

CONVENCIÓN SOBRE EL COMERCIO INTERNACIONAL DE ESPECIES
AMENAZADAS DE FAUNA Y FLORA SILVESTRES



Decimoctava reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes
Colombo (Sri Lanka), 23 de mayo – 3 de junio de 2019

Cuestiones específicas sobre las especies

Rinocerontes (*Rhinocerotidae* spp.)

INFORME DEL COMITÉ PERMANENTE Y DE LA SECRETARÍA

1. El presente documento ha sido presentado por el Comité Permanente y la Secretaría.
2. En su 17ª reunión (CoP17, Johannesburgo, 2016), la Conferencia de las Partes aprobó las Decisiones 17.133 a 17.144 sobre *Rinocerontes* (*Rhinocerotidae* spp.) que figuran en el Anexo 5 del presente documento.
3. El informe del Comité Permanente, de conformidad con lo previsto en la Decisión 17.144, se presenta en los párrafos 4 a 14 de este documento. El informe de la Secretaría, conforme a las disposiciones de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) sobre *Conservación y comercio de rinocerontes de África y de Asia*, y los informes complementarios, según proceda, se presentan en los párrafos 15 a 88 de este documento.

Decisión 17.144: Informe del Comité Permanente

4. De acuerdo con la Decisión 17.140, en sus 69ª y 70ª reuniones (SC69, Ginebra, noviembre de 2017; SC70, Sochi, octubre de 2018), el Comité Permanente evaluó la aplicación por las Partes de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), así como las medidas aplicadas por las Partes para evitar y combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el tráfico conexo de cuernos de rinoceronte. De acuerdo con lo indicado en esa Decisión, el Comité tuvo en cuenta las recomendaciones que figuran en el Anexo 5 del documento CoP17 Doc.68, centrándose especialmente en las Partes señaladas como países que requerían atención prioritaria, según ese informe. De conformidad con las Decisiones 17.141 a 17.143, en sus 69ª y 70ª reuniones, el Comité también evaluó los progresos realizados por Mozambique y Viet Nam.
5. La Secretaría preparó el documento [SC69 Doc. 60](#) sobre *Rinocerontes* (*Rhinocerotidae* spp.) para la 69ª reunión del Comité Permanente. La Secretaría informó de que, en el Anexo 5 al documento CoP17 Doc.68 sobre *Rinocerontes* (*Rhinocerotidae* spp.), Mozambique, Sudáfrica, Viet Nam y Zimbabwe estaban señaladas como Partes que requerían atención prioritaria y, por consiguiente, había limitado su informe a esas cuatro Partes. La Secretaría también incluyó su informe sobre sus misiones a Mozambique en julio de 2017 y a Viet Nam en septiembre de 2017, de conformidad con las Decisiones 17.135 y 17.137.
6. En la Decisión 17.141 se encomendó al Comité Permanente que evaluara los informes de Mozambique y Viet Nam, de acuerdo con las recomendaciones b) y f) sobre *Conservación y comercio de los rinocerontes de África y de Asia* (*Rhinocerotidae* spp.) acordadas en la 67ª reunión del Comité (SC67, Johannesburgo, octubre de 2016), y que formulara otras recomendaciones adicionales, según procediese. Mozambique incluyó la información pertinente en su informe a la 69ª reunión del Comité Permanente sobre los progresos realizados en la aplicación de su Plan de acción nacional para el marfil y el rinoceronte (PANMR);¹ por otra parte, el informe de Viet Nam se presentó al Comité en el Anexo 1 al documento SC69 Doc. 60.

¹ Véase el Anexo 12 al documento SC69 Doc. 29.3 sobre el Proceso de Planes de acción nacionales para el marfil.

7. El documento preparado por la Secretaría para la 69ª reunión del Comité Permanente y los informes presentados demostraron la gran diversidad de medidas y actividades encomiables que han sido aplicadas y promovidas por las Partes concernidas para abordar la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte. No obstante, también quedó claro que son imprescindibles los esfuerzos continuos de las Partes para combatir estos delitos, habida cuenta de que persisten la caza furtiva y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte.
8. En su 69ª reunión, el Comité acordó algunas recomendaciones sobre rinocerontes (*Rhinocerotidae* spp.) que se pueden ver en el documento [SC69 Sum. 4 \(Rev. 1\)](#). Estas recomendaciones incluyeron un conjunto amplio de recomendaciones específicas dirigidas a Mozambique y Viet Nam, en las que se pidió a ambas Partes que presentasen informes adicionales a la 70ª reunión del Comité Permanente y, en el caso de Viet Nam, también a la 71ª reunión del Comité Permanente (SC71, Colombo, mayo de 2019).
9. En su 60ª reunión, el Comité estableció un grupo de trabajo entre períodos de sesiones sobre rinocerontes, con la composición indicada en el documento [SC69 Sum. 4 \(Rev. 1\)](#).² El Comité señaló que algunas Partes y observadores en la 69ª reunión del Comité Permanente sugirieron que, habida cuenta de que se mencionan a China y a Namibia en el Anexo 5 del documento CoP17 Doc. 68, deberían ser incluidas como Partes que requieren atención prioritaria: China, porque los datos sugieren la existencia de un mercado ilegal significativo de cuerno de rinoceronte en el país, y Namibia, debido al aumento de la caza furtiva de rinocerontes en el país. El Comité entonces encomendó las siguientes tareas al grupo de trabajo entre períodos de sesiones sobre rinocerontes:
 - a) *evaluar la aplicación por las Partes de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) y las medidas para prevenir y combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el tráfico de cuerno de rinoceronte, teniendo en cuenta las recomendaciones incluidas en el Anexo 5 del documento CoP17 Doc.68 y, centrándose en particular en los seis países identificados como de atención prioritaria como se presenta en ese informe, y formular recomendaciones según proceda; y*
 - b) *examinar y evaluar los informes sometidos por Mozambique y Viet Nam, cuando estén disponibles.*
10. A fin de evaluar la aplicación por las Partes de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), el grupo de trabajo elaboró un cuestionario sobre los elementos clave de la Resolución, entre ellos, la legislación, las investigaciones, los enjuiciamientos, los análisis forenses y la gestión de las existencias de cuerno de rinoceronte. El cuestionario fue enviado a las Partes en el Anexo a la [Notificación a las Partes No. 2018/040](#) del 23 de abril de 2018. El grupo de trabajo recibió 20 respuestas a la Notificación, de las Partes siguientes: Alemania, Austria, China, Eslovaquia, los Estados Unidos de América, Filipinas, Francia, Hungría, la Unión Europea, Malta, Mozambique, Namibia, Nueva Zelandia, los Países Bajos, el Reino Unido de Gran Bretaña e Irlanda del Norte, Sudáfrica, Suecia, Tailandia, Viet Nam y Zimbabwe. Habida cuenta de que el Comité Permanente había solicitado informes adicionales de Mozambique y Viet Nam para la 70ª reunión del Comité Permanente, el grupo de trabajo acordó que, en lo concerniente a estas dos Partes, trabajaría sobre la base de los informes recibidos de Mozambique y Viet Nam en respuesta a las recomendaciones acordadas por el Comité Permanente en su 69ª reunión, en lugar de utilizar sus respuestas al cuestionario.
11. El grupo de trabajo elaboró el documento [SC70 Doc. 56](#) sobre *Rinocerontes (Rhinocerotidae spp.)* para la 70ª reunión del Comité Permanente. El documento se preparó con un enfoque especial en Mozambique, Sudáfrica, Viet Nam y Zimbabwe, además de China y Namibia como las dos Partes mencionadas en el informe e indicadas como Partes que requerían atención prioritaria. En el documento del grupo de trabajo, se señaló que era evidente que las seis Partes mencionadas se estaban esforzando mucho para aplicar la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) y para adoptar medidas y realizar actividades a fin de abordar la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el tráfico conexo de cuerno de rinoceronte. Estas medidas y actividades se describen en mayor detalle en el documento y sus anexos. El documento también incluye un resumen en el que se proponen algunas áreas que requieren mayor atención y el grupo de trabajo considera que es en esas áreas que las seis Partes deberían enfocar sus iniciativas para combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte.

² Después de la 69ª reunión del Comité Permanente, la Presidencia del grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes recibió peticiones por escrito del Organismo de Investigación Ambiental (EIA, por sus siglas en inglés) y de WildAid para que fueran incluidos como miembros del Grupo de trabajo entre períodos de sesiones sobre rinocerontes. De conformidad con el Reglamento del Comité Permanente, la Presidencia del Comité Permanente acordó la inclusión de estas dos organizaciones no gubernamentales como miembros del grupo de trabajo.

12. Tras analizar las respuestas de todas las Partes al cuestionario, el grupo de trabajo identificó algunas cuestiones comunes. Por ejemplo, todas las Partes tenían legislación para la protección de las especies silvestres amenazadas, incluyendo los rinocerontes, y no una legislación específica para la protección de los rinocerontes, y muchas Partes han aplicado medidas nacionales más estrictas sobre el comercio de especímenes de rinoceronte. El documento también señala diversas buenas prácticas y actividades apropiadas que se están llevando a cabo.
13. En su 70ª reunión, el Comité Permanente estableció un grupo de trabajo durante la reunión sobre rinocerontes, con la composición y el mandato que figuran en el documento [SC70 Sum. 6 \(Rev. 1\)](#). El Comité acordó un conjunto amplio de recomendaciones sobre *Rinocerontes (Rhinocerotidae spp.)* que se incluyó en el documento [SC70 Sum. 12 \(Rev. 1\)](#). Además de las recomendaciones acordadas, el Comité también acordó proponer los dos proyectos de decisión que figuran en el Anexo 1 del presente documento para que sean examinados por la Conferencia de las Partes. La numeración de estos dos proyectos de decisión ha sido modificada con respecto a la numeración indicada en el documento SC70 Sum. 12 (Rev. 1); los cambios se muestran con texto tachado y subrayado en el Anexo 1 del presente, donde figuran como proyectos de decisión 18.DD y 18.FF.
14. El Comité Permanente considera que las Decisiones 17.135 a 17.144 han sido aplicadas y pueden ser suprimidas.

Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17): Informe de la Secretaría

15. En los párrafos 7 a 11 de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), tal y como se puede ver en el Anexo 5 del presente, la Conferencia de las Partes encarga a la Secretaría que, antes de cada reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes, encargue a los Grupos de especialistas en rinocerontes africanos y asiáticos de la Comisión de Supervivencia de Especies (CSE) de la Unión Internacional para la Conservación de la Naturaleza (UICN) y TRAFFIC que presenten un informe a la Secretaría.
16. De acuerdo con lo previsto en el párrafo 8 de la Resolución, los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC consultaron con los Estados del área de distribución e involucrados, según procediese, así como con el Centro de Monitoreo de la Conservación Mundial del Programa de las Naciones Unidas para el Medio Ambiente, cuando prepararon el informe.
17. La Secretaría puso un resumen global de las existencias de cuerno de rinoceronte declaradas por las Partes a disposición de los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC para su análisis e inclusión en su informe.
18. El informe elaborado por los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC para la 18ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes (CoP18, Colombo, 2019), conforme al párrafo 9 b) de la Resolución, se encuentra en el Anexo 2 del presente documento. El informe solo está disponible en inglés. La Secretaría aprovecha la oportunidad para agradecer al gobierno de Suiza su respuesta favorable a lo dispuesto en el párrafo 10 de la Resolución mediante la aportación generosa de la financiación para que la Secretaría pudiera encargar el informe.
19. La información presentada en el informe demuestra que, salvo en algunos casos, prácticamente todos los Estados del área de distribución han adoptado planes de conservación y ordenación del rinoceronte, tal y como se pide en el párrafo 4 de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17).
20. También cabe señalar que desde la elaboración del primer informe de los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC para la 14ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes (CoP14, La Haya, 2007), el número registrado de todas las especies de rinocerontes ha aumentado, salvo en el caso del rinoceronte de Sumatra (*Dicerorhinus sumatrensis*). A pesar de las disminuciones recientes de algunas especies a consecuencia de la sequía en África meridional, el número total de rinocerontes ha aumentado en más de 28 %. Las iniciativas de conservación de las Partes son encomiables y la Secretaría señala que los controles aplicados por las Partes al comercio de especímenes de rinoceronte en el marco de la CITES han contribuido de forma significativa a este éxito. No obstante, no se debe bajar la guardia ante la matanza y el comercio ilegales, y según las disposiciones de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), la situación debe ser revisada periódicamente por la Conferencia de las Partes.
21. En los párrafos 22 a 34 a continuación, se señalan brevemente algunas de las cuestiones clave relativas a los rinocerontes africanos y asiáticos que figuran en el informe de los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC para la 18ª reunión de la Conferencia de

las Partes. No es el objetivo del presente documento abordar todos los asuntos tratados en el informe, por lo que, se invita a las Partes a consultar el informe completo para mayor información.

