.

A positive example of how the SRG process can be followed up is seen in Guinea.

EU imports of raptors from Guinea were restricted under the stricter measures of the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations, as trade was believed by the SRG to be detrimental to the survival of the species.

Information required to determine that trade was not having a detrimental impact (a 'non-detriment finding' or NDF) on the species in the wild was unavailable because of limited financial, technical and scientific capacity in Guinea.

The UK Government, through its Management and Scientific Authorities, funded technical assistance to Guinea in 2005–2006 to conduct 'non-detriment findings' with the hope that it would result in an improved and shared understanding of the current status of Guinean raptors in trade, as well as contributing to baseline conservation data for these species.



Savanna monitor, *Varanus exanthematicus*, Africa

Turtle *Cuora amboinensis* and Reticulated Python *Python reticulatus*. NDF methodologies for the turtle and snake species are of particular relevance to the EU given the large trade volumes of these taxa to the EU (J. Compton, TRAFFIC Southeast Asia, *in litt.*, February 2007).

The Conclusion²⁴ adopted by the EU Council of Ministers on 18 December 2006 stresses the need for capacity building to facilitate the implementation of CITES and policies for the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife in developing countries. It is the first time there has been such high level political engagement in wildlife trade issues and demonstrates the growing political attention to wildlife trade and the on-going explorations on how to integrate environment into development considerations.

This plan should build on the political momentum initiated by the EU to increase co-ordination and the complementarity of assistance, and incorporate priorities developed by range States and those identified by the SRG for capacity-building for sustainable trade.

CONCLUSION

A strategic and harmonized EU plan on external assistance for sustainable wildlife trade should be developed to ensure practical action towards good governance and sustainable wildlife trade for the EU.

The following sections on trade in tropical timber, reptiles, caviar, and Vicuña provide illustrative examples of what other factors could be considered and how an EU external assistance plan, linked with enforcement, might be developed.

The SRG process is thus another critical tool for developing an external assistance framework and identifying priorities in collaboration with range States. Needs identified by the SRG and range States could provide the backbone for a co-ordinated plan for wildlife trade policies and present clear linkages with an external EU assistance framework for sustainable wildlife trade.

An excellent example of assistance to range States is seen in the follow-up to the regional 'Science in CITES' workshops held in 2003, and facilitated by TRAFFIC and the CITES Secretariat. During these workshops, it became evident that ASEAN Member Countries lacked capacity to address illegal and unsustainable wildlife trade, and there were no regional working models of sustainable wildlife trade in CITES-listed species. Such models would serve to guide NDF methodologies for CITES-listed species in the region and beyond, which would be a crucial step to increase the use of science in CITES decision-making.²³ Consequently, the UK Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) and the CITES Secretariat co-funded projects starting in 2005 to create case studies for science-based management in ASEAN range States, focusing on taxa that are heavily traded in the region. Case studies included agarwood *Aquilaria* spp. and *Gyrinops* spp., Humphead Wrasse *Cheilinus undulatus*, Southeast Asian Box

CASE STUDIES OF SIGNIFICANT TAXA IN EU TRADE

THE TRADE IN TROPICAL TIMBER

The scale and magnitude of the EU's import market for timber makes it a significant force in the global timber market. In 2004, the EU imported more than 10 million m³ of tropical timber from Africa, South America and Asia (see Figures 1 & 2), making the EU the largest importer by value globally for tropical timber commodities, with a declared import value of over EUR1.2 billion in 2004, and EUR1.3 billion in 2005 (UCIP & UCBD, 2005; UNSD, 2006).

Figure 2: Tropical timber imports and supply area for importers, 2004 (m³)

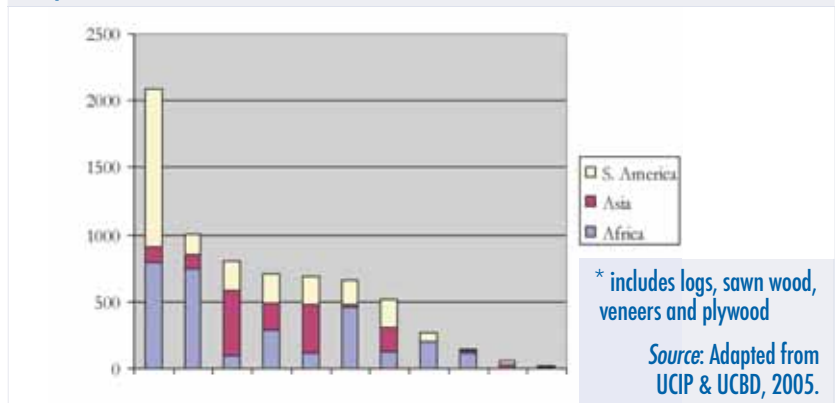


Figure 1: EU imports of tropical timber from main range States by quantity, 2004 (%)



Tropical timber imports represent a significant proportion of total timber imports in EU importing countries (see Table 4). The EU's imports and re-exports of timber include products derived from tree species listed in CITES Appendices such as Big-leaf Mahogany *Swietenia macrophylla*, Ramin *Gonystylus* spp., and African Teak *Pericopsis elata*. EU imports also include tropical tree species that are not listed in CITES Appendices but where trade represents a significant threat to the species, such as for Merbau *Intsia* spp.

In 2004, the EU ranked first in the world for imports by volume of Ramin and Merbau, and third in the world for imports by volume of timber and sawn wood of Big-leaf Mahogany, after the USA and the Dominican Republic (Affre *et al.*, 2004; UNEP-WCMC, 2006) (see Table 5, page 24). Heavy levels of exploitation of these species have resulted in considerable population declines and habitat destruction throughout their ranges. The four main tropical timber products imported into the EU are logs, sawn tim-

ber, veneers and plywood which are used for furniture, flooring, doors, panels, counter tops, blinds, billiard cues, and musical instruments, among many other uses.

Between 2000 and 2005, EU Member States imported over 15 300 m³ of Big-leaf Mahogany, and over 113 000 m³ of Ramin. The Netherlands, Belgium and Germany are the top Merbau importers in the EU, importing roughly 60% or 15 400 m³ in 2005, when total EU imports of Merbau were around 38 200 m³. There are also substantial volumes of intra-EU trade, with Germany and the Netherlands accounting for almost 50% or 13 000 m³ of the end use market for Merbau.

Table 4: Percentage of tropical timber imports in total timber imports of major EU timber importing countries, 2004 (%)

Country	Lumber*	Veneers	Plywood
Belgium	67	59	99
Denmark	15	63	28
France	87	94	87
Germany	33	44	63
Greece	34	55	61
Italy	39	75	49
Netherlands	89	94	87
Portugal	63	80	94
Spain	66	74	69
Sweden	13	19	22
UK	54	19	99

* i.e.: sawn wood.

Source: Adapted from UCIP & UCBD, 2005.

Table 5: Snapshots of trade in Merbau, Big-leaf Mahogany, and Ramin

	Big-leaf Mahogany		Ramin		Merbau*	
	Rank	Country	Rank	Country	Rank	Country
EU ranking in trade (2004)	1	United States	1	EU	1	EU
	2	Dominican Republic	2	United States	2	Australia
	3	EU	3	China	3	New Caledonia
Main exporting countries**		Brazil Bolivia Peru		Indonesia Malaysia		Indonesia Malaysia Papua New Guinea
Main EU importing countries**		UK Spain The Netherlands		Italy Denmark Germany		The Netherlands Germany Belgium

* Based on estimates from Chen, 2006a. Rankings in trade for Merbau for the year 2004, based on Papua New Guinea trade data. Data from other exporters by species and country unavailable.

** From 2000–2005 for Big-leaf Mahogany and Merbau, and from 2001–2005 for Ramin, data unavailable before CITES Appendix III listing in 2001.

Source: Adapted from UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database unless otherwise indicated.

The EU plays a significant role in the demand for tropical timber for the furniture market, which had a sales value of EUR17.2 billion in 2005 for Germany, the largest furniture market in the EU. The high commercial value of tropical timber products is a factor which can be an incentive to overexploitation of tropical timber. For example, the November 2006 market prices for plywood panels in the UK were over EUR482/m³ for Brazilian and Indonesian plywood (ITTO, 2006a).

There is also significant intra-EU trade in tropical timber, but data available from official sources are insufficient to make reliable estimates of the volumes and movements of such trade. However, rough estimates of its magnitude can be drawn from recent examples: in 2001, the combined volumes of tropical timber imports into Denmark totalled approximately 110 000 t, of which 76% of this was imported directly from tropical producer countries, whereas 24% came through other EU Member States, mainly Germany and France (Affre *et al.*, 2004).

With an import value of over EUR2 billion in 2005, the EU ranked first globally for imports of selected tropical timber commodities²⁵ by value, ahead of Japan, the USA, and China. Within the EU, France is the major importer of tropical timber products, with a declared import value of over EUR291 million in 2005,²⁶ followed by Italy and Belgium (see Figure 3). Belgium and the Netherlands also function as main intra-EU traders of tropical timber, with much of their tropical timber imports originating from Indonesia, Malaysia and Brazil (UNSD, 2006).

THE LEGAL TRADE IN TROPICAL TIMBER

CITES is playing an increasing role in the regulation of tropical timber trade due to concern about the decline of tropical tree species, and recognition and acceptance of the complementary role that CITES can play.

For example, dramatic decline since the 1950s in the area of broadleaved forests where **Big-leaf Mahogany** occurs led to it being listed in CITES Appendix III in 1995 by Costa Rica, followed by Bolivia, Mexico, and Brazil in 1998, and then Peru and Colombia in 2001. Neotropical populations of Big-leaf Mahogany were then successfully proposed to be up-listed to CITES Appendix II by Guatemala and Nicaragua in 2002 (CITES, 2006). Concerns for tropical timber species include the unsustainability of harvest and trade volumes, habitat conversion (see Table 6), poor regeneration rates, pressures from illegal logging, insufficient management of stocks, and inconsistent implementation of regulations, including CITES measures.

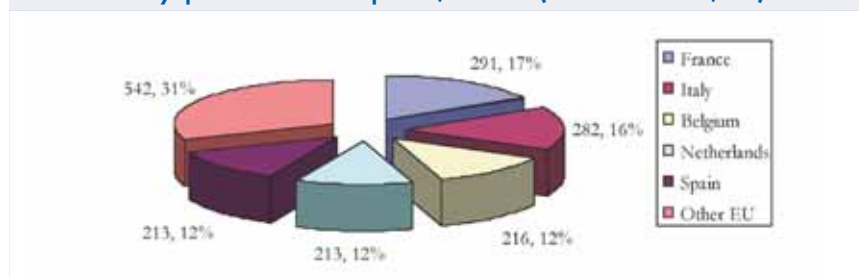
Ramin was also listed in CITES, and Indonesia successfully proposed ‘up-listing’ to CITES Appendix II in 2004 due to declining populations, continued illegal logging in protected areas, and the persistence of illegally logged Ramin in the world market. However, peat swamp forests which are Ramin habitat are still subject to illegal logging, especially in Indonesia and even in national parks (Lim *et al.*, 2004; Chen, 2006).

Table 6: Decline in the area of Big-leaf Mahogany habitat

Range State	Rate of decline
El Salvador	81%
Costa Rica	84%
Panama	74%
Mexico	76%

Source: Adapted from Chen 2006

Figure 3: Top EU importers of selected tropical timber commodities by percent EU imports, 2005 (EUR millions, %)



Source: Adapted from the United Nations Statistics Division Comtrade database.



Deforestation and heavy exploitation throughout the range of species included in the *Intsia* genus (Merbau) also causes concern for the survival of the species. Merbau species are facing a risk of extinction in the wild in the medium-term future: one of the widely used Merbau species, *Intsia bijuga*, is listed as Vulnerable on the 2006 IUCN Red List of Threatened Species (Chen *et al.*, in prep.).

In general for tropical timber species, as for Merbau, there is domestic legislation in place in exporting States to ensure sustainable harvest, although the legislation is not targeted at specific species. Although general forestry legislation exists in range States, recent reviews such as for Papua New Guinea, have shown that despite the official licensing of timber harvesting operations, there are serious issues of regulatory non-compliance at almost every stage in the development and management of forestry projects (Chen, 2006a; Forest Trends, 2006).

THE ILLEGAL TRADE IN TROPICAL TIMBER

Much of the EU's imports of tropical timber are from developing countries, where illegal and unsustainable logging represents a significant problem due to insufficient capacity for monitoring and enforcement. The illegal and unsustainable trade in tropical timber has serious negative effects in range States²⁷ in terms of loss of revenues and environmental degradation, accounting for an estimated EUR10–15 billion in losses every year to range State governments (EC, 2003; Hewitt, 2004).