África

Estado de conservación y tendencias de los rinocerontes africanos en el ámbito nacional y continental

22. En el informe se describen las actividades de conservación y las estrategias de gestión aplicadas en África y se señala que el rinoceronte blanco (*Ceratotherium simum*) está clasificado en la Lista Roja de la UICN en la categoría de casi amenazada; por otra parte, el rinoceronte negro (*Diceros bicornis*) está clasificado en la Lista Roja de la UICN en la categoría de en peligro crítico.
23. En el informe se afirma que el número estimado de rinocerontes africanos al final de 2017 estaba entre 17 212 y 18 915 rinocerontes blancos, y entre 5366 y 5627 rinocerontes negros. La gran mayoría de los rinocerontes africanos (97 % de los rinocerontes blancos y 94 % de los rinocerontes negros) se encuentran en cuatro de los Estados del área de distribución: Kenya, Namibia, Sudáfrica y Zimbabwe.
24. Según el informe, aunque el número de rinocerontes blancos aumentó rápidamente entre 1992 y 2010, llegando a un crecimiento medio de la población de +7,1 % anualmente, a medida que aumentaba la caza furtiva, el crecimiento de la población empezó a frenarse y, a partir de 2012, a disminuir. También, se indica en el informe que, tras llegar al nivel más bajo en 1995, el número de rinocerontes negros ha ido aumentando de manera continua, si bien en los últimos años, por causa de la mayor incidencia de la caza furtiva, el crecimiento ha sido algo más lento. Se señala en el informe que las distintas tendencias exhibidas por las dos especies se deben en parte a que el rinoceronte blanco es objetivo más frecuente de la caza furtiva que el rinoceronte negro, probablemente porque los rinocerontes blancos suelen vivir en hábitats más abiertos donde son más fáciles de cazar, viven en grupos más grandes y el peso medio de sus cuernos es mayor. También se señala en el informe que la diferencia en la tendencia de la población entre rinocerontes blancos y rinocerontes negros en los últimos años también puede ser debido a la respuesta diferente de cada especie ante la grave sequía que afectó a algunas partes de África meridional en 2015–2016, habida cuenta de que la sequía afecta más a la fuente de alimento del rinoceronte blanco (herbívoros) que a la del rinoceronte negro (ramoneador).

Caza furtiva y comercio ilegal de rinocerontes africanos

25. En el informe se destaca que la disminución del número anual de rinocerontes cazados furtivamente en África que se viene observando desde 2015 parece haber continuado hasta 2018. Según informes, la incidencia de la caza furtiva en los primeros ocho o nueve meses de 2018 seguía baja, o incluso menor, en muchos Estados del área de distribución, con la salvedad de Botswana y Namibia donde hubo un ligero aumento preocupante. En el informe se indica que, en la fecha de redacción del informe, parecía probable que, por primera vez en seis años, el número de rinocerontes cazados furtivamente en toda África en 2018 fuera inferior a 1000 ejemplares. El Grupo de especialistas en rinocerontes africanos (GERAf) de la UICN recopilará las estimaciones de población y los registros actualizados para 2018 en su reunión de febrero de 2019 y preparará un resumen actualizado que se presentará en un documento informativo a la 18ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes.
26. En el informe se estima que unos 4757 cuernos de rinocerontes africanos fueron comercializados ilegalmente en el período 2016–2017. Según informes, 1093 (23 %) de estos cuernos fueron decomisados en África o en otros países. Esto representa unos 2378 cuernos de rinoceronte, con un peso estimado de 6,6 toneladas, que se obtienen para los mercados ilegales. Sobre la base de los decomisos, se calcula que unos 1832 cuernos o unas 5,1 toneladas de cuerno de rinoceronte son objeto del comercio ilegal anualmente. El informe señala que, al parecer, se ha frenado el crecimiento rápido del número de cuernos de rinoceronte destinados a los mercados ilegales, tal y como se viene documentando en los informes elaborados para cada reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes a partir de la 14ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes, y el número de cuernos de rinoceronte destinados a los mercados ilegales ha disminuido ligeramente en 2016 y 2017. La caza furtiva sigue siendo la fuente principal de estos cuernos.
27. En el informe se indica que, según los datos de la base de datos sobre decomisos de cuernos de rinoceronte de TRAFFIC para el período 2009 – septiembre de 2018,³ el total estimado del peso y de la cantidad de cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados aumentó de manera constante entre 2009 y 2017. Según informes,

³ Datos correspondientes a 737 decomisos de cuernos de rinoceronte y un total estimado de 2733 cuernos o trozos de cuerno, con un peso total de 6349 kg.

con respecto al número total estimado de cuernos de rinoceronte destinados a los mercados ilegales, el porcentaje de cuernos decomisados en África prácticamente se ha duplicado desde la 17ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes, del 4,5 % al 8,9 %; en comparación, el porcentaje de cuernos decomisados fuera de África se ha mantenido más o menos en el mismo nivel (5,8 % y 5,5 %, respectivamente). En el informe se señala que hubo mayor número de decomisos en África (con respecto a países no africanos) todos los años, salvo 2013 y 2014, y en 2017, las cifras eran prácticamente iguales en ambos casos. El informe también señala que, entre 2010 y 2014, el peso de los cuernos decomisados por ejemplar cazado furtivamente disminuyó en consonancia con el aumento constante de la caza furtiva que, en 2014, rozó el nivel máximo. No obstante, el peso de los cuernos decomisados por rinoceronte cazado furtivamente ha aumentado anualmente desde 2014, lo que posiblemente indique una mayor y más eficaz aplicación de la ley. En el informe se señala, asimismo, que esta tendencia coincidió con la disminución paulatina inicial de la incidencia de caza furtiva y, por otra parte, con el descenso más limitado de la caza furtiva después de 2015; se prevé que la caza furtiva en 2018 vuelva a los niveles observados por última vez en 2013.

28. Se destaca en el informe que hay evidencia de la existencia de establecimientos, gestionados por ciudadanos chinos, donde se transforman los cuernos de rinoceronte. Tales establecimientos surgieron en Sudáfrica después de la 17ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes y en ellos se producen artículos trabajados para exportar a los mercados asiáticos, lo que marca una nueva tendencia del comercio ilegal. Asimismo, se señala que, en el transcurso de las investigaciones policiales en 2017, se descubrieron pequeños talleres caseros en los que se producían collares y pulseras de cuerno de rinoceronte para exportar, junto con recortes de cuerno y cuerno pulverizado. También se señala en el informe que se han decomisado bolsas de recortes, cuentas y cilindros de cuerno de rinoceronte en Mozambique, pero todavía no se sabe si existen establecimientos de transformación en el país o si los artículos decomisados procedían de Sudáfrica u otros lugares.

Asia

Estado de conservación y tendencias de los rinocerontes asiáticos en el ámbito nacional y continental

29. En el informe se señala que el rinoceronte indio (*Rhinoceros unicornis*) está clasificado en la Lista Roja de la UICN en la categoría de vulnerable y que, según los datos disponibles, las poblaciones estimadas suman unos 2939 ejemplares en la India y unos 649 ejemplares en Nepal. Estas cifras indican solo un ligero incremento del número de rinocerontes indios en los países de estas dos Partes en el período entre las 17ª y 18ª reuniones de la Conferencia de las Partes.
30. Con respecto al rinoceronte de Java (*Rhinoceros sondaicus*), que está clasificado en la categoría de en peligro crítico y se encuentra en una sola población en el Parque Nacional Ujung Kulon en el oeste de Java, Indonesia, el informe indica que se ha mejorado el seguimiento con la instalación de cámaras trampa que cubren todo el parque. También se señala que las autoridades del parque informaron de que, entre 2016 y 2018, se encontraron tres rinocerontes de Java muertos, con los cuernos intactos (se suponen muertes naturales), y de que al menos cuatro crías nacieron en 2017 y tres en 2018, por lo que el total estimado actualmente es de 65–68 ejemplares. Esto representa un ligero incremento comparado con el total estimado de 63 ejemplares en 2015 que figuraba en el informe a la 17ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes. El informe señala que, al encontrarse todos los ejemplares en una sola población, la especie es especialmente vulnerable a la caza furtiva, las enfermedades transmitidas por el ganado y las posibles catástrofes naturales, tales como la actividad volcánica o un tsunami grande. Se señala que sigue habiendo escasos progresos en los ya dilatados planes para establecer una segunda población en Indonesia y que, en términos estratégicos, una segunda población no solo reduciría el riesgo sino también podría fomentar la cría, al liberar recursos alimentarios para las hembras restantes, siempre que hubiese una extensión suficiente de hábitat apropiado bien protegido.
31. En el informe se señala que el rinoceronte de Sumatra (*Dicerorhinus sumatrensis*), que también está clasificado en la categoría de en peligro crítico, actualmente esta restringido a menos de diez subpoblaciones en solo cuatro sitios aislados de Indonesia. Según el informe, se estima que la población total del rinoceronte de Sumatra está formada por 40–78 ejemplares, comparado con los 76 estimados en el informe presentado a la 17ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes. Asimismo, se cree que ninguna de las subpoblaciones tiene más de 30 ejemplares y según informes, se estima que algunas subpoblaciones solo tienen entre dos y cinco ejemplares y probablemente no sean viables a largo plazo. En el informe también se señala un proyecto de rescate del rinoceronte de Sumatra que se puso en marcha en septiembre de 2018 con el objetivo de establecer dos centros nuevos de cría intensiva en semicautividad a fin de criar animales de las actualmente pequeñas poblaciones aisladas de los Parques Nacionales de Kalimantan y Bukit Barisan Selatan, con la esperanza de aumentar estas poblaciones. Asimismo, el informe señala el registro del decomiso de tres cuernos de rinoceronte de Sumatra desde 2014 e indica, además, que la caza

furtiva, la conversión del hábitat, las especies invasoras y la posible sucesión vegetal siguen siendo amenazas importantes para la supervivencia de la especie.