In Tanzania, forests and woodlands support the livelihoods of some 87% of the poor population who live in rural areas, both in terms of direct benefit from the timber trade and also the use of forest products for subsistence purposes, such as wood for fuel. Yet rural communities, traders and the government have lost massive revenues to illegal and unsustainable forestry. At the village level, harvesters may receive barely one hundredth of the export price of logs.

Illegal logging for delivery to CALTEX. Tesso Nilo, Riau Province, Sumatra, Indonesia



Since the initial listing of Ramin in CITES Appendix III in 2001, over 142 000 kg of illegal Ramin has been seized in the UK alone.

The environmental consequences of illegal and unsustainable logging is illustrated by the continued decline of Big-leaf Mahogany, which is now found at densities of only 0.03–0.64 trees per hectare in Bolivia, in contrast to previous densities of 4–6 trees per hectare. The species now covers only 20% of its original area in Brazil and 27% of its former range in Nicaragua. In 1999 this species was considered commercially extinct in El Salvador and Costa Rica due to overexploitation, and illegal trade was noted as a problem in Belize, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua. Illegal logging in parks and the reserves of indigenous people is not uncommon throughout Big-leaf Mahogany range States (Affre *et al.*, 2004; TRAFFIC, 2001). These threats have resulted in range States taking further action in an attempt to protect the species: Colombia and Costa Rica have effectively banned harvesting and trade of Big-leaf Mahogany, and Brazil and Peru have voluntarily established export quotas and harvest restrictions (Affre *et al.*, 2004; TRAFFIC, 2001). However, in certain instances, the science behind non-detriment findings and verification of legality remain issues of concern, and it remains to be seen whether these measures will be sufficient to address the illegal trade and sustainability of harvesting.

Mahogany planks being loaded onto ships at Belem docks, Brazil, for export to Europe, Japan and America. About 10% of the tropical hardwood timber cut in Brazil is exported. The rest is used internally.



Political will also is a major factor and although recommendations for addressing unsustainable and illegal trade have resulted from several CITES meetings, national action plans for Big-leaf Mahogany with clear objectives and deliverables against which progress can be measured have yet to come to fruition in certain countries. Lack of compliance or trade of questionable sustainability can result in import suspensions either through CITES mechanisms and/or stricter measures under the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations (TRAFFIC & WWF, 2006).

The EU has a major role to play in sustainable management of timber resources, but increased emphasis on sustainability and legality can place great challenges on range States in enactment and implementation of



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Picture Frames of mainly Ramin timber on sale in a Bandung Market Street, Java, Indonesia. Prices here are far less than those charged for similar products "overseas".

ASSISTANCE EFFORTS FROM THE EU TO TROPICAL TIMBER RANGE STATES

As one of the largest markets for tropical timber in the world, and with a vested interest in maintaining a long-term sustainable supply, the EU has undertaken activities to provide assistance to range States to mitigate some of the impacts of the EU demand for tropical timber. These include:

Decreasing harvest volumes illustrate the deteriorating conservation status of Ramin. The volume harvested annually from Indonesia in the 1970s was as much as 1.5 million m³, but has since drastically decreased to 131 307 m³ in 2000, with similar trends evident in Malaysia. Consequently, most Ramin species are listed as Vulnerable on the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. This led to the principal Ramin exporting and transit countries of Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore establishing a Tri-National Task Force on Ramin Trade in 2004 following a tri-national workshop convened by TRAFFIC. The Task Force has met annually since 2005, with the latest meeting slated for May 2007. However, continued vigilance is required to curb illegal and unsustainable harvesting (Affre *et al.*, 2004; Lim *et al.*, 2004; Chen, 2006; TRAFFIC & WWF, 2006).

The FLEGT process, noted earlier, is on-going and supported bilaterally by Member States. The UK, for example, contributed GBP20 000 to a United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) project in 2006 on identifying timber tree species in international trade, to contribute to the FLEGT action plan. The UK funds supported the development of a timber trade database to support the EU licensing scheme and a series of stakeholder workshops in wood-producing countries of Asia and Africa (CITES, 2006a). The EC, through a range of Partner Countries, has also contributed EUR20 million to support the FLEGT Action Plan (EC, 2004a). Member States such as France, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK have also provided significant support. For example, France has allocated over EUR1 million for the period 2006–2009, to support the implementation of FLEGT in the Congo Basin.

Other examples of bilateral aid include support from the Netherlands for timber-related development projects in Guatemala as well as processes to strengthen institutional capacity of the forest sector in Suriname, in collaboration with the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) (ITTO, 2006). The Netherlands also contributed over EUR900 000 to a project with Malaysia focused on the sustainable management of peat swamp forests for Ramin conservation (Anon, 2005). Also, Belgium provided EUR1 750 000 for sustainable development and forest ecosystem conservation and management in the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

newer legislation and policies. These challenges are complicated by critical shortages in financial and human resources in agencies responsible for implementation and enforcement, and by low political will, ability, and budgets to enhance capacity building efforts (Buitron & Mulliken, 1998; ITTO, 2004a; TRAFFIC, 2000; TRAFFIC, 2001). EU experience gained from FLEGT partnerships could be a valuable tool to draw upon to assist in issues with the legality of tropical timber exports in range States.

EU Member State assistance efforts have also taken place through joint projects with the International Tropical Timber Organisation (ITTO), an intergovernmental organization promoting the conservation and sustainable management, use and trade of tropical forest resources²⁸ (ITTO, 2006c; WTO, 2006). Recent examples of ITTO projects involving funding from EU Member States include training programmes in reduced impact logging and sustainable forest management practices in Guyana; capacity building to support national codes of practice for forest harvesting; and, programmes to facilitate and promote the adoption of reduced impact logging in Indonesia and the Asia Pacific region (ITTO, 2006d). Co-operation between the ITTO and CITES has increased in recent years and CITES-related activities now represent a large part of the ITTO's work programme. These activities include the identification of co-operative strategies for implementing CITES listings and assisting producer countries to achieve sustainable forest management (CITES, 2007a).

Illegal trade is also a serious problem in the **Ramin** trade, and occurred in part due to the lack of capacity for effective CITES implementation and enforcement in Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore. Traders may exploit administrative and legal loopholes in order to 'launder' illegal Indonesian Ramin under the guise of legal timber, importing Ramin illegally and using legal Malaysian CITES certificates to launder it (Lim *et al.*, 2004; Chen, 2006). Since the initial listing of Ramin in CITES Appendix III in 2001, over 142 000 kg of illegal Ramin has been seized in the UK alone.

The illegal trade in **Merbau** also threatens the survival of the species. In Papua New Guinea and other range States, corruption is resulting in non-compliance with forestry laws, and consequently illegal logging is widespread and enforcement efforts are minimal (Chen *et al.*, in prep.; Chen, 2006; EIA, 2005; FWI & GFW, 2002; Hewitt, 2004; ITTO 2006).

The European Commission also provides assistance to range States for tropical timber issues, for example through the EC-Indonesia Forest Programme, which ran seven projects totalling an EC contribution of EUR120 million. Continuing support to Indonesia is provided through the EC-Indonesia FLEGT support project (EC FLEGT, 2006). Also, in 2005 the EC contributed to a project investigating the conservation of and trade in African teak in the three main exporting range States, Republic of Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo and Cameroon (CITES, 2005).

Several EU Member States have also adopted market and certification initiatives, such as environmental timber procurement policies (also known as public procurement policies or PPPs), in order to support the sustainable trade in timber. Procurement policies commit members to source timber products from legal and well-managed forests, such as those which are Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) certified. The aim is to oblige or encourage consumers to ensure that the timber they buy has been obtained legally and sourced from a sustainably managed forest (ITTO, 2006b). To date, the governments of Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, the UK and the Netherlands have begun to implement such purchasing programmes (EC, 2007).



Big leaf mahogany, *Swietenia macrophylla*, Dulce Gloria, Ucayali Province, Peru

Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, the Netherlands and the UK are examples of Member States that have committed to sourcing timber sustainably, often through both government and private sector initiatives.

FURTHER MEASURES REQUIRED FOR THE SUSTAINABLE EU TRADE IN TROPICAL TIMBER

FLEGT is a significant step towards good governance and combating the illegal tropical timber trade in the EU, although widespread illegal logging in range States indicates that further measures are required. For developing country range States, increased technical and human resource capacity is urgently required to properly implement and use CITES to its full potential to ensure sustainable trade in tropical timber (Chen, 2006; Milledge *et al.*, 2007). Improved co-ordination in the chain of custody and regulation for timber products is also required, for example between CITES Management Authorities and the various agencies that manage timber resources in range States, to integrate sustainability into all levels of national timber regulation and practice (Chen, 2006; Milledge *et al.*, 2007).

The increased requirement for suppliers of tropical timber to provide evidence of legal and sustainable sourcing has outstripped the availability of legal and sustainable timber in the EU market, and also in the small percentage of the world's certified forests to be found in tropical timber range States. In light of the EU's widespread public procurement policies, tropical

timber suppliers must demonstrate independent legal verification and often forest certification in order to retain their market share in the EU. However, EU Member States are individually developing their own PPPs with little evidence of harmonization or complementarity. This could result in major problems for suppliers, as different Member States may have several different sets of procurement criteria. However, examples of EU provision of assistance to tropical timber range States to meet these different sets of PPP criteria are not widespread. Tropical timber range States have emphasized that the impacts of PPPs on producing countries remains uncertain, and that there is great need for assistance to address the lack of progress in meeting these diverse criteria in the tropics (ITTO, 2006b; Oliver *et al.*, 2005). **It is clear that without provision of such assistance, the EU may not be able to achieve its own goals regarding the use of sustainably sourced products.**

The following framework is an illustrative example of how selected specific recommendations for the EU on the tropical timber trade align with other programmes such as the Thematic Programme (ENRTP), the CITES Strategic Vision Objectives, and range State priorities such as those described in the Association of South-East Asian Nations Regional Action Plan on Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora (see page 47).

Illustrative Example: A strategic framework for potential EU action towards sustainable trade in tropical timber

Recommendation	CITES Strategic Vision	EC Thematic Programme	ASEAN-RAP Action Point
Enhanced governance and capacity building			
Enhance accountability and transparency in forestry governance issues in range States.	1.1: Parties comply with their obligations under the Convention through appropriate policies, legislation and procedures.	Priority 1: Working upstream on MDG7: promoting environmental sustainability (Drawing on EU experience) Priority 2: Promoting implementation of EU initiatives and internationally agreed commitments (Illegal logging and forest governance) Priority 3: Better integration by the EU (Poverty and the environment under new forms of aid delivery).	1.4: Promote awareness programmes for the judiciary and other law enforcement agencies on the social and economic implications of illegal wildlife trade.
Increase technical capacity in range States to carry out non-detriment and legal acquisition findings for CITES-listed species.	1.5: Robust scientific information is the basis for non-detriment findings. 1.8: Parties and the Secretariat have adequate capacity building programmes in place.	Priority 1: Working upstream on MDG7: promoting environmental sustainability (Environmental monitoring and assessment). Priority 2: Promoting implementation of EU initiatives and internationally agreed commitments (Biodiversity).	3.2: Establish an information-sharing mechanism for CITES-listed species to assist countries to set and regulate quotas for harvest and trade.
Increase complementarity in the development of environmental timber procurement policies in the EU.	1.3: National wildlife trade policies are consistent with policies and regulations adopted at the international level.		5.2: Establish bilateral or multilateral co-operation mechanisms, such as task forces, to address issues related to the conservation and trade in particular species.
Management and compliance			
Identify actions that the private sector can take to support efforts to use CITES to manage trade in tropical timber.	3.3: Strategic alliances are forged with environmental and trade organizations.	Priority 4: Strengthening environmental governance and EU leadership (Promoting effective compliance and enforcement measures for MEAs).	4.1: Involve industry groups, trade associations & local community representatives to participate in CITES trade management dialogues.
Identify opportunities for co-ordination across relevant agencies within producing countries.	1.7: Parties are enforcing the Convention to reduce illegal wildlife trade.	Priority 2: Promoting implementation of EU initiatives and internationally agreed commitments (EU initiatives for sustainable development).	1.4: Promote awareness programmes for the judiciary and other law enforcement agencies on the social and economic implications of illegal wildlife trade.
Enforcement actions			
Appoint a 'focal point' within Customs at each relevant EU port of entry, with special training on the identification of timber species	1.8: Parties and the Secretariat have adequate capacity building programmes in place.		2.5: Conduct collaborative training sessions on wildlife law enforcement at national, bilateral and multilateral levels.

Source: Adapted from Chen, 2006; Milledge *et al.*, 2007; ITTO, 2006b; Oliver *et al.*, 2004.

Mahogany planks at Belem docks, Brazil: many of the timber stacks are stencilled with a sign saying area reforested; this is unlikely to be the case. About 10% of tropical hardwood timber cut in Brazil is exported, the rest is used internally.