Caza furtiva y comercio ilegal de los rinocerontes asiáticos

32. Los datos disponibles indican que la caza furtiva del rinoceronte indio ha disminuido anualmente desde 2013, pasando de un nivel máximo de 41 ejemplares anuales en 2013, a 12 ejemplares en 2017, y a solo siete ejemplares hasta septiembre de 2018. En el informe se afirma que la reducción continua de la caza furtiva de los rinocerontes indios refleja el éxito de los organismos de aplicación de la ley que trabajan en primera línea. Nepal sigue a la cabeza en la prevención de la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y se informó de solo dos rinocerontes cazados furtivamente en Nepal entre 2011 y septiembre de 2018.
33. En el informe se destaca que, si bien la gran mayoría de los cuernos de rinoceronte comercializados ilegalmente corresponden a especies de rinoceronte africanos, en algunos casos, los cuernos decomisados provienen de especies de rinocerontes asiáticos. Según los datos, se encontraron 78 cuernos de rinocerontes asiáticos (75 de rinoceronte indio y tres de rinoceronte de Sumatra) en 66 decomisos realizados en el período 2014–2018. En comparación, en el período 2009–2013 fueron decomisados 45 cuernos (42 de rinoceronte indio, dos de rinoceronte de Java, y uno de rinoceronte de Sumatra) en 39 decomisos.
34. El informe señala que los niveles de caza furtiva registrados en Asia actualmente no son significativos, pero habida cuenta de que el número de rinocerontes de Java y de Sumatra es tan bajo, incluso esos niveles podrían tener un impacto negativo sobre las subpoblaciones y, por consiguiente, es imprescindible permanecer vigilantes en la aplicación de la ley para proteger estas especies en peligro crítico.

Partes más afectadas por la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte

35. Los párrafos 76 a 91 del documento SC70 Doc. 56 corresponden al resumen preparado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes, en el que el grupo de trabajo indica algunas áreas que considera importantes y es en esas áreas que las autoridades de China, Mozambique, Namibia, Sudáfrica, Viet Nam y Zimbabwe deberían centrar sus esfuerzos para combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte.
36. En su 70ª reunión, el Comité Permanente pidió a la Secretaría que tuviera en cuenta el resumen elaborado por el grupo de trabajo cuando formulara proyectos de decisión para la presente reunión, de acuerdo con el párrafo 9 c) de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17). También en su 70ª reunión, el Comité Permanente alentó a las Partes afectadas a enviar a la Secretaría cualquier información adicional relativa a las cuestiones indicadas en el resumen preparado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinoceronte a fin de que se incluyera en el informe de la Secretaría para la presente reunión. La Secretaría recibió informes de China y de Zimbabwe, que se adjuntan en los Anexos 3 y 4 del presente documento.
37. Sobre la base del informe de los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC, y teniendo en cuenta el resumen preparado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes presentado en el documento SC70 Doc. 56, en los siguientes párrafos 40 a 81, la Secretaría informa sobre cuestiones pertinentes a China, Mozambique, Namibia, Sudáfrica, Viet Nam y Zimbabwe, consideradas como las Partes más afectadas por la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuernos de rinoceronte. La Secretaría también incluye Botswana, al ser Parte que actualmente registra un incremento de la caza furtiva de rinoceronte.
38. Los proyectos de decisión preparados por la Secretaría de acuerdo con el párrafo 9 c) de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), para que sean examinados por la Conferencia de las Partes, figuran en el Anexo 1 del presente documento como proyectos de decisión 18.AA, 18.BB, 18.CC y 18.EE, y tienen en cuenta el resumen elaborado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes, tal y como fue solicitado por el Comité.
39. La Secretaría propone que las Decisiones 17.133 y 17.134 sean suprimidas y reemplazadas por el proyecto de decisión 18.AA.

Botswana

40. El cuadro 2 del informe presentado en el Anexo 2 del presente documento muestra un ligero incremento de la caza furtiva de rinocerontes en Botswana. En 2018, siete ejemplares fueron matados ilegalmente, todos antes de agosto de ese año, comparado con dos ejemplares en 2012 y 2013 respectivamente; en los años

restantes a partir de 2006, el número de ejemplares matados ilegalmente fue uno o ninguno. Se alienta a la Parte pertinente a estar vigilante a fin de procurar que las medidas aplicadas para prevenir y combatir la caza furtiva sigan siendo eficaces y sean adaptadas rápidamente para responder a cualquier tendencia nueva.

China

41. Tal y como se puede ver en el cuadro 5 del informe presentado en el Anexo 2 del presente, China, incluyendo Hong Kong, Región Administrativa Especial (RAE) de China, es el destino de los envíos ilegales de cuerno de rinoceronte. Los datos utilizados para la preparación del informe muestran que, entre 2012 y 2014, el 30 % de todos los decomisos registrados fueron realizados por China o implicaban a China, representando más de la cuarta parte del peso y de la cantidad estimados de cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados. Según informes, el peso y la cantidad estimados de los cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados por China aumentaron en el período 2014–2018, comparado con el período 2009–2013, lo que podría indicar una mejor aplicación de la ley. Sin embargo, el informe también señala que el peso y el número estimados de cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados en otros lugares, pero relacionados con China, también aumentaron durante este mismo período. Asimismo, el informe señala que esto podría indicar un aumento de la demanda de cuerno de rinoceronte en China y que, a pesar del trabajo significativo para aplicar la ley y los numerosos enjuiciamientos, esa Parte sigue siendo un destino clave para el comercio ilegal.
42. En el informe se señala que, en los últimos años, el número de ciudadanos chinos detenidos por delitos relacionados con cuernos de rinoceronte ilegales ha aumentado de manera significativa. También se señala el análisis llevado a cabo por las autoridades de Sudáfrica de los decomisos realizados en el aeropuerto internacional de O.R. Tambo entre agosto de 2016 y octubre de 2018, que mostró que Hong Kong figuraba como destino de los cuernos decomisados en más de la mitad de los casos.
43. El informe destaca la gran diversidad de iniciativas educativas dirigidas a ciudadanos chinos en África, entre ellas, el envío de mensajes SMS a cada ciudadano chino a su llegada a un país extranjero en los que se le advierte que no compre, transporte o envíe especies silvestres amenazadas, especialmente cuerno de rinoceronte y marfil. El informe afirma que la eficacia de estas medidas parece ser limitada, habida cuenta de la cantidad creciente de ciudadanos chinos que son detenidos en países extranjeros. En este sentido, el proyecto de decisión 18.AA parece pertinente.
44. En el informe se describe en detalle una encuesta cuantitativa, realizada en línea, a fin de evaluar la demanda de los consumidores chinos de productos de rinoceronte, elefante, pangolín y tigre. La encuesta, de respuesta autoevaluada, se llevó a cabo en febrero–marzo de 2018 entre 1800 compradores en seis centros urbanos: Shanghái, Beijing, Guangzhou, Kunming, Nanning y Harbin. Según el informe, las respuestas a la encuesta indican que se está cambiando la percepción del cuerno de rinoceronte como algo relacionado con el estatus social, al ser 'una afirmación de riqueza, éxito y posición elevada' y 'una buena inversión', a considerarlo como una medicina porque 'aporta buena salud', 'bienestar' y 'cura enfermedades'. En este sentido también parece pertinente el proyecto de decisión 18.AA.
45. El informe también señala que, a través de un programa a largo plazo llevado por TRAFFIC que hace un seguimiento de las plataformas de 31 sitios web conocidos por su oferta de productos de especies amenazadas, se observó que el número de nuevos anuncios de especímenes de rinoceronte en China se había reducido a la mitad, pasando de un promedio de 96 mensuales en 2016, a 42 mensuales en 2017; no obstante, esta cifra volvió a aumentar significativamente durante el primer trimestre de 2018. Se informa de que la media mensual de nuevos anuncios de especímenes de rinoceronte se multiplicó por 6,7 entre principios de 2018 y junio de 2018, llegando a 283 mensuales. No obstante, es alentador observar en el informe que, tras las intervenciones con los administradores de los sitios web pertinentes, en octubre de 2018, el número de anuncios en el conjunto de los 31 sitios web controlados se había reducido a solo 34.
46. Con respecto a las medidas aplicadas por China para combatir el comercio ilegal, así como el uso y consumo ilegales de cuerno de rinoceronte, el informe señala que la legislación de China está bien desarrollada; las penas por delitos menores incluyen hasta cinco años de prisión y una multa, y los delitos graves pueden conllevar la cadena perpetua y la confiscación de bienes. La gravedad del delito y las penas correspondientes impuestas a los declarados culpables se determinan en función del valor económico de los especímenes objeto del delito. China aporta más detalles sobre esta cuestión en el informe que figura en el Anexo 3 del presente documento.
47. El informe de los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC también señala que en China se han celebrado varios procesos judiciales por delitos relacionados con especímenes de rinoceronte que acabaron en sentencia condenatoria. Según un sitio web gubernamental

en el que se publican las sentencias judiciales,⁴ entre junio de 2013 y abril de 2017, se juzgaron 88 casos relacionados con especímenes de cuerno de rinoceronte en los que 131 delincuentes fueron condenados y sentenciados. Según informes, las penas dictadas fueron, por término medio, más severas en los casos de contrabando internacional transfronterizo que en los casos de tráfico y comercio ilegal en el ámbito nacional, debido a que en esos casos las cantidades correspondientes de cuerno de rinoceronte suelen ser mayores. En el informe se destaca una serie de otras actividades y medidas aplicadas por China para combatir el comercio ilegal de cuernos de rinoceronte, sobre las que también informa la Parte en el Anexo 2 del documento [SC70 Doc. 56](#).

48. La Secretaría felicita a China por sus iniciativas para combatir el comercio ilegal de cuernos de rinoceronte, cuyo éxito está reflejado en las condenas y sentencias mencionadas en el párrafo 47 anterior. No obstante, es imprescindible que China aproveche estos éxitos e intensifique sus esfuerzos para garantizar que aquellos que siguen gestionando y organizando el comercio ilegal sean detenidos, juzgados y condenados para así poner fin a sus actividades ilegales. Teniendo en cuenta el papel cada vez más significativo que parece tener Hong Kong en el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte, es especialmente importante que las autoridades de la RAE de Hong Kong intensifiquen sus esfuerzos para procurar la detención y el enjuiciamiento de las personas responsables.
49. El proyecto de Decisión 18.AA parece especialmente pertinente para China, incluyendo la RAE de Hong Kong. Además, habida cuenta de las tendencias crecientes del comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte que afectan a China, tal vez la Parte quiera revisar las medidas que ha adoptado a fin de comprobar que sigan siendo eficaces y sean las más apropiadas para combatir y reducir los niveles del comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte.
50. Es fundamental que las Partes más afectadas por la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte se esfuercen para reforzar la aplicación de los párrafos 1 e) y 2 d) de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), incluso mediante la puesta en marcha de investigaciones y operaciones conjuntas, a fin de hacer frente a los miembros de las redes de delincuencia organizada en toda la cadena del comercio ilegal. En este contexto, se propone el proyecto de decisión 18.BB.
51. Tal y como se indica en el párrafo 36 anterior, la Secretaría recibió el informe que figura en el Anexo 3 del presente, en el que China responde detalladamente a las cuestiones planteadas en el resumen preparado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes, presentado en el documento SC70 Doc. 56.

Mozambique

52. En el cuadro 2 del informe que figura en el Anexo 2 del presente, se puede ver que los niveles anuales de caza furtiva en Mozambique han disminuido desde 2014, año en que 19 animales fueron matados ilegalmente, a cinco en 2015, cuatro en 2017, y solo uno hasta julio de 2018.
53. En el informe se señala que Mozambique ha informado de varios casos de procesos judiciales que acabaron en condena tras la entrada en vigor de las nuevas enmiendas a su ley de conservación en 2017. También se señala que Mozambique sigue colaborando estrechamente con las autoridades de aplicación de la ley en el Parque Nacional Kruger del país vecino, Sudáfrica, y ha empezado el reasentamiento de aquellas poblaciones del Parque Nacional Limpopo, Mozambique, que han sido identificadas como lugares de procedencia de los cazadores furtivos, en otras zonas fuera de los límites del parque.
54. No obstante, tal y como se puede ver en el cuadro 5 del informe que figura en el Anexo 2, el comercio ilegal de cuernos de rinoceronte persiste en Mozambique, el segundo más importante de los países de origen de los cuernos de rinoceronte introducidos en los mercados ilegales. Según el informe, el peso de los cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados es significativamente mayor que el peso que podría producir el número de rinocerontes actualmente presentes en Mozambique, lo que indica que este país sigue siendo un país de tránsito importante en el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte. En el informe también se señala que sigue habiendo muchos ciudadanos mozambiqueños que se dedican a la caza furtiva de rinocerontes en Sudáfrica y hay evidencia de la existencia de organizaciones delictivas transnacionales, dirigidas por ciudadanos vietnamitas, que trafican grandes cantidades de cuernos de rinoceronte procedentes de Sudáfrica desde Mozambique.
55. El informe señala que el número de envíos de cuernos de rinoceronte que fueron decomisados en Mozambique, antes de que salieran del país, aumentó de manera significativa en el período 2014–2018,

⁴ <http://wenshu.court.gov.cn/>

con respecto al período 2009–2013. Esto es un avance positivo y podría indicar una mejor aplicación de la ley en Mozambique. No obstante, por otra parte, hubo un aumento de las cantidades de cuerno de rinoceronte exportadas, comparado con el período 2009–2013; según informes, en el período 2014–2018, se estima una cantidad de al menos 149 cuernos, con un peso de 374 kg, correspondientes a 18 decomisos distintos en los que Mozambique figuraba como el país de procedencia.

56. La Secretaría señala que Mozambique actualmente está incluida en el proceso de los planes de acción nacionales para el marfil (PANM) de la CITES y está aplicando un plan de acción nacional para el marfil y el rinoceronte (PANMR).⁵ La Secretaría también señala que, en su 70ª reunión, el Comité Permanente acordó la recomendación p) sobre el proceso de los PANM, dirigida a Mozambique, tal y como se indica en el [documento SC70 Sum 2 \(Rev. 1\)](#). La Secretaría cree que esta recomendación, sobre la que informará Mozambique en la 73ª reunión del Comité Permanente, abarca plenamente las cuestiones indicadas en el resumen preparado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes que figura en el documento SC70 Doc. 56. Por consiguiente, la Secretaría cree que posiblemente las cuestiones relacionadas con Mozambique se resuelvan mediante las acciones que la Parte deberá realizar en la aplicación de su PANMR, los informes pertinentes al Comité Permanente, y las actividades que debe llevar a cabo el Comité Permanente al respecto.
57. En caso de que la Conferencia de las Partes adoptase el proyecto de decisión 18.BB, se alienta a Mozambique a esforzarse en su aplicación como parte de la aplicación de su PANMR.

Namibia

58. Se puede ver en el cuadro 2 del informe que figura en el Anexo 2 del presente que los niveles de la caza furtiva en Namibia han sido altos desde 2014 con respecto a los años anteriores, alcanzando el nivel máximo anual (97) de rinocerontes matados ilegalmente en Namibia en 2015. En los años siguientes, el número de rinocerontes cazados furtivamente en Namibia disminuyó a 61 en 2016 y 44 en 2017, pero en noviembre de 2018 había subido de nuevo a 53.
59. El informe señala que, igual que muchos otros Estados del área de distribución, Namibia tiene unas redes de informantes bien establecidas y dispone de un teléfono gratuito para que el público pueda informar sobre la caza furtiva y el comercio ilegal de vida silvestre. También se señala en el informe que se había proporcionado formación a investigadores de delitos contra la vida silvestre, fiscales y magistrados en Namibia a fin de reforzar sus conocimientos sobre los delitos contra la vida silvestre y sobre la legislación vigente. Asimismo, se señala que Namibia avanza hacia la aplicación de un amplio conjunto de leyes pertinentes para perseguir a los delincuentes.
60. El informe también señala que la Ley enmendada sobre productos y comercio de vida silvestre controlados, de 2017, establece multas de hasta 25 millones de dólares de Namibia (unos 1,8 millones de dólares de los EE.UU.) o penas de cárcel de hasta 25 años, o ambas; los delincuentes reincidentes podrían ser multados con hasta 50 millones de dólares de Namibia o penas de cárcel de hasta 40 años, o ambos. La Ley Reformada de Conservación de la Naturaleza de 2017 también establece penas similares para los delitos relacionados con la caza furtiva de rinocerontes.
61. El informe señala las discrepancias entre los datos relativos a las exportaciones de trofeos de caza de cuerno de rinoceronte declarados por Namibia en el caso de determinadas Partes, particularmente la Federación de Rusia y los Estados Unidos de América. Estas discrepancias están indicadas en el Anexo 1 del informe que figura en el Anexo 2 del presente documento. Tal vez Namibia desee determinar si existe alguna tendencia que justifique un examen más detallado o la aplicación de medidas adicionales. En este sentido, parece pertinente el proyecto de decisión 18.AA presentado en el Anexo 1 del presente documento.
62. Habida cuenta de los altos niveles de la caza furtiva en Namibia desde 2014, comparado con años anteriores, y del aumento reciente de la caza furtiva de rinocerontes observado en Namibia, la Secretaría sugiere que sería conveniente incluir a Namibia como Parte que podría beneficiarse de la realización de las actividades previstas en el proyecto de decisión 18.BB.

Sudáfrica

63. La cifra anual de rinocerontes cazados furtivamente en Sudáfrica sigue disminuyendo, desde el nivel máximo de 1215 ejemplares cazados furtivamente en 2014. En 2015, el número se redujo a 1175, en 2016

⁵ <https://www.cites.org/eng/niaps>

a 1054, en 2017 a 1054, y hasta agosto de 2018, a 508 ejemplares. Estas disminuciones son alentadoras e indican que se están logrando progresos constantes.

64. No obstante, al ser el Estado del área de distribución con el mayor número de rinocerontes negros y blancos, Sudáfrica también sigue siendo la Parte más afectada por la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y del comercio ilegal conexo de cuerno de rinoceronte. En el cuadro 5 del Anexo 2 del presente se puede ver que la mayor parte de los decomisos están relacionados con Sudáfrica. En el 33 % del total de los decomisos realizados desde 2014, o bien el decomiso fue efectuado por Sudáfrica o bien Sudáfrica estaba implicado, representando el 40 % del peso total de los cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados durante ese período. El informe indica que el número de decomisos efectuados en Sudáfrica y, asimismo, el peso estimado de los cuernos decomisados, habían disminuido en el período 2014–2018 con respecto al período 2009–2013. Por otra parte, había aumentado significativamente el número de decomisos efectuados por otras Partes que implicaban a Sudáfrica en la cadena del comercio ilegal. No obstante, se señala en el informe que posiblemente esto se deba, en parte, a la mayor disponibilidad de datos, obtenidos de análisis forenses e información proporcionada por traficantes detenidos, que identifiquen a Sudáfrica como país de procedencia de los cuernos de rinoceronte confiscados. El informe también afirma que la evolución del contrabando hacia el cuerno de rinoceronte transformado, tal y como se describe en el párrafo 28 anterior, está dificultando su detección, por lo que, parece pertinente el proyecto de decisión 18.AA que figura en el Anexo 1 del presente documento.

Manejo estratégico integrado para la gestión del rinoceronte

65. En el informe se señala que Sudáfrica aplica un *Método de manejo estratégico integrado para la gestión del rinoceronte* para combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes, así como una *Estrategia nacional para la protección y seguridad de las poblaciones de rinoceronte y las existencias de cuerno de rinoceronte*. También se indica que los organismos gubernamentales sudafricanos responsables de la aplicación de la ley habían identificado la necesidad de aplicar un enfoque integrado a todos los niveles de gobierno, con el apoyo de la sociedad civil, para combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y que, en el marco de una iniciativa dirigida por el Servicio de Policía de Sudáfrica, la Parte había finalizado su *Estrategia nacional integrada para combatir el tráfico de vida silvestre*. Tal vez Sudáfrica desee informar en la presente reunión sobre la situación actual con respecto a la aprobación y adopción de su *Estrategia nacional integrada para combatir el tráfico de vida silvestre*.
66. El informe señala que un gran número de rinocerontes en Sudáfrica son de propiedad privada. Se describe detalladamente la bajada significativa de los precios pagados por un ejemplar vivo de rinoceronte blanco en el período 2007–2018, que supone una bajada del 58 % del valor expresado en rand sudafricanos y del 67 % del valor expresado en dólares de los EE.UU. También se señala en el informe que cada vez hay menos incentivos para la conservación de los rinocerontes, habida cuenta de la escasa rentabilidad económica que generan los rinocerontes actualmente, añadida a otra serie de factores, entre ellos, el incremento significativo del costo de la seguridad necesaria para prevenir la caza furtiva. Teniendo en cuenta la función importante desempeñada por los propietarios privados en la conservación de los rinocerontes, este dato resulta preocupante.
67. En lo concerniente a la caza de trofeos, el informe señala que la caza sigue teniendo un papel importante para la conservación de los rinocerontes blancos, por los ingresos que genera. El informe también señala que la mayoría de los retos encontrados relativos a la pseudocaza en Sudáfrica han sido resueltos por las medidas de control aplicadas por la Parte en 2012 y que, al parecer, ya no supone una amenaza significativa. No obstante, el informe destaca que sigue habiendo grandes discrepancias acumulativas en los datos declarados por Sudáfrica relativos a las exportaciones de trofeos de cuerno de rinoceronte a determinadas Partes, particularmente la Federación de Rusia y los Estados Unidos de América. Además, se señala que se siguen observando discrepancias similares con respecto al Canadá, China, Dinamarca, España y Hungría. Esto se puede comprobar en el Anexo 1 del informe que figura en el Anexo 2 del presente documento y posiblemente convenga que esta cuestión sea examinada más detenidamente. El proyecto de decisión 18.AA que figura en el Anexo 1 del presente documento parece pertinente en este sentido.
68. Asimismo, se desprende del Anexo 1 del informe que figura en el Anexo 2 del presente que hay cazadores, por ejemplo, de Kuwait, que han estado en Sudáfrica practicando la caza deportiva pero la Parte no ha declarado la exportación de los trofeos correspondientes.
69. La Secretaría considera imprescindible que Sudáfrica, como Parte más afectada por la caza furtiva del rinoceronte y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte, lleve a cabo las actividades previstas en el proyecto de decisión 18.BB.