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THE TRADE IN REPTILES

The EU is a major importer of reptile skins as well as live reptiles for the pet trade. Imports of CITES Appendix-listed species alone had an annual mean of 3.4 million lizard skins, 2.9 million crocodile skins, and 3.4 million snake skins is reported between 2000–2005. Concurrently, 0.2 million tortoises, 1.2 million lizards and 0.3 million snakes were imported live into the EU for the pet trade (see Annex II, Figure 4).

The broad impact of harvesting wild reptiles for the skin and pet trades is difficult to determine, since trade data exist only for 500 of the 8134 reptile species described to science and listed in CITES Appendices (Uetz, 2001 in Auliya, 2003). However, taking specimens from the wild can only add to the pressure of habitat loss such as deforestation (Bann, 2003), which may be a significant cause of decline for many reptile species. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species lists habitat loss and degradation as the major threat for 167 reptile species, with over 50% of all evaluated reptile species as Critically Endangered, Endangered, or Vulnerable. Because range States lack capacities for monitoring and enforcement of the trade, and because there are economic incentives to harvest high-value reptile species, the rate of harvest can lead to extirpation and increased pressure on reptiles in areas where populations remain (Johnson *et al.*, 2004).

THE REPTILE SKIN TRADE

UN Statistics Division data indicate that the top five largest importers of reptile skins in the world in order of highest import value of reptile skin products are Italy, France, Singapore, Japan and Germany. Of these, Italy, France and Germany together represented 73% of EU imports, and 55% of global reptile skin imports in 2005.

The EU represents the highest ranked importer by value of reptile skins in the world (see Table 7), with the 2005 import value²⁹ for reptile skin products at over EUR100 million. Although Singapore is also highly ranked, it is an entrepot, importing raw skins and re-exporting the processed skins, mainly to the EU and the USA. Main importers by value for reptile skins into the EU are the USA, Indonesia, and Singapore (see Figure 4).

Table 7: Global ranking and import value for reptile skins, 2005 (EUR)

Ranking	Country	Trade value
1	EU	100 million
2	Singapore	37 million
3	Japan	19 million
4	USA	12 million
5	Mexico	10 million
Total imports		272 million

Source: United Nations Statistics Division Comtrade database.



Snake skin belts sold in a department store Jakarta, Jakarta Raya Java, Indonesia June 1990

Figure 4: EU imports of reptile skins from main range States by value, 2005 (%)



Source: Adapted from UN Comtrade database analysis.

Re-importing and re-exporting of skins in different stages of processing leads to double-counting and consequently figures on the value of the reptile skin trade must be taken as approximations. However, trade records for reptile skins have been estimated to represent only 50% of total capture, as only good quality skins are selected for export (Jenkins & Broad, 1994). In some cases, such as for some crocodile species, the legal trade has largely displaced the illegal trade, and properly managed captive breeding and ranching of reptiles for the skin trade can provide incentives for sustainable trade and the conservation of wild populations (Hutton & Dickson, 2000; MacGregor, 2006).

Several species of reptile are valued for their skins, including crocodylians, sea turtles, lizards and snakes. The reptile skin trade targets larger animals – often at a breeding age – whose removal from the population can drastically affect population dynamics. Large monitor lizards *Varanus* spp. are particularly prized for processing into luxury leather products: two species, *V. niloticus* and *V. salvator*, are of particular importance for the trade (Jenkins & Broad, 1994; Auliya, 2006). Due to concerns that international trade presented a threat to their survival, the entire *Varanus* genus was listed in CITES Appendix II in 1975, though some species are now listed in Appendix I. *V. niloticus* and *V. salvator* are also listed in Annex B of the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations, among other monitor species. In 2005 the UNEP-WCMC CITES

trade database records that the EU imported over 540 000 skin and leather products derived from these two species, representing over 60% of global trade in these two species in that year.

The skins of the Reticulated Python *Python reticulatus* are also widely used in the reptile skin trade. Over 350 000 skins and leather products of Reticulated Python were imported into the EU in 2005, representing 55% of the global trade in this species (UNEP-WCMC, 2006a). *P. reticulatus* has been listed in CITES Appendix II since 1975, and is correspondingly listed in Annex B of the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations (UNEP-WCMC, 2006a).

The nature of the trade flows in reptile skins is such that most skins are initially exported out of producer countries as raw or partially treated 'crust-tanned' skins to countries where tanneries are located, and then tanned skins are re-exported to other countries for cutting and manufacture into end products such as watchstraps and handbags. This process of multiple re-exports and changes in the size and appearance of reptile skins is often exploited to smuggle illegal skins with legal shipments (Cowdrey, 2002; Jenkins & Broad, 1994). The complex trade routes for reptile skin commodities facilitate illegal trade: high value, low risk of detection and low penalties provide added incentives.



African Savanna Monitor
Boa constrictor, Belize

Significant proportions of EU imports were reported to have been captive-bred, such as for El Salvador where 100% of exports were recorded as captive-bred. For Togo and Ghana, reportedly captive-bred specimens accounted for 75% and 62% of exports respectively. However, for other major global exporters such as Malaysia, which is the third largest live reptile exporter in the world with over 833 000 specimens exported between 2000–2006, almost all specimens originated from the wild. Although a great portion of the EU's trade in live reptiles is legal, an illegal trade in live reptiles also occurs and is believed to be a serious threat to the survival of some reptile species in the wild.

In terms of import value, the EU was the largest importer of live reptiles in 2005 with a declared import value of EUR7 million (see Table 8). Within the EU, Germany was by far the top importer by value in 2005, representing 34% of EU-25 imports, followed by Spain, France, the UK and Belgium.

Table 8: Global ranking and import value of live reptiles, 2005 (EUR)

Ranking	Country	Trade value
1	EU	7 million
2	USA	7 million
3	Japan	3 million
4	Singapore	3 million
5	China	1 million
Total imports		30 million

Source: United Nations Statistics Division Comtrade database.

The trade into the EU of CITES-listed live reptile species has been dominated by the Green Iguana *Iguana iguana*, which accounted for 50% of all imports during 2000–2006 (see Table 9). The Royal Python *Python regius* was the most commonly traded CITES-listed snake from 1990 to 2006. Twenty-two percent of EU imports of CITES-listed reptiles consisted of species in the tortoise family, and just under two per cent were monitor lizards.

The price for live reptiles can fluctuate depending on consumer trends and supplier competition. Rare species with restricted distributions can fetch the highest values on the black market. For example, there is no legal trade in the Angolan Python *Python anchietae*, listed in CITES Appendix II, because of limited capacities in Angola due to conflict situations, and specimens have been known to retail for EUR10 000. Other examples of highly valued species with restricted distributions include monitor lizards from Australia and Southeast Asia, several tortoise species such as the Appendix I-listed Ploughshare Tortoise *Geochelone yniphora* from Madagascar, and giant snakes such as the Black Python *Morelia boeleni* (Auliya, 2003).

The percentage of CITES-listed live reptile imports declared as captive-bred increased dramatically from 7% in 1990 to over 77% in 2000–2006. Many popular reptile species in the pet trade are regularly offered as 'captive-bred' (see Table 9), although the authenticity of

THE LIVE REPTILE TRADE

Between 1990 and 1999, the EU imported over 1.3 million live specimens of CITES-listed reptile species (Auliya, 2003) increasing by over 300% from about 60 000 live specimens in 1990, to 225 000 in 1999 (Auliya, 2003). Imports increased further to almost 2.2 million specimens between 2000 and 2006. Main importers in the EU between 2000 and 2006 were Spain with over 585 000 specimens, Germany (405 000), and Italy (358 000). The main countries of origin for live reptiles imported into the EU during this period were El Salvador, Togo, and Ghana (see Fig. 5).

Figure 5: EU imports of live reptiles from main range States by quantity, 2000–2006 (%)



Source: Adapted from UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database analysis.

Table 9: Top ten CITES listed live reptile species imported by the EU and percentage wild-caught, 2000–2006

Species common name	Species scientific name	Quantity	% wild caught
Green Iguana	<i>Iguana iguana</i>	1094 230	1
Royal Python	<i>Python regius</i>	295 426	8
Horsfield's Tortoise	<i>Testudo horsfieldii</i>	59 128	6
African Helmeted Turtle	<i>Pelomedusa subrufa</i>	48 685	85
Leopard tortoise	<i>Geochelone pardalis</i>	341 130	27
Savannah Monitor	<i>Varanus exanthematicus</i>	33 971	92
Senegal Chameleon	<i>Chamaeleo senegalensis</i>	29 525	20
African Spurred Tortoise	<i>Geochelone sulcata</i>	19 796	0
Hingeback Tortoise	<i>Kinixys belliana</i>	18 005	4
Burmese Python	<i>Python molurus bivittatus</i>	16 526	0

such claims is sometimes questionable (Auliya, 2003). Although EU Scientific Authorities carefully investigate captive breeding claims, captive-bred animals can be subject to fewer import restrictions under CITES and the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations than wild-caught specimens. There are indications that unscrupulous traders are taking advantage of this situation to 'launder' wild-caught specimens. It requires a very high level of expertise to be able to determine whether a specimen was bred in captivity or not.

Trade routes for live reptiles are also complex and can involve many players. Exporters may buy and sell from anyone in the supply chain, so it can be difficult to trace the actual origin of live reptiles in trade (Auliya, 2003).

Source: Adapted from UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database analysis.

ASSISTANCE EFFORTS FROM THE EU TO RANGE STATES EXPORTING REPTILES

Information on assistance provided by the EU to reptile range States is scarce, as there is no strategic plan for EU wildlife trade assistance, and no co-ordinated means of recording such assistance. Regional reports from CITES Standing Committee meetings are available (see Annex

Eye of Savanna rock monitor, *Varanus exanthematicus*, Madagascar

Many reptile range States lack capacity and knowledge to implement and enforce CITES. Data deficiencies for many reptile species make proving legal acquisition and non-detriment findings under CITES extremely challenging; lack of training makes species identification by enforcement officers impossible. Range States, such as those in Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), have identified priority areas for capacity building including NDF methodology, the development of species identification guides and training for enforcers. Also, the ASEAN Wildlife Enforcement Network (ASEAN-WEN) was created in 2005 in recognition that regional efforts and co-ordinated joint actions are required to address the illegal exploitation and trade in CITES-listed species. ASEAN-WEN also stresses the importance of financial and technical support from the international community to build resources, expertise, and capacities in ASEAN countries, in order to address illegal trade in wildlife (CITES, 2003; Soehartono & Mardiasuti, 2002; ASEAN Secretariat, 2005).



III), but this is insufficient to provide a broad picture of the current status of EU assistance.

Broadly speaking, methodology for making non-detriment findings and mechanisms for regulating and monitoring trade are the two key focal areas for capacity building. Indonesia, for example, has been in the international spotlight due to concerns regarding the sustainability of its reptile trade. Indonesia is a key range State for many reptile species traded live and as skins, including the Water Monitor *Varanus salvator* and the Reticulated Python *Python reticulatus*. Domestic quotas have been established for many species used in the reptile skin trade, but lack of capacity and limited numbers of enforcement officers across a huge geographic area have resulted in difficulties in enforcing such quotas (Soehartono & Mardiasuti, 2002).

As a result of the continued difficulties with regulatory attempts, Indonesia was officially requested to strictly enforce its domestic export quotas for all reptilian skins at the 27th CITES Standing Committee meeting in 1994. This led to further attempts by Indonesia's government and industries to regulate the trade, with a labelling system implemented in 1994 and drastic reductions in export quota levels in 1996. Capacity building activities were provided by the German government, in collaboration with the Government of Indonesia, in the form of a 1996 workshop on 'Conservation, Trade and Sustainable Use of Lizards and Snakes in Indonesia' (CITES, 1996). However, problems in regulating the reptile trade continued (Soehartono & Mardiasuti, 2002).

EU import restrictions have also been in place for various reptile species, for example four Indonesian monitor lizard species: Dumeril's Monitor *Varanus dumerilii*, Peach-throated Monitors *V. jobiensis*, Beccari's Monitor *V. prasinus beccarii* and Crocodile Monitor *V. salvadorii*. These EU restrictions (Negative Opinions) were enacted due to EU SRG concerns that export quotas were set at unsustainable levels. Despite these restrictions having been in place since 1997/98, and despite the international focus on Indonesia's reptile trade through CITES, 10 years later the original conservation concerns have yet to be resolved.

Such problems where conservation concerns are identified but left unaddressed are not restricted to Indonesia. EU import restrictions for the Nile Monitor, *V. niloticus*, were placed on the range States of Mali, Cameroon, Sudan and Togo³⁰ in the 1990s due to concerns over the sustainability of the reptile skin trade (Soehartono & Mardiasuti, 2002; Valaoras, 1998), but again the concerns have not yet been addressed.