Viet Nam

70. El cuadro 5 del informe que figura en el Anexo 2 del presente documento muestra que Viet Nam sigue siendo una de las Partes más afectadas por el comercio ilegal de cuernos de rinoceronte. En el informe se señala que, según los datos disponibles sobre decomisos, Viet Nam sigue siendo uno de los destinos principales de los envíos ilegales de cuerno de rinoceronte, representando el 15 % de los casos de decomiso de cuernos de rinoceronte y más de la cuarta parte de los cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados, por peso o por número estimados en el período 2014–2018.
71. El informe señala que el número de decomisos llevados a cabo en Viet Nam aumentó en un 35 %; por otra parte, el número de decomisos relacionados con Viet Nam llevados a cabo por otras Partes disminuyó considerablemente en el período 2014–2018, con respecto al período 2009–2013. Estos datos son alentadores y podrían indicar una mejora de la aplicación de la ley en Viet Nam. No obstante, en el informe también se señala que, en términos generales, el número estimado de cuernos de rinoceronte ilegales aumentó en un 24 % en ese último período.
72. El informe señala que en los últimos años ha aumentado significativamente el número de ciudadanos vietnamitas detenidos por delitos relacionados con cuernos de rinoceronte ilegales.
73. En el informe se señala el Código Penal revisado que entró en vigor en Viet Nam el 1 de enero de 2018. La Secretaría señala que, tal y como se indica en el párrafo 8 del presente documento, el Comité Permanente, en su 69ª reunión, pidió a Viet Nam que presentara informes adicionales en la 71ª reunión del Comité Permanente sobre la aplicación del Código Penal y otras cuestiones pertinentes. En su 71ª reunión, el Comité Permanente examinará si la aplicación del Código Penal en Viet Nam, y otras actividades y medidas llevadas a cabo, son suficientes para combatir el comercio ilegal de vida silvestre, especialmente el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte que afecta a la Parte, o si son necesarias medidas adicionales.
74. La Secretaría señala que Viet Nam es una de las Partes que están incluidas en el proceso de los PNAM. En la 69ª reunión del Comité Permanente, el Comité pidió a Viet Nam que revisara y actualizara su PNAM y desarrollara un Plan de Acción Nacional combinado para el Marfil y el Rinoceronte (PANMR). La versión final revisada y actualizada del PANMR elaborado por Viet Nam fue recibida y evaluada como 'adecuada' por la Secretaría en julio de 2018. La Secretaría señala que el PNAMR revisado y actualizado incluye un elemento importante sobre la forma de combatir la demanda nacional de cuerno de rinoceronte y marfil ilegales y que este elemento del PNAMR aborda plenamente las cuestiones definidas en el resumen preparado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes, tal y como se puede ver en el documento SC70 Doc. 56, en lo concerniente a Viet Nam. Viet Nam informará a la 73ª reunión del Comité Permanente sobre los progresos realizados en la aplicación de su PNAMR.
75. La Secretaría sugiere que las cuestiones relacionadas con Viet Nam posiblemente se resuelvan a través de las actividades que llevará a cabo el Comité Permanente en su 71ª reunión, así como las actividades que deberá llevar a cabo la Parte en la aplicación de su PNAMR, los informes pertinentes al Comité Permanente y las actividades a realizar por el Comité al respecto.
76. En caso de que la Conferencia de las Partes adoptase el proyecto de decisión 18.BB, se alienta a Viet Nam a que se esfuerce en la aplicación de este proyecto de decisión como parte de la aplicación de su PNAMR.

Zimbabwe

77. Se puede ver en el cuadro 2 del informe que figura en el Anexo 2 del presente documento que en Zimbabwe, igual que en la mayoría de los países africanos que son Partes en la Convención, los niveles anuales de caza furtiva de rinocerontes disminuyeron, de 50 ejemplares cazados furtivamente en 2015, 35 en 2016, 36 en 2017, y 15 hasta septiembre de 2018.
78. El resumen del grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes, presentado en el documento SC70 Doc. 56, incluye recomendaciones dirigidas a Zimbabwe. Tal y como se ha indicado en el párrafo 36 anterior, en su 70ª reunión, el Comité Permanente alentó a las Partes pertinentes a enviar a la Secretaría cualquier información adicional sobre las cuestiones indicadas en el resumen, a fin de que tal información fuera incluida en el informe de la Secretaría para la presente reunión. Como también se ha señalado anteriormente, la Secretaría recibió un informe en este sentido de Zimbabwe que figura en el Anexo 4 del presente documento.

79. La Secretaría señala algunas discrepancias entre el informe recibido de Zimbabwe y el informe incluido en el Anexo del presente documento; tal vez la Parte desee aclarar algunas de estas discrepancias en la presente reunión, por ejemplo, el número de rinocerontes cazados furtivamente.
80. El informe incluido en el Anexo 4 aporta información sobre diversas cuestiones, incluyendo casos judiciales relacionados con la caza furtiva de especímenes de rinoceronte, las limitaciones de los recursos, y la pérdida y la fragmentación del hábitat, entre otras. El informe responde a algunas de las cuestiones planteadas en el resumen preparado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes. El informe que figura en el Anexo 2 del presente documento también responde a algunas de estas cuestiones, por ejemplo, informando de que la Ley General Reformada sobre Parques y Vida Silvestre de 2011 establece penas de hasta nueve años de prisión y, en el caso de delincuentes reincidentes, de 11 a 20 años.
81. La Secretaría señala que en Anexo 1 del informe recibido de Zimbabwe se indica que se han dictado algunas penas significativas por delitos relacionados con rinocerontes en el país. Sin embargo, parece que solo ocho de los 40 casos incluidos en el informe correspondiente al período 2014–2018 llegaron a los tribunales y en este sentido, parece que aún queda un margen significativo para mejorar. Esta cuestión también se aborda en el documento SC70 Doc. 56 preparado por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes. Se alienta a Zimbabwe a que examine más detenidamente las sugerencias hechas por el grupo de trabajo sobre rinocerontes y aplique medidas que faciliten el procesamiento y conclusión de estos casos en los tribunales, así como la tramitación rápida de estos casos en el futuro. En este contexto, la Secretaría propone el proyecto de decisión 18.CC.

Formulario para acopiar y compartir datos sobre los decomisos de cuerno de rinoceronte y sobre las muestras para los análisis forenses

82. En el párrafo 1 e) de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), la Conferencia de las Partes insta a las Partes a que compartan con los países de origen, tránsito y destino, según proceda, los datos sobre decomisos de especímenes ilegales de rinoceronte efectuados en sus territorios que puedan servir para iniciar investigaciones en esos países, a fin de que procurar que se aborde toda la cadena del comercio ilegal. El informe preparado por los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC para la presente reunión vuelve a subrayar la importancia de esto para que se pueda responder de manera eficaz ante los grupos transnacionales de delincuencia organizada implicados. Tal y como se señala en el informe, aún queda bastante margen para mejorar al respecto. Por consiguiente, se alienta a las Partes, cuando proceda, y sin perjuicio de las investigaciones en curso y sin revelar investigaciones encubiertas, a que intensifiquen sus esfuerzos para aplicar el párrafo 1 e) de la Resolución y con este fin, compartan información sobre los decomisos de cuerno de rinoceronte con los países de origen, tránsito y destino, de conformidad con las disposiciones de su legislación nacional pertinente, a fin de apoyar las investigaciones conjuntas o investigaciones en curso en los países afectados.
83. En el informe elaborado por los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC, se señala el valor del Sistema de índice de ADN de rinoceronte RhODIS®⁶, en el que se almacenan perfiles de ADN de rinoceronte de muchos países africanos en una única base de datos continental. A través del sistema RhODIS, se pueden comparar muestras de ADN tomadas de los cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados y en el lugar del delito con los perfiles de ADN de miles de rinocerontes y cuernos de rinoceronte. El informe señala que, en más de 250 casos hasta la fecha, se han encontrado coincidencias de perfiles de ADN en RhODIS que sirvieron para que varios procesos judiciales acabaran en condenas en Eswatini, Kenya, Namibia y Sudáfrica. El informe incluye ejemplos de 10 casos. La Secretaría informó sobre el sistema RhODIS en el documento CoP16 Doc. 54.2 (Rev. 1), y señala que lo que diferencia a RhODIS de otras bases de datos existentes es su base de datos excepcionalmente extensa de perfiles de ADN de rinoceronte que facilita la comparación de muestras. Esto aumenta bastante las posibilidades de obtener un resultado positivo, siempre que se procure recoger muestras de los decomisos de cuerno de rinoceronte y en el lugar del delito conexo.
84. Sigue siendo fundamental que las Partes aprovechen al máximo todos los instrumentos a su disposición, incluyendo las aplicaciones forenses, para combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte. Ha quedado patente el valor de las aplicaciones forenses en las investigaciones de estos delitos.⁷ En el informe de los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC se señala que en muchos casos de decomiso de cuernos de rinoceronte, debido a la falta de análisis forenses, se desconoce el origen de esos cuernos. Además de servir de apoyo para las

⁶ <http://rhodis.co.za/>

⁷ <https://www.the-scientist.com/the-scientist/rhino-forensics-used-to-track-down-poachers-and-traffickers-30439>

investigaciones, se puede obtener mucha información adicional sobre las cadenas del comercio ilegal mediante un mayor uso de las aplicaciones forenses.

85. En su 70ª reunión, el Comité Permanente acordó la recomendación que figura en el documento [SC70 Sum. 12 \(Rev. 1\)](#), en la que se instaba a las Partes a que siguiesen reforzando su aplicación del párrafo 1 e), f) y g) de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), y a que utilizasen de manera activa el *Formulario para acopiar y compartir datos sobre los decomisos de cuerno de rinoceronte y sobre las muestras para los análisis forenses*,⁸ incluido en el Anexo de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17). Asimismo, el Comité instó a las Partes a que informaran a la Secretaría de cualquier problema que tuviesen para intercambiar información y muestras, o con la utilización del formulario, a fin de que se examinaran los posibles cambios al formulario en aras de mejorar la recopilación e intercambio de información y muestras. El informe recibido de China, que está incluido en el Anexo 3 del presente documento, proporciona información al respecto. La Secretaría señala que, en la fecha de redacción del presente documento, no había recibido ninguna información adicional y sigue interesada en recibir información de las Partes.
86. Se alienta a las Partes, si no lo hayan hecho ya, a que señalen a la atención de sus autoridades nacionales las disposiciones pertinentes de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) y el *Formulario para acopiar y compartir datos sobre los decomisos de cuerno de rinoceronte y sobre las muestras para los análisis forenses*, y fomenten su uso.

Observaciones finales

87. Según los datos disponibles, desde la 14ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes en 2007, el número total de rinocerontes ha aumentado en más del 28 % y, en este sentido, hay que felicitar a las Partes por sus iniciativas de conservación. Además, los niveles de la caza furtiva de rinocerontes han estado disminuyendo desde 2015 y está previsto que en 2018 los niveles de la caza furtiva vuelvan a niveles no vistos desde 2013. Esto indica que los esfuerzos significativos y constantes de las Partes para combatir la caza furtiva y el comercio ilegal ya están dando resultados positivos mensurables. Asimismo, según los datos disponibles, el peso de los cuernos de rinoceronte decomisados por rinoceronte cazado furtivamente ha aumentado anualmente desde 2014, lo que indica una intensificación del trabajo y mayor eficacia en la aplicación de la ley.
88. Sin embargo, teniendo en cuenta los 4757 cuernos de rinocerontes africanos destinados a mercados ilegales en el período 2016-2017, es evidente que persiste la escala del problema. La caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte siguen socavando las iniciativas de conservación y representan una amenaza grave para las poblaciones de rinocerontes. Los esfuerzos están dando resultados, pero es imprescindible que esos esfuerzos se mantengan y que las Partes permanezcan vigilantes en la aplicación de medidas y actividades para combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuernos de rinoceronte.

Recomendaciones

89. Se invita a la Conferencia de las Partes a:
- a) adoptar los proyectos de decisión que figuran en el Anexo 1 del presente documento;
 - b) suprimir las Decisiones 17.133 y 17.134, habida cuenta de que pueden ser reemplazadas por el proyecto de decisión 18.AA que figura en el Anexo 1 del presente documento; y
 - c) suprimir las Decisiones 17.135 a 17.144, ya que han sido aplicadas.