The situation may, however, be changing. The German government initiated and funded a study on the conservation of giant reptiles in Indonesia (see Auliya, 2006), and in 2005 the UK FCO co-funded projects with the CITES Secretariat and the US Bureau of Oceans and International Environmental and Scientific Affairs to develop methodological models for NDF assessments in Southeast Asian range States. Two taxa of focus for these models are reptiles, the Southeast Asian Box Turtle *Cuora amboinensis* and the Reticulated Python. The Reticulated Python is one of the most abundant CITES-listed snake species in trade, for the skins, meat and pet trades, with just under 1 200 specimens imported into the EU between 2004 and 2005 for the pet trade alone.

The high value of some reptile products, the impacts of legal and illegal trade, and enforcement difficulties in reptile range States present clear indications that assistance in capacity building and enforcement efforts is required for a sustainable trade. ASEAN Member Countries developed a Regional Action Plan in 2005 to clearly identify objectives and action points required to enhance ASEAN's capacity for sustainable wildlife trade. Using the framework provided by range State priorities and the ASEAN Regional Action Plan on Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora (ASEAN-RAP), the EU could guide assistance efforts to address range State priorities in a more effective and efficient manner, and thereby support the sustainable trade in reptiles.

FURTHER MEASURES REQUIRED FOR THE SUSTAINABLE TRADE OF REPTILE SKINS

The adoption of increased complementarity as an operational objective of the EC at the 2004 European Council represents a positive step towards improving co-operation, which could be focused through the priorities identified by ASEAN range States, and the objectives and action points outlined in the ASEAN-RAP. As suggested by the EC in the 2005 Annual Report, Member States should focus on complementary assistance, where the most value and effectiveness can be added to strategic efforts, based on efforts undertaken by others (EC, 2006).

Illustrative examples of how selected recommendations for the EU on the reptile trade complement other programmes, such as the Thematic Programme (ENRTP), the CITES Strategic Vision Objectives and priorities identified by ASEAN nations, such as in the ASEAN-RAP objectives, are provided in the framework below.

Illustrative Example: A strategic framework for potential EU action towards sustainable reptile trade

Recommendation	CITES Strategic Vision	EC Thematic Programme	ASEAN-RAP Action Point
Enhanced governance and capacity building			
Support capacity building initiatives for workshops on non-detriment and legal acquisition findings and adaptive management strategies for CITES-listed species.	1.5: Robust scientific information is the basis for non-detriment findings. 1.8: Parties and the Secretariat have adequate capacity building programmes in place.	Priority 1: Working upstream on MDG7: promoting environmental sustainability (Environmental monitoring and assessment) Priority 2: Promoting implementation of EU initiatives and internationally agreed commitments (Biodiversity)	6.1: Secure funds for implementing the ASEAN Regional Action Plan on Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora 6.3: Seek technical assistance from specialists in fauna and flora for implementing specific action points of the ASEAN RAP.
The EC should ensure that SRG decisions are followed up to address conservation concerns in range States through technical and financial assistance.	1.3: National wildlife trade policies are consistent with policies and regulations adopted at the international level. 1.5: Robust scientific information is the basis for non-detriment findings.	Priority 2: Promoting implementation of EU initiatives and internationally agreed commitments (Biodiversity) <i>Biodiversity Action Plan: constructive follow up to import suspensions imposed by the EU</i>	3.2: Establish an information-sharing mechanism for CITES-listed species to assist countries to set and regulate quotas for harvest and trade.
Legislation and enforcement			
Increase communication with range States to increase awareness about the EU Wildlife Trade regulations.	1.3: National wildlife trade policies are consistent with policies and regulations adopted at the international level.	Priority 1: Working upstream on MDG7: promoting environmental sustainability (Drawing on EU experience)	1.4: Promote awareness programmes for the judiciary and other law enforcement agencies on the social and economic implications of illegal wildlife trade
Increase inter-regional enforcement dialogue, and monitoring of trends through the exchange and analysis of information.	1.7: Parties are enforcing the Convention to reduce illegal wildlife trade.	Priority 4: Strengthening environmental governance and EU leadership (Promoting effective compliance and enforcement measures for MEAs).	2.5: Conduct collaborative training sessions on wildlife law enforcement at national, bilateral and multilateral levels.

Source: Adapted from Auliya, 2003, European Commission Communication Halting the Loss of Biodiversity by 2010 – And Beyond: Sustaining ecosystem services for human well-being,³¹ and the ASEAN Regional Action Plan on Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora 2005–2010.

THE TRADE IN CAVIAR

Caviar is the unfertilized roe of sturgeon and paddlefish, and is a gourmet delicacy. Sturgeon are in the order Acipenseriformes, an ancient group of fish that occur in coastal and inland waters of 25 countries in Europe, Asia, and North America (Knapp *et al.*, 2006). During the 20th century, Caspian Sea sturgeons have been the most commercially exploited stocks, and consequently countries bordering the Caspian Sea have been the source of about 90% of the global caviar trade in the past 100 years. The highest prized caviar is Beluga caviar from the Beluga Sturgeon *Huso huso*. Other traditional caviar varieties include Osietra, from Russian Sturgeon *Acipenser gueldenstaedtii* and Persian Sturgeon *A. persicus*, and Sevruga, from Stellate sturgeon *A. stellatus* (Knapp *et al.*, 2006).

Caviar is one of the most expensive wildlife products in trade, with retail prices of up to EUR600 per 100 g in delicatessens in Western Europe and the United States. Retail prices vary according to species, with the value of Beluga caviar being twice as high as the value of Osietra, and three times the value of Sevruga. The major caviar exporting States to the EU (see Fig. 6) are the Islamic Republic of Iran, the Russian Federation, Kazakhstan and Azerbaijan (Knapp *et al.*, 2006; Raymakers, 2002).



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Sturgeon, *Acipenser sturio*, Paleostomi Lake Colkhети, Georgia

After the fall of the former USSR, the devaluation of the Russian Rouble had major negative implications on livelihoods of people in many Caspian sturgeon range States, leading to significant socio-economic problems. A similar situation was experienced in the late 1990s in Iran when its currency exchange rate fell. Along with other factors, these changes led to increased levels of unemployment, especially in the agriculture and fishery sectors and may be contributory factors in the illegal sturgeon fisheries and caviar trade (Raymakers, 2002).

Figure 6: EU imports of caviar from main range States by quantity, 2004 (%)



Most sturgeon species are considered threatened because of the combined effects of overfishing, pollution and habitat degradation. Twenty five of the 27 sturgeon species are on the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, with 17 classified as Endangered or Critically Endangered (IUCN, 2007; Knapp *et al.*, 2006; Raymakers, 2002).

All species of sturgeon and paddlefish have been listed in the CITES Appendices since 1997. Two species, the Baltic Sturgeon *A. sturio* and the Shortnose Sturgeon *A. brevirostrum*, are listed in Appendix I with corresponding listings in Annex A of the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations, with all other sturgeon and paddlefish species listed in Appendix II of CITES and Annex B of the EU Wildlife Trade Regulations (CITES, 2006; UNEP-WCMC, 2006a).

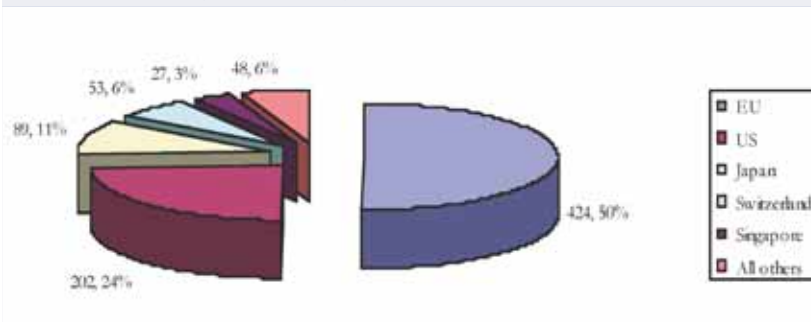
Source: Adapted from UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database analysis.

THE ROLE AND VALUE OF EU TRADE IN CAVIAR

The EU ranks as the number one importer of caviar in terms of both quantity and value. From 2000–2005, the EU imported 424 t of caviar, which represented over half of all global imports of 843 t (see Fig. 7). In 2005, main EU importers were Germany, France, and Spain, and the declared wholesale import value of caviar for the EU was over EUR116 million, just under half the value of all global imports (see Table 10, overleaf).

High quantities of caviar are also traded internally in the EU but are not recorded, as there are no Customs controls inside the EU. Domestic consumption of caviar within range States also accounts for a very significant proportion of trade (Knapp *et al.*, 2006; Raymakers, 2002).

Figure 7: Percent caviar imports by importer, of total global caviar, 2005 (tonnes, %)*



* includes re-exports

Source: Adapted from UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database analysis.

Table 10: EU Member State ranking and value for imports of caviar, 2005 (EUR)

Ranking	Country	Trade value
1	Germany	35 million
2	France	29 million
3	Sweden	12 million
4	Spain	8 million
5	Belgium	6 million
Total imports		116 million
% global imports		47%

Source: United Nations Statistics Division Comtrade database.

THE LEGAL TRADE IN CAVIAR

The migratory nature of sturgeon species means that they are often straddling stocks in terms of range State jurisdiction, which poses a challenge for regional management regimes, combating illegal fishing and for access to comprehensive data. Consequently, CITES Parties have recommended conservation measures for controlling trade, such as enhanced fishery management and legislation, regional co-ordination, product labelling requirements and efforts to control illegal trade (Knapp *et al.*, 2006).

In 2000, the CITES Significant Trade Review process was initiated for sturgeon and paddlefish species to determine whether current levels of trade in caviar were sustainable. The study concluded that trade could be detrimental to the species for all sturgeons fished in the Amur, Danube, and Siberian rivers, as well as the Azov, Black, and Caspian Seas. Based on the recommendations of this review, most range States were required to decrease caviar export quotas to prevent

Caspian range States have adopted laws to control the legal fishery and regulate domestic trade. These regulations include the use of a fishing licence and catch quota system, limited fishing seasons, catch size restrictions according to species, prohibitions on fishing in certain areas, and caviar labelling. However, the widespread availability of illegal caviar on the local markets implies that national regulations are not adequately implemented or enforced. Restocking efforts have also been implemented by range States to control sturgeon fisheries and compensate for population declines. However, lack of funding and capacity has led to ineffectiveness of these procedures, with monitoring of restocking programmes only occurring in Iran (Raymakers, 2002).



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Caspian Sea coast, Azerbaijan

further pressure on wild sturgeon populations. Consequently, export quotas declined from over 250 t in 1999 to 110 t in 2005 (Knapp *et al.*, 2006).

Aquaculture of sturgeon and paddlefish has developed rapidly in the past decade. The amount of caviar produced in aquaculture has increased from less than one tonne in 1998 to over 10 t in 2004, as reported by CITES Parties. A further 45 t of caviar from aquaculture operations were traded and consumed within the EU and inside the USA in 2005. Sturgeon aquaculture can be beneficial for wild populations, as many major migratory routes and spawning habitats have been degraded. However, there are concerns that aquaculture may also represent a channel for laundering illegally acquired (from poaching and/or smuggling) caviar from the wild and create disincentives for the conservation of wild sturgeon and paddlefish and their habitat. Aquaculture may also increase pressure on wild stocks through the transmission of disease, the harvest of wild sturgeon for broodstock and the introduction of exotic species and pests (Knapp *et al.*, 2006; Raymakers, 2002; Raymakers, 2006).

THE ILLEGAL TRADE IN CAVIAR

There is vast illegal trade in caviar both internationally and domestically, as caviar is compact, easy to conceal, and extremely valuable. Significant trade shifts occurred in the global caviar trade through the 1990s, with increasing illegal harvest and trade, when EU and USA imports of sturgeon products approximately doubled. In 2001, illegal sturgeon fishing and trade practices resulted in an estimated loss of EUR60 million for Caspian range States (Knapp *et al.*, 2006; Raymakers, 2002). Examples of caviar seizures in the EU are presented in Table 11.

A large portion of the global caviar trade is thought to be illegal, and the illegal catch and trade may outweigh legally sourced caviar by several times. Fisheries experts and enforcement officers estimate that the volume of sturgeon caught by poachers in the northern and western parts of the Caspian Sea reached 12 000 t in 2001, which was 10 times greater than the level of legal catch for that year. Large quantities of caviar are smuggled into the EU: a 2004 seizure discovered by German Customs after being tipped off by French Customs involved at least 1.4 t of caviar being smuggled into the EU and then laundered in various Member States through the use of falsified documents (Knapp *et al.*, 2006; Raymakers, 2002).

Within many range States, many of the sturgeon products for sale in local markets and shops are of illegal sources according to national regulations, and would be confiscated if effective control and adequate legislation were in place. In addition to the use of obviously forged documents, packaging, and physical characteristics which reveal the illegal nature of domestically traded

In 2001, illegal sturgeon fishing and trade practices resulted in an estimated loss of EUR60 million for Caspian range States.

caviar, the most obvious distinction between legal and illegal caviar is the price. Operational costs for an official enterprise force the price higher. This creates problems as illegal traders then outcompete legal traders and it can also provide financial incentives for legal traders to begin trading illegally (Raymakers, 2002). The thriving black market for caviar further threatens sturgeon species which are already under pressure from habitat degradation and pollution. **Caviar smugglers are well-organized and use sophisticated methods, and the illegal caviar trade is considered to have strong links with organized crime groups** (Knapp, *et al.*, 2006).

States by the Symposia participants, which included both range and consumer States, the CITES Secretariat, the World Sturgeon Conservation Society (WSCS), the Sturgeon Specialist Group of the IUCN, TACIS, and TRAFFIC.

Growing levels of illegal trade led the EC to organize the International Sturgeon Enforcement Workshop in Brussels in 2006. Participants included range State, Member State, and third country enforcement organizations, as well as, the CITES Secretariat, TRAFFIC, and WWF, with support from the EC and WWF. In this workshop, co-operation and information exchange between Parties was highlighted as an area of particular importance for successful control of the illegal trade in caviar. Additionally, range States emphasized that external assistance was required to solve the socio-economic problems driving the illegal sturgeon harvest. This workshop and its outcomes serve as a positive example of technical assistance provided by the EC.

However, in the workshop it was emphasized that successful conservation requires support throughout the entire life cycle of the sturgeon, not just trade controls and enforcement measures for caviar in trade. Much more assistance is required in many different sectors to ensure the EU's imports of caviar are sustainable. For example, the regulation of international trade through enhanced fisheries management could create conservation benefits, which can in turn help to address domestic issues in sturgeon range States.



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Local fisherman, Danube River, Danube-Carpathian, Bulgaria

ASSISTANCE EFFORTS FROM THE EU TO CAVIAR RANGE STATES

The EC programme which provides technical assistance to former Soviet republics, Technical Aid to the Commonwealth of Independent States (TACIS), started the Caspian Environment Programme in 1998. Efforts relating to sturgeon conservation and sustainable development fall under the component of TACIS concerned with the promotion of environmental protection and management of natural resources. The Caspian Environment Programme is managed by the United Nations, and funded by the governments of Caspian States, the Global Environmental Facility of the World Bank and the EU through TACIS. In the most recent phase, TACIS provided EUR3.4 million for Caspian Environmental Facility projects targeting fisheries and sustainable development. Of this, EUR1 million was designated for Caspian fisheries projects which, although not specifically for sturgeon conservation, included stock assessments, setting science-based fishing quotas and the development of regional fisheries agreements. The remaining EUR2.4 million was to support coastal sustainable development including governance and alternate livelihoods, again strongly linked with but not specifically targeted to sturgeon conservation (CEP, 2005; Raymakers, 2002).

Other international sturgeon conservation efforts include the International Sturgeon Symposia, which resulted in the Ramsar Declaration on Global Sturgeon Conservation in 2005. This Declaration includes detailed recommendations for the conservation of sturgeon in range

FURTHER MEASURES REQUIRED FOR THE SUSTAINABLE TRADE IN CAVIAR

Actions needed to build a sustainable trade in caviar broadly include the improvement of socio-economic conditions in the coastal areas of range States (Raymakers, 2002), increased scientific and technical knowledge on the current conservation needs of migratory fish populations, and the significant reduction of illegal domestic and international trade (CITES, 2001; Knapp *et al.*, 2006; Raymakers, 2006). Implementation of the CITES universal caviar labelling system and investigations of illegal cross-border trade remain a priority for enforcement agencies in the EU. These actions could promote the successful management of sturgeon stocks and sustainable trade in caviar and contribute to the social and economic development of caviar range States.

Illustrative examples of how specific recommendations can fit with the Thematic Programme (ENRTP), the CITES Strategic Vision, and EU regional enforcement priorities and range State priorities such as those detailed in the EU WTEC Action Plan and the WSCS Ramsar Declaration are provided in the following framework (overleaf).

Table 11: Caviar seized in the EU and Switzerland*, 2001–2005

Year	Tonnes
2000	2.3
2001	1.6
2002	1.0
2003	3.7
2004	1.3
2005	1.7

* Data is incomplete and does not include seizures from all countries

Source: EU-TWIX and data collected by TRAFFIC, 2005.

Illustrative Example: A strategic framework for potential EU action towards sustainable caviar trade

Recommendation	CITES Strategic Vision	EC Thematic Programme	EU WTEC Action Plan Objective	WSCS Ramsar Declaration
Improve co-operation and strengthen enforcement of caviar trade controls				
<p>Significantly increase efforts to combat illegal harvesting and illegal trade, and to regulate domestic markets.</p> <p>Exchange enforcement information between range and consumer States.</p> <p>Ensure national legislation does not provide loopholes to launder caviar.</p>	<p>1.7: Parties are enforcing the Convention to reduce illegal wildlife trade.</p> <p>1.8: Parties and the Secretariat have adequate capacity building programmes in place.</p> <p>1.6: Parties cooperate in managing shared wildlife resources.</p>		<p>1: Assist EU Member States in strengthening co-operation and communication within and beyond the EU.</p> <p>4: Ensure the further development of legislation is in place so that Member States are able to effectively implement and enforce the EU wildlife trade regulations.</p>	<p>F: Socio-economic and public awareness measures.</p> <p>G: Development of adequate national and international regulatory instruments (including enforcement)</p>
Restoration and conservation of sturgeon in the wild				
<p>Provide technical and financial assistance to caviar exporting countries to help conduct scientific studies, for effective sturgeon management and the making of science-based non-detriment findings</p>	<p>1.8: Parties and the Secretariat have adequate capacity building programmes in place.</p> <p>1.5: Robust scientific information is the basis for non-detriment findings.</p>			<p>A: Sturgeon stock assessment and fisheries management.</p> <p>B: Sturgeon habitat evaluation, protection and restoration.</p> <p>C: Sturgeon stock rehabilitation and enhancement (genetic and management considerations).</p>
Social and economic measures				
<p>Ensure transparency in domestic and international markets, such as through caviar labelling schemes.</p> <p>Ensure fishers receive equitable income as an incentive to responsible fishing and to protect sturgeon resources.</p> <p>Explore alternative livelihood options for sturgeon fishers such sturgeon sport fishing and tourism.</p>	<p>1.8: Parties and the Secretariat have adequate capacity building programmes in place.</p> <p>3.1: Funding and common implementation of CITES-related conservation projects by international financial mechanisms and other relevant institutions is significantly increased.</p>	<p>Priority 2: Promoting implementation of EU initiatives and internationally agreed commitments (Compliance with environmental standards (for products and production processes)).</p>		<p>F: Socio-economic and public awareness measures.</p>

Source: Adapted from CITES, 2001; Knapp *et al.*, 2006; Raymakers, 2002; Raymakers, 2006; Ramsar Declaration, 2005.



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THE TRADE IN VICUÑA PRODUCTS

The Vicuña *Vicugna vicugna* is a wild South American camelid, distributed throughout the Andes in Argentina, Bolivia and Peru, with the majority of populations occurring outside of protected areas. Vicuña fibre is highly prized in the textile industry, as it is some of the finest fibre possible to process, resulting in extremely fine wool. The use of Vicuña fibre has a very long history in South American culture, pre-dating the Inca Empire. The Inca developed a harvest method known as *chaku*, which involved rounding up Vicuña into corrals for live shearing. Live shearing techniques, although currently still far from maximum production, can yield about four tonnes of Vicuña fibre per year (Bonacic & Gimpel, 2006; Sahley *et al.*, 2006; Torres, 1992).

Excessive commercial hunting for fibre, as it was easier to shoot the animals for their wool than to capture live Vicuña, led to Vicuña being listed in CITES Appendix I in 1975; fewer than 500 were estimated to remain in Chile. Certain populations were downlisted to CITES Appendix II in 1987, and, as of 2003, certain populations in Argentina and Chile,³² as well as the whole Vicuña populations of Peru and Bolivia were listed in Appendix II to allow trade in wool from live-sheared Vicuñas with specific labelling requirements. Populations have increased to over 250 000 animals since the listing of Vicuña in the CITES Appendices. However, increasing competition for grasslands with domestic livestock, a lack of capacity to control poaching, and guerrilla activity in certain areas have prevented authorities from carrying out their duties, resulting in increased pressure on Vicuña populations (CITES, 2006; Torres, 1992).

Currently, international trade occurs in Vicuña fibre, cloth, and garments. It is estimated that between 23 to 43 t of Vicuña fibre were traded in the international market over the past 10 years (Bonacic, 2007). The value of Vicuña fibre is variable between years and countries, but 2004 market estimates place fibre price at EUR456 per kg (Bonacic & Madonald, 2003; Sahley *et al.*, 2006).



Vicuñas, *Vicugna vicugna*, Vicuña Pampa Galeras, Peru

THE ROLE AND VALUE OF EU TRADE IN VICUÑA PRODUCTS

The EU is the primary importer of Vicuña fibre, with Italy ranking as the top global importer of Vicuña cloth for processing for the fashion industry (see Table 12 and Figure 8), and Germany as the top importer of Vicuña garments. Trade values from Eurostat³³ indicate that the value of EU-25 imports³⁴ from all range States in 2001 was over EUR3 million.

Figure 8: EU imports of Vicuña products from main range States by quantity, 2005 (%)



Source: Adapted from UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database analysis.

THE LEGAL TRADE IN VICUÑA PRODUCTS

Trade in Vicuña products is permitted under CITES Appendix II legislation for certain populations, if live shearing is used and products are labelled to indicate the country of origin. For Bolivia and Peru, the entire Vicuña population is listed in Appendix II, and annual quotas are set that must not be exceeded (CITES, 2006).

Range States were concerned with Vicuña conservation and management prior to the creation of CITES. They established the Convention for the Conservation of Vicuña in 1969 to support the sustainable use of Vicuña by live shearing, and to promote economic benefit for rural people in the Andean highlands, an extremely poverty stricken area. Currently, there are an estimated 763 Andean communities managing Vicuña, and over 700 000 people dependant on the trade in Vicuña products (Tello, 2002). The Vicuña

Table 12: Global ranking of main importers and quantity of Vicuña fibre imports, 2005*

Ranking	Country	Quantity (kg)
1	Italy	15 321
2	Argentina	283
3	China	182
4	Korea	152
5	Japan	102
Total imports		16 112

* includes re-exports

Source: UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database.

Convention was redrafted in 1979, and is now known as the Convention for the Conservation and Management of Vicuña, with all range States, plus Ecuador, as signatory Parties. The Vicuña Convention recognizes that conservation and sustainable use of the Vicuña provides an economic production alternative that can benefit local Andean communities, and prohibits hunting and illegal trade of Vicuña in range States. Further commitments include the development of protected areas, co-operation for research, information exchange, and technical assistance (Lichtenstein, 2006; Torres, 1992; Sahley *et al.* 2006).

These commitments are implemented through national laws and regulations. However, the commitment of securing benefits from Vicuña use for the local Andean people is not entrenched in legislation in Argentina and Chile, and despite the existence of such legislation in Bolivia and Peru, application is limited. Nonetheless, trade in Vicuña products is recognized to have the potential to augment rural incomes in the Andes, which is being realized in certain areas where Vicuña abundance is high and effective property rights agreements have been reached. These commitments are receiving ongoing focus by range State governments.

Live shearing of Vicuña has been suggested to be sustainable at the population level, and provides rural people with an economically sustainable alternative or complement to other current competitive land uses, such as farming llamas and sheep or ranching semi-captive Vicuña. It also provides an economic incentive to conserve wild Vicuña herds. Economic analyses have shown that while attempts at captive-managing Vicuña generate an annual loss due to the costs of supplies and labour, live shearing of wild Vicuña generates fewer costs and can result in significant profits (McNeill & Lichtenstein, 2003; Sahley *et al.*, 2006; Vilá *et al.*, 2006).

Concerns about the sustainability of captive Vicuña populations include low genetic variability from past population declines, behavioural changes, and disease, all of which could be transmitted to wild stock. The USA implemented restrictions on captive Vicuña products in 2002, despite captive-sourced fibres being permitted in trade under CITES, using the argument that trade in these products does not positively contribute to wild Vicuña conservation, or the conservation of their habitat (Laker, 2006; McNeill & Lichtenstein 2003; Torres, 1992; Vilá *et al.*, 2006).