⁸ Este formulario se puede utilizar como modelo normalizado para recopilar y compartir datos sobre los decomisos de especímenes de rinoceronte y para la recopilación de los datos pertinentes para acompañar las muestras tomadas de los especímenes de rinoceronte decomisados para los análisis forenses, a fin de apoyar la aplicación de los párrafos 1 e) i) y ii), f) y g) de la Resolución.

Proyectos de decisión sobre *Rinocerontes (Rhinocerotidae spp.)*

Dirigida a las Partes

- 18.AA Las Partes deben analizar continuamente las tendencias asociadas a la matanza ilegal de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de especímenes de rinoceronte, así como las medidas y actividades que están aplicando para combatir estos delitos, a fin de procurar que estas medidas y actividades sigan siendo eficaces y se adapten rápidamente para responder a cualquier tendencia nueva detectada.

Dirigida a China, Mozambique, Namibia, Sudáfrica y Viet Nam

- 18.BB Se alienta a China, Mozambique, Namibia, Sudáfrica y Viet Nam a que se esfuercen en todo lo posible para reforzar todavía más su aplicación de los párrafos 1 e) y 2 d) de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) sobre *Conservación y comercio de rinocerontes de África y de Asia*, incluyendo mediante el inicio de investigaciones y operaciones conjuntas dirigidas a los miembros de las redes de delincuencia organizada en toda la cadena del comercio ilegal, e informen a la Secretaría sobre las actividades que se lleven a cabo al respecto.

Dirigida a Zimbabwe

- 18.CC Se alienta a Zimbabwe a procurar que se concluyan rápidamente los casos judiciales pendientes relacionados con la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el comercio ilegal de cuerno de rinoceronte, a plantear las medidas que se podrían aplicar para facilitar el enjuiciamiento de casos similares en el futuro, y a informar a la Secretaría sobre las actividades que lleve a cabo con este fin.

Dirigida al Comité Permanente

- 18.BBDD El Comité Permanente examinará las recomendaciones formuladas por la Secretaría conforme a la Decisión 18.AAFF y preparará propuestas para que sean sometidas a la consideración de la 19ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes.

Dirigida a la Secretaría

- 18.EE La Secretaría examinará los informes recibidos conforme a las Decisiones 18.BB y 18.CC, y señalará a la atención del Comité Permanente toda cuestión de preocupación que pueda surgir.
- 18.AAFF La Secretaría, en consulta con las Partes interesadas, los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC, estudiará opciones para que el informe que el Grupo prepare para la Conferencia de las Partes, de conformidad con el párrafo 7 de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), refleje los retos de la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el tráfico de cuernos de rinoceronte, así como las buenas prácticas que contribuyen a afrontar esos retos, y preparará recomendaciones para la consideración del Comité Permanente.



African and Asian Rhinoceroses – Status, Conservation and Trade

A report from the IUCN Species Survival Commission (IUCN SSC) African and Asian Rhino Specialist Groups and TRAFFIC to the CITES Secretariat pursuant to Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17)

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1. Introduction

The present report was commissioned by the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) Secretariat, and prepared by the IUCN SSC's African Rhino Specialist Group (AfRSG), Asian Rhino Specialist Group (AsRSG) and TRAFFIC, in accordance with the provisions of paragraphs 7 and 8 of CITES Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) on *Conservation of and trade in African and Asian rhinoceroses*, for the 18th meeting of the Conference of the Parties to CITES (CoP18, Colombo, 2019).

In accordance with the Resolution, the report addresses the conservation status of African and Asian rhinoceros species, trade in specimens, stocks and stock management, illegal killing¹, enforcement issues, conservation actions and management strategies, and measures by implicated States to end illegal use and consumption of rhino parts and derivatives, and primarily deals with developments since the 17th meeting of the Conference of the Parties to CITES (CoP17, Johannesburg, 2016). At the recommendation of the CITES Standing Committee Working Group on Rhinoceroses (SC-RWG), the Standing Committee at its 70th meeting (SC70, Sochi, 2018) agreed to submit a draft decision to CoP18 for consideration, directing the Secretariat to, in consultation with interested Parties and the IUCN SSC AfRSG and AsRSG and TRAFFIC, explore options to reflect on challenges and best practices for addressing rhinoceros poaching and rhinoceros horn trafficking in the report prepared for CoP meetings in accordance with the provisions of paragraphs 7 and 8 in Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17). This report therefore also highlights some identified challenges and best practices.

2. African rhinoceroses

2.1 National and continental conservation status and trends

White rhinoceros (*Ceratotherium simum*) are categorised as Near Threatened on the IUCN Red List (Emslie, 2012a), while black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*) are categorised as Critically Endangered (Emslie, 2012b). Estimated numbers of African rhino by subspecies and country as of the end of 2017 are given in Table 1, together with revised 2012 and 2015 totals for comparison. 90% confidence levels around 2017 estimates (derived by bootstrapping using calculated or likely estimate precision) are estimated at 17,212 to 18,915 white rhino and 5,366 to 5,627 black rhino.

The vast majority of African rhino (97% of white and 94% of black rhino) occur in four range States: South Africa, Namibia, Kenya and Zimbabwe (in order of rhino numbers; Table 1). Botswana's rhino numbers now exceed 500 following the reintroduction of 215 white rhino since 2015 and population growth, and the country currently has the fourth largest white rhino population on the continent. Since CoP17, black rhino have been reintroduced to both Chad (2018) and Rwanda (2017). While the Rwandan population is starting to grow, some of the Chad founder animals have died and experts are

¹ Throughout the report the term "poaching" is also used to refer to illegal killing.

currently trying to determine the possible causes. In 2018 a population of southern white rhino (*C. s. simum*) was established in Democratic Republic of Congo with animals from Namibia and Zimbabwe². A total of four white rhino have also been confirmed in reserves in Côte d'Ivoire and Senegal, outside the species' native range.

Table 1: Estimated numbers of white and black rhino by species and subspecies/genetic management cluster and by country as of the end of 2017, with continental totals for end of 2012 and 2015*. (Based on AfRSG data in collaboration with range States. Country trends are over the five-year period 2012-2017.)

Species Subspecies/ Management Cluster	White rhino (WR) <i>Ceratotherium simum</i>				Black rhino (BR) <i>Diceros bicornis</i>					Total
	<i>C.s.cottoni</i> (Northern)	<i>C.s.simum</i> (Southern)	TotalWR	Trend	<i>D.b.bicornis</i> (South-western)	<i>D.b.michaeli</i> (Eastern)	<i>D.b.minor</i> (South-eastern)	TotalBR	Trend	
Botswana		452	452	Up			50	50	Up	502
<i>(Côte d'Ivoire) **</i>		1	1							1
Kenya	3	510	513	Up		745		745	Up	1,258
Malawi							28	28	Up	28
Mozambique		29	29				1	1		30
Namibia		975	975	Up	1,857			1,857	Up	2,832
Rwanda						19		19	Up (New)	19
<i>(Senegal) **</i>		3	3							3
South Africa		15,625	15,625	Down	331	83	1,632	2,046	Up	17,671
eSwatini		66	66	Down			21	21	Up	87
Tanzania						155	5	160	Up	160
Uganda		22	22	Up						22
Zambia		14	14	Up			48	48	Up	62
Zimbabwe		367	367	Up			520	520	Up	887
End 2017 total	3	18,064	18,067	Down	2,188	1,002	2,305	5,495	Up	23,562
End 2015 total*	3	20,053	20,056	Down	2,212	887	2,115	5,214	Up	25,270
End 2012 total*	4	21,316	21,320	20,165 in 2010	1,968	799	2,078	4,845	4,880 in 2010	26,165

* In light of information obtained since CoP17, 2015 totals have been revised slightly down (white rhino -1.6%, black rhino -0.7%), while 2012 totals have been revised slightly up (white rhino +3.5%, black rhino +0.5%). 2010 estimates remain as reported in CoP16 (Doc 16.54.2A2). **Countries out of native range.

South Africa³ has reported the export of 538 live rhino since 2014 (the majority of which were white rhino), with 67% (361) exported to current and former range States (South African Department of Environmental Affairs, 2018). The remaining 177 rhino were exported outside Africa to institutions that are either members of the World Association of Zoos and Aquariums (WAZA) or accredited members of regional zoo associations recognised as reputable institutions by the importing country's CITES Management Authority.

While white rhino numbers increased rapidly from 1992-2010, averaging +7.1%/year, population growth then slowed as poaching increased, with numbers declining from 2012 onwards (Figure 1, left). After black rhino numbers reached their lowest point in 1995, they have since steadily increased, with increased poaching slightly slowing population growth in recent years (Figure 1, right). The different trends shown by the two species are in part due to white rhino being subjected to higher poaching levels than black rhino. This is likely to be due to the fact that white rhino generally live in more open habitats where they are easier to target, live in larger groups and have greater average horn weights. The difference in trend in numbers between white and black rhino in recent years may also be due to the differential responses of the two species to the severe drought that affected parts of southern Africa in 2015-2016 (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018a; Mick Reilly – eSwatini Big Game Parks, personal communication), since the food supply of white rhinos (grass) is affected more by drought than that of black rhinos (browse). The impact of the drought on rhino numbers is discussed further below.

² While stakeholders in the Zimbabwe donor population were not consulted prior to this move, and the translocation didn't form part of the country's agreed annual management plan, the recipient site was visited and approved by Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority staff (Roseline Mandisodza-Chikerem - ZPWMA Chief Ecologist, personal communication).

³ South Africa was the only range State to report significant exports of live rhino from 2014 onwards, according to data recorded in the CITES Trade Database.

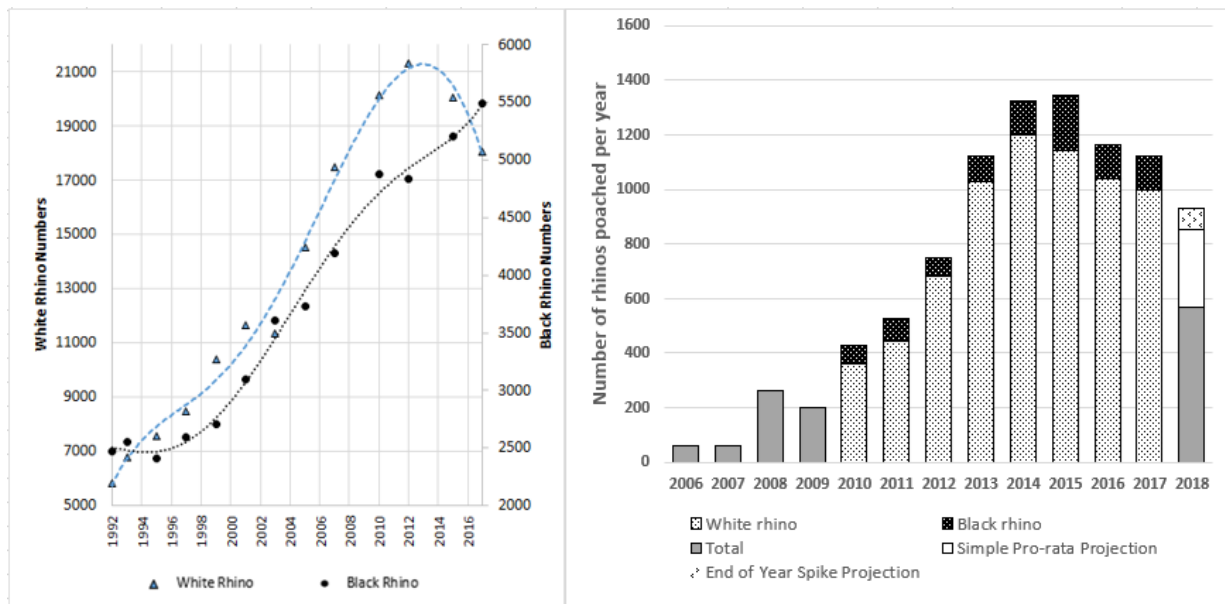


Figure 1: Estimated numbers of white and black rhino 1992-2017 based on AfRSG data in collaboration with range States (left) and reported numbers of rhino poached 2006-2018* (right). (Based primarily on AfRSG data, as well as TRAFFIC and CITES Standing Committee Rhinoceros Working Group [SC-RWG] data, in collaboration with range States. *The 2018 estimate includes reported poaching data available at the time of writing [see Table 2; darker shading] as well as a simple pro-rata projection for the rest of the year assuming poaching continues in each country at the same rates [no shading], and an additional estimate for an end-of-year spike in poaching which historically has often occurred [chevron shading], estimated using a correction factor derived from five years of available data for South Africa⁴. Actual 2018 poaching totals may differ from those projected here, and an update with actual 2018 totals will be provided to Parties at CoP18 by the AfRSG.