THE ILLEGAL TRADE IN VICUÑA PRODUCTS

The extent of hunting and illegal trade in Vicuña products is difficult to quantify, but is thought to be increasing: trafficking of pelts and poached groups of Vicuña are often reported. Poaching represents a problem for local user groups, as they are dependant upon an abundance of wild animals to make live shearing a feasible enterprise. Even in abundant proportions, the mean density of Vicuña is approximately three animals

per square kilometre (Bonacic & Gimpel, 2006; McNeill & Lichtenstein, 2003; Sahley *et al.*, 2006).

Range States lack sufficient capacity and funding for law enforcement and border control to stop poaching and illegal trafficking of Vicuña products. In the early 1990s in some range States, guerrilla attacks and political instability made it even more difficult for the authorities to carry out their activities. Also, fibre from poached animals cannot be differentiated from legal fibre from live-shorn animals, and is intentionally mislabelled as 'baby alpaca tops' to circumvent restrictive measures. While prohibition of poaching and illegal trade is included in the Vicuña Convention, there is currently no clear local or international strategy to address these problems (Bonacic & Gimpel, 2006; Torres, 1992).

ASSISTANCE EFFORTS FROM THE EU TO VICUÑA RANGE STATES

The EU and EC have recently provided some financial and technical assistance for Vicuña conservation in range States. Examples of assistance from EU Member States include Spain, the Netherlands and Germany providing assistance for Vicuña conservation in Bolivia (B. Ortiz, TRAFFIC South America, pers. comm., March 07). Germany is providing capacity building assistance to Bolivia focusing on Andean conservation and strengthening the integration of the national system of protected areas and local development through the GTZ³⁵ from 1999–2008, which involves the sustainable use of Vicuña in the Sajama national park (GTZ, 2007). TRAFFIC is in consultation with Vicuña range States regarding the development of the Vicuña Convention Action Plan, with funding from the government of Italy (WWF Italy & TRAFFIC South America, pers. comm., March 2007). Although the need for such an action plan has been recognized for many years, lack of capacity in the range States has hindered its development.

While these programmes of assistance represent a very valuable first step in creating the preconditions for sustainable trade in Vicuña, there is still much that the EU can do, as the major importer, to adequately support sustainable management of Vicuña and an equitable market for Vicuña fibre in range States. Although range States have created international and national legislation for the conservation and sustainable use of Vicuña, including the Vicuña Convention, CITES listings, and national measures, a severe lack of funding and capacity for implementation and enforcement remains a major obstacle.



Quecha Alpaca herder, Andes, Peru

At the EC level, a four-year project focusing on the sustainable management of South American camelids, "Manejo Sostenible de Camelidos Silvestres" (Proyecto MACS)³⁶ provided financial, technical and scientific assistance for Vicuña range states from 2001–2005. This project was funded through the 5th EC Framework Programme's Specific International Scientific Co-operation Activities (INCO),³⁷ with total EU contribution amounting to EUR900 000. Project aims included increasing the productive base of pastoral communities in the Andes by production of Vicuña fibres, while securing the interests of conservation and animal welfare, and equitable distribution of benefits. Findings, recommendations and guides for best practice were developed for dissemination to producers, the European textile industry, rural communities, and regional policymakers (CORDIS, 2007; MACS, 2007).

FURTHER MEASURES REQUIRED FOR THE SUSTAINABLE TRADE OF VICUÑA PRODUCTS

Actions taken by the EU for Vicuña conservation and management provide positive examples overall, but still highlight the need for co-ordination between actions undertaken by the EC and by various Member States. Broad requirements to establish a sustainable trade in Vicuña products and to support sustainable management include the need for information on the distribution, abundance and conservation status of Vicuña, in order to identify where there is still work to be done. Specific actions must be defined through a plan of action to co-ordinate action at the regional level and enhance management effectiveness at the national level, which will promote the sustainable use of Vicuña with the aim of contributing to the long-term social and economic development of the regions where they are found. There is also a need to identify actions and investment priorities that will ensure conservation success (Torres, 1992).

Broad requirements for the conservation and sustainable use of Vicuña, identified by the IUCN/SSC South

Quechua Indians at an election meeting, Bonbon, Andes, Peru



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American Camelid Group, and the recommendations of the EC-funded project are noted in the framework below, together with their synergies with the CSV, the Thematic Programme (ENRTP) and range State priorities as described in the Vicuña Convention.

Illustrative Example: A strategic framework for potential EU action towards sustainable trade in Vicuña products

Recommendation	CITES Strategic Vision	EC Thematic Programme	Vicuña Convention
Conduct research on the distribution and abundance of Vicuña.	1.5: Robust scientific information is the basis for non-detriment findings.	Priority 1: Working upstream on MDG7: promoting environmental sustainability (Environmental monitoring and assessment). Priority 2: Promoting implementation of EU initiatives and internationally agreed commitments (Biodiversity).	Article 6: The Signatory governments agree to continue comprehensive research on the Vicuña, including bioecological, socio-economic and other aspects ...
Development of regional conservation management plans which contribute to long-term positive socio-economic development.	CITES-related projects have been developed that contribute to poverty alleviation and livelihoods of local communities (Objective 3.1 Indicator).		Article 1: The Signatory Governments agree that conservation of the Vicuña provides an economic production alternative for the benefit of the Andean population ...
Ensure local and international collaboration and strategies are in place to address illegal hunting and illegal trade in range States and importing countries.	Social and economic instruments are in place to provide benefits to local communities and conservation from wildlife trade ... (Objective 3.1 Indicator).		Article 2: The Signatory Governments prohibit the hunting and illegal trade of the Vicuña, its products and derivatives within the territory of their respective countries. Article 7: The Signatory Governments agree to provide each other technical assistance for management and repopulation of the Vicuña .
Promote incentives to establish transparency in legal markets for Vicuña fibre and products.	Strategic alliances are forged with environmental and trade organizations (Objective 3.3).	Priority 2: Promoting implementation of EU initiatives and internationally agreed commitments (Compliance with environmental standards (for products and production processes)).	Article 7: The Signatory Governments agree to provide each other technical assistance for management and repopulation of the Vicuña.

Source: Adapted from Bonacic, 2007; Laker & Bonacic, 2006; Convention for the Conservation and Management of Vicuña.

THE EU AND SUSTAINABLE WILDLIFE TRADE: SUMMARY & CONCLUSIONS

The EU is one of the biggest global markets for wildlife trade both in value and quantity for certain commodities; the value of EU wildlife trade in 2005 is conservatively estimated to be EUR93 billion, and EUR2.5 billion excluding timber and fisheries. However, the EU plays a contradictory role, advocating environmental governance and sustainable use of natural resources, while high demand in the EU for wildlife and wildlife products is often a driver of illegal and unsustainable trade.

Legal and sustainable wildlife trade can provide incentives for conservation and socio-economic benefits to communities, for example, live shearing of Vicuña supports an estimated 700 000 people in 763 rural Andean communities. The EU imports around 95% of all Vicuña fibre. Illegal and unsustainable wildlife trade, on the other hand, poses a serious threat to the survival of wild plants, animals and their ecosystems and severely affects the livelihoods of rural communities and national economies. Illegal sturgeon fishing and trade practices resulted in an estimated loss of EUR60 million to Caspian range States in 2001, and illegal logging costs developing countries an estimated EUR10–15 billion every year in lost revenue.

The relationship between biodiversity conservation and sustainable development is now universally accepted by governments around the world. The World Summit on Sustainable Development (2002) called for a significant reduction by 2010 in the current rate of loss of biodiversity. Achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and WSSD objectives relating to poverty eradication, food and health security, and environmental sustainability also rely significantly on reducing the rate of biodiversity loss.

The EU's Sustainable Development Strategy provides the broad framework for the responsible management of natural resources and requires environmental sustainability to be part of all EU external policies. The Thematic Programme for Environment and Sustainable Management of Natural Resources and Energy (ENRTP) identifies four broad objectives which align strongly with priorities for the EU in CITES capacity building and with the objectives of the CITES Strategic Vision. The EU Biodiversity Action Plan specifically aims to substantially reduce the impact of international trade on global biodiversity and ecosystem services, and to ensure that trade in CITES species is effectively regulated and controlled. A specific recommendation in this Biodiversity Action Plan, and one also supported in this report, is for a co-ordinated



Illegal logging for paper industry and forest clearing for Palm oil plantation. TESSO NILO Plantation Riau, Sumatra, Indonesia

response to unsustainable trade and constructive follow up to import suspensions imposed by the EU.

The EU's many political commitments to sustainable development and biodiversity conservation form a solid legislative foundation for EU actions for sustainable wildlife trade. However, there is a lack of specific guidance or action plans to achieve these goals as a co-ordinated Union. Monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of assistance is essential – but currently is not possible.

This report demonstrates that the European Commission and the EU Member States provide technical and financial assistance to range States and have undertaken a number of commendable steps in law enforcement. Although priorities to strengthen CITES implementation have been identified by certain external countries and regions, and within the draft CITES Strategic Vision, assistance provided by the EU is not necessarily linked to such priorities or co-ordinated within a long-term strategic plan. There is a need for greater synergy and co-ordination in external assistance efforts between Environment and Development programmes and between the European Commission and the EU Member States. Examples can be drawn from the case studies presented in this report:

THE TRADE IN TROPICAL TIMBER

The EU is a major import market for tropical timber and this trade demonstrates the clear links between sustainable development and the environment. FLEGT is a commendable political commitment to improve forest governance and eliminate illegal logging and although a process in development, it demonstrates how EU action can be galvanised towards agreed goals. However, FLEGT does not address issues of sustainability directly. CITES has a critical complementary role in addressing sustainability issues within the trade in tropical timber.

THE TRADE IN REPTILES

The EU is the largest global importer of both live reptiles and reptile skins. Legal measures available to the EU to regulate wildlife trade to within sustainable limits include the suspension of imports from range States for CITES-listed species. Imports of four species of monitor lizard were suspended from Indonesia in 1997/98 due to concerns that export quotas were set at levels that were too high. Ten years later, these trade suspensions are still in place because the original conservation concerns remain unaddressed. In the EU Biodiversity Action Plan, the European Commission identified the need to have a co-ordinated response to unsustainable trade and constructive follow up to import suspensions. A focus on capacity building for non-detriment findings within an EU action plan for external assistance is appropriate and would enable European Commission and Member State funds to be used in a co-ordinated and complementary manner.



THE TRADE IN CAVIAR

The EU is the world's largest importer of caviar. EU TACIS funding provided under the Caspian Environment Programme for the promotion of environmental protection and management of natural resources targeted fisheries and coastal sustainable development, and was clearly relevant to identified priorities in the CITES arena for sturgeon conservation. However, there was no explicit link between this programme and priorities identified for sturgeon conservation; building upon such actions to maximise their effectiveness becomes challenging without a framework of prioritised EU external actions for sturgeon conservation. Priorities in sturgeon conservation, notably stock assessments and establishment of export quotas based on scientific data, are common themes across all case studies presented.

The EU has an obligation to maximize the effectiveness of aid by ensuring that assistance is complementary and harmonized, as noted at the 2004 Council, reiterated in the EC 2005 Annual Report and in the 2005 Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness. The EC and Member States should focus on adding value to and maximising aid provided through co-ordinating their assistance efforts and building on efforts undertaken by others. To be in a position to do this, a strategic action plan is required with tools for monitoring assistance provided and for gauging effectiveness.

THE TRADE IN VICUÑA PRODUCTS

The EU is the main global importer of Vicuña products. As with timber, the trade in Vicuña products demonstrates clearly the links between conservation and sustainable development. Assistance efforts from the European Commission included EUR900 000 for a four-year project (2001–2005) for the sustainable management of Vicuña. Germany, Spain and the Netherlands have also provided assistance, and Italy is currently exploring providing assistance to develop the Vicuña Convention Action Plan. The objectives of projects funded by the European Commission and EU Member States are commendable and align with identified priorities for Vicuña conservation. However, coherency between environment and development programmes and monitoring of progress would be greatly facilitated if conservation objectives were identified within an EU framework of priority actions. This would also enable links to be further developed with other funding mechanisms such as Development.

The actions outlined by the EU Ministers in their Council Conclusion of 18 December 2006 provide clear direction for the role of the EU concerning external assistance to developing countries in the implementation of CITES as well as a strengthened and co-ordinated approach to enforcement.



THE EU AND SUSTAINABLE WILDLIFE TRADE: RECOMMENDATIONS

SYNERGIES WITH EXISTING INITIATIVES

THE CITES STRATEGIC VISION

The draft CITES Strategic Vision 2008–2013 can serve as a useful framework for the development of a Strategic EU Plan for External Assistance and would help to ensure the EU's good governance on sustainable wildlife trade. The CSV would also provide a framework within which the EU could base a co-ordinated EU approach, thereby ensuring complementarity with actions undertaken by the other Parties to CITES. An EU external assistance plan aligned with the aims and objectives of the CSV, but with a focus on issues of priority and/or direct relevance to the EU would guide future actions of the EU and take a very strong and positive message from the EU to the Parties regarding sustainable use and development. The goals, objectives and indicators in the CSV which support the EU's aims towards enhanced capacity building efforts in range States and improving the co-ordination of enforcement efforts are summarized in Annex I.

OTHER INITIATIVES

The EU external assistance plan would also link priorities identified from within the EU with priorities identified by individual range States or by regional initiatives, such as the ASEAN Regional Action Plan on Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora and the Convention on the Conservation of Vicuña, among others.

ENFORCEMENT

The European Commission, in collaboration with the EU Member States, should develop a strengthened response to enforcement within the EU in the form of a co-ordinated EU Wildlife Trade Enforcement Action Plan to ensure strategic enforcement interventions. This EU Enforcement Action Plan should build upon initiatives already undertaken, such as the recommendations and enforcement action plan developed at the EU Wildlife Trade Enforcement Co-ordination Workshop (2005), ensuring relevance to on-going initiatives such as EU-TWIX, and incorporate findings of studies conducted since that time. The Action Plan should focus on co-ordinating enforcement within the EU whilst also facilitating inter-regional collaboration.



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Madang, Papua New Guinea

EXTERNAL ASSISTANCE

The European Commission, in collaboration with the EU Member States, should develop a strategic EU Plan for External Assistance to support the sustainable trade in wildlife.

This plan should focus on agreed priorities in CITES implementation identified by the EU, demonstrating linkages with range States priorities and the CITES Strategic Vision.

This plan could be developed through an international workshop held with key exporting countries to the EU to follow up on and further develop outcomes from the November 2001 CITES workshop on Mega-biodiversity.

Overarching themes should include building capacity to assist range States in making non-detriment findings, verification of legality and following up on import suspensions imposed on range States.

An information-sharing system on external assistance provided to range States to facilitate legal and sustainable wildlife trade, including assistance provided through external development programmes should be established and maintained by a specific body such as the European Commission, to facilitate harmonization, complementarity, and monitoring of such assistance.

Options should be explored within the Thematic Programme (ENRTP) to support actions at a multilateral level where funds are not allocated under existing European Commission programmes or from the EU Member States, ensuring synergy with external programmes such as the CITES National Wildlife Trade Policy Review.

This strategic external assistance plan should have measurable targets and indicators that would allow the evaluation of its progress over time.

An EU Strategic Plan for External Assistance would ensure:

- Linkages with national and regional priorities identified by range States;
- Targeted assistance for priorities identified by the European Commission and the Member States;
- Co-ordination between Environment and Development funding instruments;
- Complementarity of assistance;
- Maximising the effectiveness of aid provided, and
- Monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness EU assistance provided by European Commission programmes and through bi-lateral aid from the Member States.

FOOTNOTES

- 1 The European Commission is an institution created to represent the European interest common to all Member States of the EU, and is made up of one Commissioner from each Member State. The European Commission proposes legislation on which the European Parliament and Council decide, implements common policies, administers the budget and manages EU programmes (see http://ec.europa.eu/awork/basicfacts/index_en.htm for further information).
- 2 Parties to the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) have formally recognized the positive contribution that a sustainable level of wildlife trade can provide to conservation and livelihoods through Resolution Conference 8.3 – Recognition of the benefits of trade in wildlife.
- 3 Currency conversions used in this report are taken from yearly average rates.
- 4 Council Directive 92/43/EEC on the conservation of natural habitats of wild fauna and flora.
- 5 Council Directive 79/409/EEC on the conservation of wild birds.
- 6 Order Psittaciformes, including parrots, parakeets, macaws, and cockatoos.
- 7 There are estimated to be 7250 Egyptian Tortoises left in the wild (IUCN, 2007).
- 8 ASEAN includes the 10 Member Countries of Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam (see <http://www.aseansec.org/> for more information).
- 9 Seizure examples are adapted from TRAFFIC Bulletins Seizures & Prosecutions, unless otherwise noted, and only represent a very small proportion of total seizures.
- 10 “A Sustainable Europe for a Better World: A European Union Strategy for Sustainable Development”, COM(2001) 264.
- 11 COM(2005) 670.
- 12 “Policy Coherence for Development – Accelerating progress towards attaining the Millennium Development Goals”, SEC(2005) 455.
- 13 SEC(2006) 621, 22.5.2006.
- 14 SEC(2006) 607.
- 15 The Council of the European Union is the main decision-making body of the EU, which passes laws jointly with the European Parliament. Each Member State is represented in the Council by its ministers, and the presidency of the Council is held for six months by each Member State on a rotational basis (see <http://ue.eu.int/> for more information).
- 16 Document 16189/06.
- 17 Through Germany’s Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit, on behalf of the EU.
- 18 Through UK Department for International Development.
- 19 Through the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
- 20 Document 16164/06 (Presse 349).
- 21 EU official development assistance figures refer to EU-25.
- 22 Rome Declaration on Harmonization, 2003.
- 23 Marrakech Declaration on South–South Co-operation, 2003.
- 24 See <http://www.cites.org> for more information.
- 25 United Nations Environment Programme – United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNEP-UNCTAD).
- 26 Which is Objective 3 of five key priorities in the ASEAN Regional Action Plan on Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora 2005–2010.
- 27 Document 16164/06 (Presse 349).
- 28 Selected tropical timber commodities include (under the HS2002 classification):
 - 440729: Wood sawn/chipped length wise, sliced/peeled, whether or not planed, sanded/end-jointed, of a thkns. >6mm, of tropical wood species.
 - 440839: Sheets for veneering, incl. those obt. By slicing laminated wood, for plywood, not >6mm, of tropical wood species.
 - 441213: Plywood consisting solely of sheets of wood, each ply not >6mm thkns., with at least one outer ply of tropical wood species.
 - 441222: Plywood, veneered panels & sim. laminated wood, with at least one outer ply of non-coniferous wood & at least one ply of tropical wood species.
 - 441292: Plywood, veneered panels & sim. laminated wood, with at least one ply of tropical wood species.
- 29 Value for France includes the value of intra-EU trade.
- 30 The illegal trade in non-tropical timber, smuggled into the EU from countries such as Russia, also occurs at significant levels and has serious negative socio-economic impacts. However, as most CITES-listed timber species are tropical, and tropical timber represents a significant proportion of the EU’s timber trade (see Table 4), it will be the focus of this case study.
- 31 The ITTO has 59 members, representing about 80% of the world’s tropical forests, and 90% of the global tropical timber trade. It was established by the United Nations in 1986, through negotiations that led to the International Tropical Timber Agreement (ITTA). The EU and its Member States are members of ITTO.
- 32 Values are for the EU-25 countries, prior to the January 2007 accession of Bulgaria and Romania, and do not include the value of intra-EU trade.
- 33 SRG restrictions are also in place for Nile Monitor imports from Benin, Burundi, and Mozambique.
- 34 SEC(2006) 607.
- 35 Argentina: Population of the Province of Catamarca, and Chile: Population of the Primera Region, with all other populations deemed included in Appendix I.
- 36 Statistical Office of the European Communities.
- 37 For hair of alpaca, llama and vicuna, neither carded nor combed.
- 38 Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH, which focuses on international co-operation for sustainable development.
- 39 Project Reference ICA4-CT-2001-10044.
- 40 From Council Decision 199/171/EC, for adopting a specific programme on confirming the international role of Community research.

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ANNEXES

ANNEX I:

THE CONVENTION ON INTERNATIONAL TRADE OF ENDANGERED SPECIES OF WILD FAUNA AND FLORA & THE DRAFT CITES STRATEGIC VISION

Species can be listed in one of three CITES Appendices, in most circumstances according to their biological status and the impact that international trade may have upon this status. Appendix I lists species that are threatened with extinction and that are or may be affected by international trade; all international commercial trade in such species is banned although trade may be allowed under exceptional circumstances, e.g. for scientific or education purposes. Most species, however, are listed in Appendix II which includes species that are not necessarily threatened with extinction, but that may become so unless trade is closely controlled. Some species are also listed in Appendix II because they look like species already listed; listing these so-called 'look-alike' species makes it easier for Management Authorities and enforcement officials to control international trade. International commercial trade in plant and animal species listed in Appendix II is allowed provided that valid permits accompany each shipment. Appendix III includes species subject to regulation within a particular member country and for which the co-operation of other member countries is needed to control international trade.

The text of the Convention provides the broad legal framework for the regulation of international trade. The Parties to CITES are all required to implement the provisions of the Convention; they are also required to enact national legislation to enable confiscation of illegal specimens, the levying of penalties for illegal trade and to appoint Management and Scientific Authorities. This means that all the Parties to CITES share the same legal framework and common procedural mechanisms with which to regulate international trade in specimens of species listed in the CITES Appendices. Included amongst these procedural mechanisms are requirements for trade with countries that are not Parties to CITES which are similar to those requirements for regulating trade between Parties to CITES.

Under the terms of CITES, international trade in a species listed in one of its Appendices is only permitted if this is not detrimental to the survival of the species in the wild. In order to make such judgements, each Party is required to designate a Scientific Authority. The Management Authority issues permits for trade accordingly, i.e. based on the advice it receives from the Scientific Authority. It is then the job of national enforcement agencies, such as Customs officers, to check that shipments are traded with the required permits.

Complementary goals and objectives of the draft CITES Strategic Vision 2008–2013

Goal 1: Ensure compliance with and implementation and enforcement of the Convention

Objective 1.1	Parties comply with their obligations under the Convention through appropriate policies, legislation and procedures: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> All Parties have appropriate policies, legislation and procedures to implement the Convention. All Parties have fully functional Management Authorities, Scientific Authorities and enforcement authorities that have the skills and resources necessary to undertake their Convention obligations to a high standard.
1.3	National wildlife trade policies are consistent with policies and regulations adopted at the international level: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Resolutions of the Conference of the Parties are implemented by all Parties in a consistent manner. Multilateral CITES processes have been further developed that reduce the Parties' need for recourse to stricter domestic measures and reservations. Parties have coherent positions on environment and wildlife trade in international fora.
1.5	Robust scientific information is the basis for non-detriment findings: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The collection of information on species in trade, through field research and monitoring programmes, has been strengthened. Non-detriment findings are made on the basis of sound and relevant scientific information and appropriate risk assessment.
1.6	Parties cooperate in managing shared wildlife resources: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Co-operative recovery plans are in place for shared populations of Appendix-I species. Co-operative management plans are in place for shared populations of Appendix-II species.
1.7	Parties are enforcing the Convention to reduce illegal wildlife trade: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A national wildlife enforcement co-ordination network is established by each Party with representation from all relevant enforcement bodies. Mechanisms are developed to understand more precisely the scale of and trends in illegal trade in species in high demand and to assess the effectiveness of the corresponding enforcement measures. Co-operation exists between national, regional, and international law enforcement agencies and CITES authorities to effectively combat illegal trade in wild fauna and flora. Parties have strengthened their enforcement of the Convention to ensure that punitive action against offenders in commensurate with the seriousness of the offence.
1.8	Parties and the Secretariat have adequate capacity building programmes in place: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capacity building programmes have been developed for training trainers. All Parties, in collaboration with the Secretariat where appropriate, provide their staff responsible for implementing CITES with access to adequate training and information resources. National and regional training programmes are in place for all aspects of the implementation of CITES, including the making of non-detriment findings, issuance of permits and enforcement. The Secretariat plays an active role in co-ordinating the production of identification materials to ensure consistency and prevent duplication of effort.

Goal 3: Ensure that CITES and other multilateral instruments and processes are coherent and mutually supportive.

Objective 3.1	Funding and common implementation of CITES-related conservation projects by international financial mechanisms and other relevant institutions is significantly increased: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> CITES-related projects have been developed that contribute to poverty alleviation and livelihoods of local communities. Social and economic instruments are in place to provide benefits to local communities and conservation from wildlife trade, to an extent commensurate with the value of the specimens traded.
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ANNEX II:

OVERVIEW OF GLOBAL WILDLIFE TRADE IN MAJOR CATEGORIES

Table 13: Detailed overview of quantity of global wildlife trade in major categories, 2000–2005

Commodity	Product	EU27	USA	RoW**
Live birds				
Falconiformes	live	6 036	560	23 527
Psittacidae	live	1 268 768	131 281	1 142 127
Passerines	live	3 258 691	3 275	629 992
Other birds	live	174 818	2 323	120 904
Live reptiles and amphibians				
Tortoises	live	163 508	196 207	257 523
Lizards	live	1 176 203	3 598 730	889 752
Snakes	live	311 456	1 139 273	243 113
Amphibians	live	40 300	147 472	47 763
Reptile skins				
Crocodylians	skins	2 941 527	1 185 845	6 967 222
Lizards	skins	3 353 303	886 953	6 489 708
Snakes	skins	3 440 955	322 659	4 481 763
Caviar				
Caviar	kg	425 904	202 924	235 900
Invertebrates				
Corals	live	1 263 868	4 097 051	1 117 368
Invertebrates*	live/dead	850 489	1 707 144	436 234
Plants				
Galanthus	live/bulbs	153 453 221	11 136 030	79 475 512
Cacti	live	25 039 076	28 984 617	33 768 245
Orchids	live	36 730 526	90 903 495	242 757 656
Cyclamen	live/bulbs	13 956 277	1 424 491	2 693 511
Tropical timber				
Mahogany	timber (m ³)	18 095	358 010	368 856
Pericopsis	timber (m ³)	46 601	2 392	21 916
Ramin	timber (m ³)	113 052	20 930	188 119

* I.e. non-coral.