The decline in estimated continental white rhino numbers from 2012-2017 can largely be accounted for by a drop in estimated numbers in the largest population, in South Africa's Kruger National Park (KNP), which has been severely affected by poaching since 2007 (Figure 2). After allowing for the translocation of just over 300 white rhino out of KNP from 2015-2017, there was a net drop in estimated white rhino numbers of ~3,400 rhino in the park. This decline occurred despite a 40% recorded reduction in the number of white rhino poached in KNP over the same period (853 rhino were poached in KNP in 2015, 632 in 2016 and 513 in 2017; Ferreira *et al.*, 2018a; Figure 2). Given the declining population size, the decrease in the proportion of the KNP population poached annually has been much less marked (a ~14% decrease from 2015-2017). From 2014-2017, reported minimum poaching levels in KNP have remained high with a geometric mean of 8.1% per year. The 4,210 white rhino "removed" from the KNP population by reported poaching and management over this period account for only around four-fifths of the estimated decline in numbers over this period. While drought will have impacted numbers (as discussed below), some of the discrepancy can be explained if some poached carcasses were undetected, which is likely given KNP's large size and resultant low field ranger densities⁵. Analysis of field carcass detection data indicates that around 20% of carcasses may go undetected in KNP (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018b)⁶. If this is the case, actual white rhino poaching levels in KNP from 2014-2017 may have averaged in the region of 10%-12% of the population per annum⁷. This poaching level is above the longer-term estimated maximum population growth rate for white rhino of around 9%, and thus poaching is likely to have accounted for some of the recorded decline in KNP white rhino numbers.

⁴ The 2018 total may well exceed the simple pro-rata projection estimate of 863 rhino, as in previous years there has often been a spike in poaching in the last quarter of the year. A comparison of simple projected year-end totals based on mid- to end-August data with actual year-end totals over five years of available data for South Africa indicated that actual year-end numbers poached were 8.56% higher than projected using a simple pro-rata model. Applying this correction factor would estimate an additional 74 rhino poached in 2018, giving a revised projection of 937 rhino. The AfRSG will be compiling updated population estimates and poaching records for 2018 at its February 2019 meeting, and will prepare a short update to be made available to CoP18 as an Information Document.

⁵ Some of the difference could also be a result of sampling variability in block count estimation.

⁶ Average persistence of carcasses in KNP was found to be 89.8% (0.769-1.000) and the probability of a carcass being observed given persistence was 89.7% (0.883- 911), with an estimated under-detection of total rhino poaching of 19.8% (white rhino 19.4%, black rhino 27.6%). This translates to an estimated 5,271 (4,750-6,165) white and 246 (224-287) black rhino poaching mortalities in KNP since 2016 (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018b). Given that carcasses of young calves are less likely to persist and be detectable, these estimates may under-estimate actual losses due to poaching.

⁷ Including an estimate for additional carcasses of young calves less likely to have been detected.

Figure 2 shows trends in estimated numbers of white rhino in KNP (with confidence levels) and modelled trends in numbers under two scenarios – if there had been no poaching, and no poaching and no management removals⁸. In contrast to the decline in actual estimated numbers, white rhino numbers would have stabilised from 2008-2015 under the two modelled scenarios, only declining over the last two years (2015-2017) when actual estimated numbers showed the most significant decline.

This marked recent decline coincides with the severe drought that affected southern Africa in 2015-2016, when KNP rainfall was 49% below the long-term average following a 26% below long-term average rainfall the year before, which negatively impacted both mortality and calving rates (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018a)⁹. The drought affected other parts of South Africa and eSwatini (previously Swaziland), and was the most severe drought to hit this region since the early 1980s. As early as January 2016, experienced South African conservationists were predicting that this drought might kill more rhinos than poaching (Groenewald, 2016). Other large grazers also suffered during the drought. Despite losing only one white rhino to poaching in the period 2012-2017, eSwatini's white rhino numbers declined by 21% over the same period. White rhino losses would have been higher had it not been for many private owners in South Africa and eSwatini supplementary feeding their rhino during the drought.

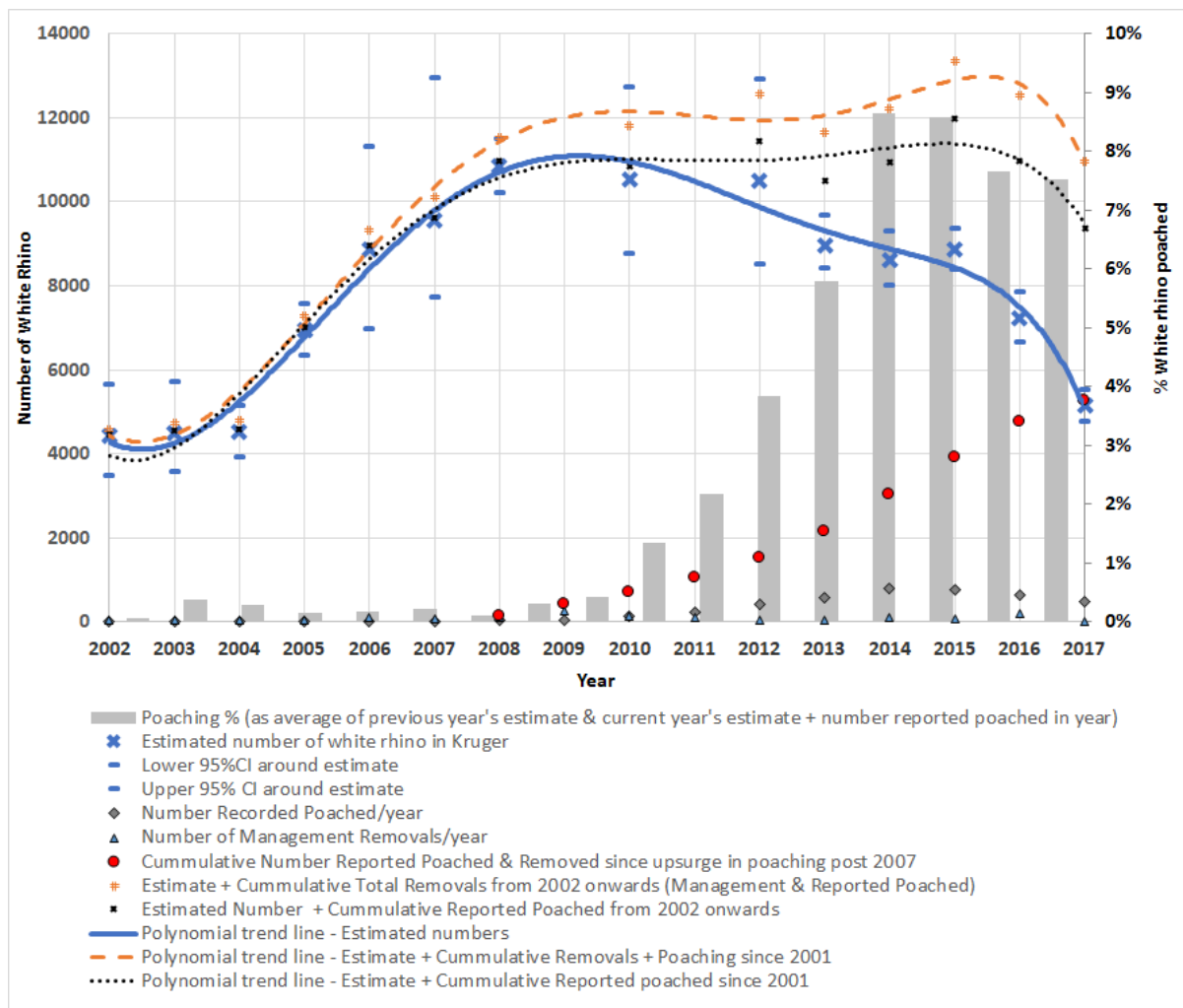


Figure 2: White rhino population history in Kruger National Park, 2002-2017. (Based on SANParks data provided to AfRSG, Southern African Development Community Rhino Management Group [SADC RMG] data and Ferreira *et al.*, 2018a). Removals from 2001-2003 were estimated as the average of removals in 2004 and 2005. For years where no species breakdowns were available (primarily early years), the numbers of white rhino poached were estimated based on the average proportion of white rhino poached over 10 years with available data [95.9%].)

⁸ The modelled numbers reflect a simple “adding back” of poached and management removals to estimated numbers; for simplicity no growth has been modelled for these added animals.

⁹ Ferreira *et al.*, (2018a) determined that the drought impacted on the KNP white rhino population in two main ways – by increasing natural mortalities in the two survey intervals 2015-16 and 2016-17 (by around 0.5% per year) and by reducing calving rates in 2016-17 (by around 4%), with the lag in the latter effect due to the white rhino’s 16-month gestation period. These two factors alone would account for a loss of almost 400 white rhino.

From 2012-2017 white rhino numbers declined by an estimated 51% in KNP and 26% in other State-run parks and game reserves in South Africa. In 2017 there were 10 fewer State-run white rhino populations in South Africa than there were in 2012 (a 21% decline); these populations were either lost due to poaching or their last remaining animals were translocated out to prevent them being poached. There were also three fewer State-run black rhino populations in South Africa in 2017 compared to five years previously.

Updated white rhino number estimates are available for the majority of the larger known private populations in South Africa as well as for many other smaller populations. However, precise estimates for many other populations under private ownership in South Africa are not available due to non-reporting by certain owners (with predominantly smaller¹⁰ populations) during a recent survey¹¹. Conservative estimates¹² have been made to account for likely additional populations for which data were not available, and as such the total may be an underestimate. Despite this, these data indicate that numbers of white rhino on private land in South Africa have continued to increase (Figure 3). While some generally smaller private owners have sold some or all of their rhino in recent years, others have bought more animals thus leading to a sector-wide consolidation of populations. In contrast to most State parks and game reserves, many private owners supplementary fed their white rhino during the recent drought, often at great cost, thereby reducing mortalities and improving birth rates.

The largest semi-wild population of over 1,600 white rhino has achieved an average net growth rate of 8.7%/year since 2008 (Adcock *et al.*, 2018) and poaching levels approximately a tenth of the national South African average. No rhino have been poached at this site since January 2017. This success has come at significant cost of around USD357,000/month, of which security accounts for around 60%. Given the limited economic returns rhino are currently able to generate (discussed further below), such high levels of expenditure on intensive management and protection are not sustainable without additional support.