** Rest of World (RoW)

Source: Adapted from UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database.

SELECTED EXAMPLES OF EU EXTERNAL ASSISTANCE

The following information is taken from documents of the 53rd and 54th meetings of the CITES Standing Committee (SC54 Doc 43.4 & SC53 Doc 3.4 Annex). Limitations in the distribution of examples are a result of differences in Member State reporting.

In September 2005, the French National Office of Hunting and Wild Fauna (ONCFS – Ministry for Ecology and Sustainable Development) trained the Brazilian Federal Police regarding CITES and wildlife trafficking.

The Federal Ministry of Environment of **Germany** contributed EUR30 000 to the first governmental meeting of the GRASP-Initiative (Great Apes Survival Project) organized by UNEP in September 2005 in Kinshasa (Democratic Republic of the Congo).

In collaboration with TRAFFIC SE-Asia, the Wildlife Conservation Society and the CITES Authorities of Viet Nam and Cambodia, the **German** CITES MA conducted two CITES training seminars in Phnom Penh from 16–17 March 2006 and in Hanoi from 20–24 March 2006.

A trainee from the CITES MA of Hong Kong SAR visited **Germany's** CITES MA in January 2006 to learn about EC CITES legislation and the functioning of CITES administrative bodies of the SAs and the MA, as well as the role of customs and regional CITES Authorities of the 'Bundesländer' in Germany.

The Government of the United Kingdom provided financial and technical support for many CITES-related conservation, capacity building and training projects during the period covered by this report. The Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (Defra) contributed to the following programmes and projects in support of CITES and related conservation initiatives:

- Lion workshop (November 2005). The UK's MA has played a key part in promoting sustainable management of wildlife natural resources in Africa through its support for an participation in the IUCN workshop (January 2006) on the conservation and management priorities for the African lion.
- Flagship Species Fund – GBP100 000 to contribute to the fund, administered by Fauna and Flora International, which is used to support field conservation projects in developing countries, including some in UK overseas territories. Since 2001 has provided GBP480 000 to help conserve some of the world's most threatened species as well as leveraging a further GBP474 000 from the corporate sector. The fund focuses on three main groups; primates, turtles and trees.
- CITES Elephant Trade Information System (ETIS) – GBP42 200 to support the ETIS

project, collects data on legal and illegal trade in elephant products.

- CITES Monitoring Illegal Killing of Elephants (MIKE) – GBP40 000 to support the MIKE project which collects data on illegal elephant killing.
- CITES Delegates Assistance Fund – GBP30,000 to allow delegates from developing countries to attend CITES meetings.
- CITES workshop on CITES and livelihoods – GBP10 000 to support a workshop on the impacts of CITES-listing decisions on the livelihoods of the poor. This is the first time there has been explicit recognition that the CITES system should address this issue.
- CITES Great Ape Enforcement Task Force – GBP22 000 towards the first meeting of the Great Ape Task Force and will provide a forum for the collection and exchange of intelligence and information regarding illicit trade in these species.
- CITES Evaluation of electronic permitting systems – GBP10 000 to enable the CITES Secretariat to evaluate the systems used by other agreements and organisations to license activities, and consider how current best practices might be adopted by CITES.
- CITES EU Wildlife Trade Enforcement Communication Initiative – GBP25 000 towards an initiative which was recommended at the UK-hosted Wildlife Trade Enforcement Co-ordination workshop in 2005. The project aims to deliver an EU-wide database to improve the effectiveness of CITES enforcement within the EU.
- GBP12 000 towards a CITES Capacity-building workshop on trade in agarwood (*Aquilaria malaccensis*) aimed at improving enforcement and implementation of trade restrictions for this and other agarwood-producing species which are under threat from overexploitation.
- 21st Century Tiger – GBP50 000 to fund practical conservation projects that are taken forward by the 21st Century Tiger – a partnership between London Zoo and Global Tiger Patrol.
- African Elephant Specialist Group – GBP75 000 to contribute to the costs of this IUCN Group.
- Shark Specialist Group – GBP35 000 to fund an officer within the IUCN Species Specialist Group, including travel costs to international meetings.
- African Rhino Specialist Group – GBP30 000 to facilitate collaborative work and information

- sharing between the African and Asian Rhino Specialist Groups on issues concerning legal and illegal trade in rhinoceros species. The work will result in a report to the CITES CoP in 2007.
- Analysis of CITES amendment proposals – GBP10 000 to contribute towards the production of an independent report (The Analyses) by IUCN and TRAFFIC that enables Parties to assess the proposals submitted by the Parties to CITES to amend the listing of species on the CITES Appendices. At the last CoPs, this proved a useful tool in enabling Parties to make informed decisions.
 - Global Tiger Forum (GTF) International Symposium on the Tiger – GBP19 000 to contribute to the above symposium to be held in Nepal in March/April 2007.
 - Great Apes Survival Project (GRASP) – GBP50 000. This money is a voluntary contribution to GRASP and will help the Secretariat in leveraging further support from other sources. The UK intends to make this the first of an annual voluntary contribution to GRASP.
 - UNEP – identifying timber tree species in international trade – GBP20 000 to contribute to the EU FLEGT action plan which seeks to tackle illegal logging in developing countries. The UK's contribution would go towards the development a timber trade database to support the EU licensing scheme and a series of stakeholder workshops in wood-producing countries of Asia and Africa.
 - Training for CITES Authorities in Guinea on raptor identification and field survey techniques (November 2005) as part of a project commissioned by the UK's Scientific Authority (Fauna) and United Kingdom's Management Authority in collaboration with the CITES authorities of Guinea.
 - The Royal Botanic Gardens (RBG) Kew (the UK's Scientific Authority for Flora) contributed information and training materials on plants in trade for CITES capacity building training course held in Taiwan, province of China, (18–26 November 2005) attended by HM Revenue & Customs.
 - An India/UK Workshop on Wildlife Crime was held over two days in 2006 in New Delhi as part of the India-UK Sustainable Development Dialogue.
 - Whilst in New Delhi, UK Minister Jim Knight announced that the UK was joining the USA led Coalition Against Wildlife Trafficking (CAWT). CAWT's aim is to focus political and public attention on the growing threats to wildlife from poaching and illegal trade.
 - The RBG Kew continued as an active member of the UK's Overseas Territories Conservation Forum and a number of its subgroups, including the South Atlantic Working Group. CITES advice was provided where necessary, in particular on the implementation and enforcement of CITES within the territories.
- The **EC** contributes EUR9 814 000 to establishing a long-term system for monitoring the illegal killing of elephants (MIKE). This project will run over five years and is considered as contributing to the EC Development Policy objectives to reduce poverty as it entails a support for sustainable economic, social and environmental development, based, *inter alia*, on the wise use of natural resources. Also the **UK** provided a grant of GBP50 000 that levered additional funding pledges for MIKE, helping secure adoption of the proposal for an advance from the CITES Trust Fund to support the MIKE Programme.
- To assist in the implementation of certain decisions adopted at CoP13, the **EC** provided a grant to the CITES Secretariat for EUR286 070 with a view to improve the implementation and enforcement of the Convention and achieve greater synergies with other Conventions and organisations. The activities covered under this grant are the CITES Workshop on Introduction from the Sea, a seminar on the conservation of and trade in saiga antelope *Saiga tatarica*, workshops on national laws for implementation of the Convention, and a training course for enforcement officers.
- Austria** provided delegate sponsorship for CoP13 totalling EUR15 000 and the Austrian Ministry of the Environment committed EUR15 000 to the MIKE programme in the form of urgent bridging funds for 2005 (see Notification No. 2005/015).
- With the assistance and participation of TRAFFIC Europe and the CITES Secretariat the **Belgian** CITES MA and SA's organized a four day CITES training workshop in November 2004 in Kinshasa (Democratic Republic of Congo).
- Regarding various capacity-building initiatives the **EC** reported on following:
- The EC had undertaken a number of contracts for assistance in CITES scientific and implementation matters. In the framework of a Monitoring Contract, TRAFFIC Europe has continued to ensure the monitoring of the website for wildlife traders in the EU (www.eu-wildlifetrade.org) which they were mandated to set up under a previous contract. TRAFFIC had also revised and updated under contract the *Reference Guide to the European Community Wildlife Trade Regulations* and had prepared briefings for enforcement staff, an implementation manual on CITES timber species and

other practical implementation aids for use by the Member States of the EU.

UNEP-WCMC had been contracted to provide the trade data which the EU Member States and the EC need to implement Community legislation. Furthermore UNEP-WCMC had prepared synthesis and analyses of EU Member States' annual and biennial reports. The EC has also financially contributed to the in-depth analysis undertaken by the World Conservation Union (IUCN) in combination with TRAFFIC to evaluate the CITES CoP 13 listing proposals.

The EC had furthermore provided financial support to EU-TWIX, a project aimed at improving co-operation and information exchange in order to reinforce and strengthen the enforcement of the EU wildlife trade Regulations, through the creation of a database accessible to all Member States' Enforcement Authorities.

Finally, the EC had contributed to a project investigating the conservation of and trade in *Pericopsis elata* (Afromosia or African Teak) in the three main exporting range States, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo and Cameroon. Prior to the listing of Mahogany and Ramin in the CITES appendices, this was the most commercially important species protected under CITES and is currently the subject of a Significant Trade Review.

The Government of the United Kingdom provided financial support to the following CITES-related conservation, capacity building and training projects:

- GBP100 000 to the Flagships Species Fund;
- GBP70 000 to IUCN: GBP30 000 for the Shark Specialist Group to fund the work of Programme Officers in arranging capacity building workshops and improving communication and awareness;
- GBP20 000 for ETIS – the key global monitoring system to crack down on illegal trade in elephant products together with a contribution of GBP20 000 to IUCN to help fund regional workshops aimed at improving the management of Africa's lion populations.
- GBP30 000 to support the CITES Monitoring Illegal Killing of Elephants (MIKE) project.
- GBP10 000 to the CITES Bushmeat Initiative to address the unsustainable trade in bushmeat.
- GBP5 000 to support the costs of a meeting on hawksbill turtles in the Caribbean.
- GBP5 000 to support the costs of a project to assess the trade in the *Aquilaria* species.
- GBP3 750 to assist a CITES Capacity Building Initiative in Oceania.
- GBP5 020 to facilitate the exchange of information and to assess the implementation of the Appendix II listing of *Swietenia macrophylla* (Mahogany) in Peru, the UK funded a mission to Peru by the CITES Secretariat from 14–17th February, 2005.
- GBP50 000 to fund practical conservation projects that are taken forward by 21st Century Tiger which is a partnership between London Zoo and the NGO, Global Tiger Patrol.
- GBP15 000 for UNEP's World Conservation Monitoring Centre (WCMC) to contribute to the costs of a workshop that will identify tree species that are, or could be, threatened by international trade, as well as highlight best practice that will form the basis of future sustainable use at national, regional and international levels.
- GBP10 000 to UNEP-WCMC to support the work on The World Atlas of Great Apes and their Conservation. The Atlas reviews the great apes' current status, distribution and key threats, and will provide crucial support to the work of UNEP's Great Ape Survival Project (GRASP) partnership
- GBP46 000 through the Overseas Territories Environment Programme (OTEP), a joint initiative with the Department for International Development (DFID), the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) for technical assistance for drafting environmental legislation in Anguilla.
- About GBP1 700 for a British Indian Ocean Territory (BIOT) conservation leaflet.
- About GBP9 000 for a Red List assessment of Cayman Islands native flora.
- GBP75 000 for Albatross and Petrel Conservation Programme in the Falkland Islands.
- Over GBP22 000 for a Strategy for action to implement the environment charter on St. Helena.
- GBP100 000 between March 2004 and March 2005 through the UK Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) as part of an on-going commitment to fund UNEP's Great Ape Survival Project, (GRASP).

TRAFFIC, the wildlife trade monitoring network, works to ensure that trade in wild plants and animals is not a threat to the conservation of nature. It has offices covering most parts of the world and works in close co-operation with the Secretariat of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES).

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