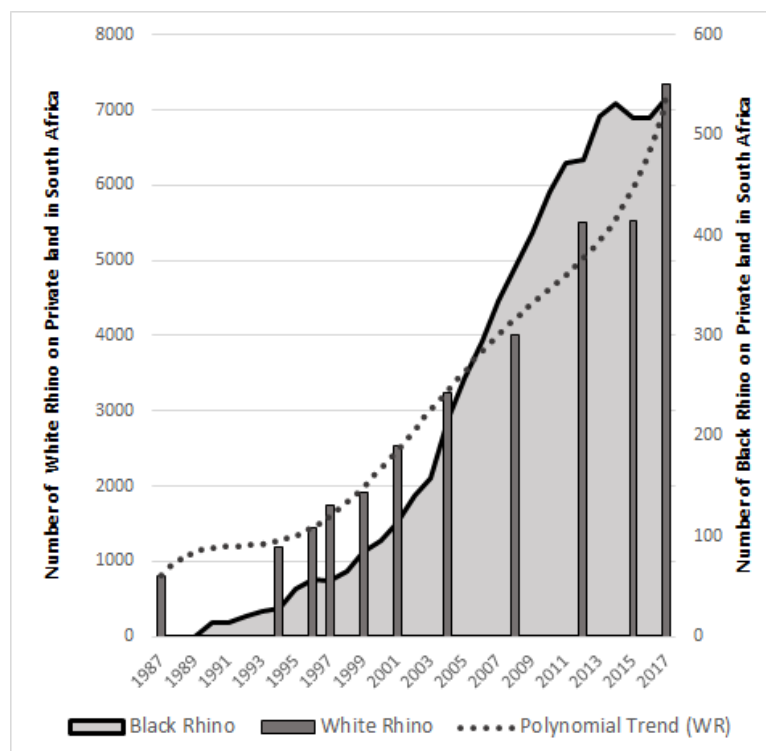


Figure 3: Estimated numbers of white and black rhino conserved on private land in South Africa, 1987-2017. (Black rhino estimates based on Southern African Development Community Rhino Management Group (SADC RMG) data, AfRSG data and 11 surveys of white rhino on private land by Buijs (1988), Emslie (1994a), Buijs & Papenfus (1996), Buijs (1998) Buijs (2000), Hall-Martin & Castley (2001), Castley & Hall-Martin (2004), Hall-Martin *et al.*, (2009), Balfour *et al.*, (2015), Balfour *et al.*, (2018) and Shaw *et al.*, (in prep).)

¹⁰ Non-reporting properties are likely to hold an average ~8 rhino.

¹¹ Due to the continuing difficulty of obtaining reliable estimates of white rhino numbers on some private and State properties in some South African provinces, the SADC Rhino Management Group has initiated a process with the South African Department of Environmental Affairs with the intention of developing a formally gazetted annual reporting requirement in the country. It is planned for this process to be in place by October 2019 in order to test it at the end of 2019.

¹² With wider confidence intervals applied to this estimate.

White rhino numbers outside South Africa increased by ~64% over the five-year period 2012-2017. Some of this growth was due to continued translocations of white rhino (mainly from South Africa). At a continental level there has also been a significant shift in the proportions of white rhino conserved under different management models over the last five years, with private owners/landowners for the first time now conserving almost as many white rhino as the State (Figure 4). The estimated proportion of white rhino conserved on private land in 2017 was 49.3% (bootstrapped 90% confidence levels of 46.9% to 51.6%). In contrast, the proportions of black rhino under different management models in Africa have remained very similar over the five years 2012-17.

By 2016-2017, the southern African drought ended in most areas. If normal rains continue, and the reduction in poaching can be maintained, a slight increase in white rhino numbers as a result of increased birth and survival rates can be expected. At the time of writing, however, the start of the summer rains in KNP has been delayed and the park is very dry (Kobus De Wet – KNP, personal communication).

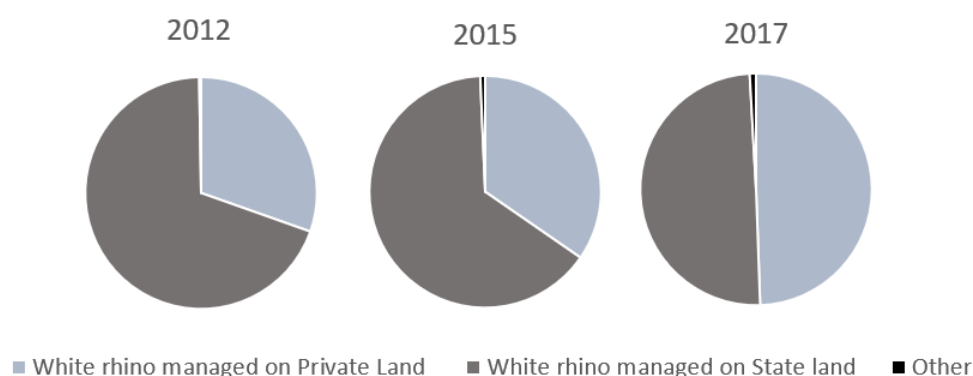


Figure 4: Proportions of continental white rhino numbers by management model for 2012, 2015 and 2017. (Based on AfRSG data. “Other” includes community land.)

2.2 Illegal killing

Table 2 gives numbers of rhino reported poached per year by country since 2006. It is important to note that these figures are likely to be under-estimates of actual poaching levels given potential under-detection of poaching, particularly in larger areas with lower field ranger densities.

Poaching of rhinos in Africa increased for six consecutive years from 2009-2015 to peak at almost 3.7 rhino/day in 2015, albeit at a slowing rate of increase from 2013-2015 (Table 2, Figure 2 and Emslie *et al.*, 2016). While recorded poaching levels have declined since 2015, poaching still remains at high levels with around 3.1 rhino/day poached in 2017 (Table 2). As noted above, reported poaching levels presented in Table 2 are likely to be slight underestimates of actual numbers, since ~20% of poached carcasses may be undetected in some very large areas with lower field ranger densities such as KNP (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018b).

The decline in poaching from 2015 appears to have continued into 2018, with reported poaching in the first eight to nine months of the year remaining low or falling in many range States (Figure 2, Table 2). Although recent slight increases in reported poaching in Botswana and Namibia in 2018 are cause for concern¹³, numbers poached across Africa in 2018 are likely to drop below 1,000 rhinos for the first time in six years (Table 2), unless there is an end-of-year spike in poaching that is larger than predicted.

¹³ The projected 2018 poaching levels for Botswana and Namibia presented in Table 2 (11 and 61 rhino, respectively) would represent 2.2% of the rhino population in each country.

Table 2: Reported African rhino poaching mortalities by country, 2006-2018*. (Based primarily on AfRSG data in collaboration with range States, and TRAFFIC and CITES Standing Committee Rhinoceros Working Group [SC-RWG] data). Some totals from previous years have been revised slightly compared to the previous [CoP17] report in light of additional information. Zimbabwe estimates for 2016 and 2017 include some animals missing and assumed poached; corresponding minimum recorded poaching figures for these two years were 28 and 27. Shaded cells in year columns indicate the country had no rhino in that year.)

Country	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018 to date	Date 2018 data up to	Total (not including 2018 projection)	Simple Projection for 2018	2017 Poaching as a % of population
Botswana	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	1	0	7	26-Aug	13	11	0.0%
Chad													0	25-Sep	0	0	
DR Congo	0	0	2	2									0	25-Sep	4	0	
Kenya	3	1	6	21	22	27	29	59	35	11	10	9	4	30-Sep	237	5	0.7%
Malawi	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	21-Nov	7	0	0.0%
Mozambique	0	9	5	15	16	10	16	15	19	13	5	4	1	31-Jul	128	2	11.8%
Namibia	0	0	0	2	2	1	1	4	30	97	61	44	53	21-Nov	295	61	1.5%
Rwanda												0	0	25-Sep	0	0	0.0%
South Africa	36	13	83	122	333	448	668	1004	1215	1175	1054	1028	508	31-Aug	7687	763	5.5%
eSwatini	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	25-Sep	3	0	0.0%
Tanzania	0	0	2	0	1	2	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	07-Nov	13	0	1.2%
Uganda	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25-Sep	0	0	0.0%
Zambia	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	25-Sep	2	1	0.0%
Zimbabwe	21	38	164	39	52	42	31	38	20	50	35	36	15	30-Sep	581	20	3.9%
Additional projection for usual end of year spike in poaching >																74	
Total	60	62	262	201	426	532	751	1123	1324	1349	1167	1124	589		8944	937	4.6%
Poached/day	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.6	1.2	1.5	2.1	3.1	3.6	3.7	3.2	3.1				2.6	

* The column "Simple projection for 2018" provides a projected total poaching estimate for 2018 assuming that poaching continues in each country at the same rates to the end of the year. An "additional projection for usual end of year spike in poaching" is also included as an end of year spike has historically often occurred. This additional projection was estimated using a correction factor derived from five years of available data for South Africa¹⁴. Actual 2018 poaching totals may differ from those projected here, and an update with actual 2018 totals will be provided to Parties at CoP18 by the AfRSG.

2.3 Trade

2.3.1 Horn sourced for illegal markets

A total of 4,757 African rhino horns are estimated to have entered illegal trade in the period 2016-2017, of which 1,093 horns were reportedly recovered by enforcement agencies within and outside Africa (Table 3). This represents approximately 2,378 rhino horns each year being sourced for illegal markets, weighing some ~6.6 tonnes, with an estimated 1,832 horns or ~5.1 tonnes per year entering illegal trade. It appears that the rapid increase in illegal acquisition of horn documented in the CoP14 to CoP17 reports has now ceased, with a modest decline in the number of horns annually sourced for illegal markets in 2016 and 2017 (Table 4). Poaching remains the major source of these horns. Of the total number of horns intended for illegal markets, the percentage of horns seized in Africa has almost doubled since CoP17, from 4.5% to 8.9%, while the percentage of horns seized outside of Africa has remained at a similar level (5.8% and 5.5%, respectively).

¹⁴ The 2018 total may well exceed the simple pro-rata projection estimate of 863 rhino, as in previous years there has often been a spike in poaching in the last quarter of the year. A comparison of simple projected year-end totals based on mid- to end-August data with actual year-end totals over five years of available data for South Africa indicated that actual year-end numbers poached were 8.56% higher than projected using a simple pro-rata model. Applying this correction factor to 863 would estimate an additional 74 rhino poached continentally in 2018, giving a revised continental projection of 937 rhino. The AfRSG will be compiling updated population estimates and poaching records for 2018 at its February 2019 meeting, and will prepare a short update to be made available to CoP18 as an Information Document.

Table 3: Estimated number of African rhino horns by source entering illegal trade, January 2016 – December 2017. (Based on TRAFFIC and AfRSG data.)

Description of source or recovery of horns	Number of horns	% of total*
Source of African rhino horns intended for illegal markets		
Horns on all recorded poached rhinos ¹⁵	4,531	95.2%
Horns stolen from natural mortalities (estimate) ¹⁶	85	1.8%
Thefts from government stockpiles ¹⁷	12	0.2%
Other thefts in Africa (private stocks, museums etc.) ¹⁸	40	0.9%
Horns illegally sold from private stocks (estimate) ¹⁹	57	1.2%
White rhino horns obtained from legal trophy hunts (estimate) ²⁰	32	0.7%
Source Total	4,757	100.0%
Recovery of illegally obtained African rhino horns by enforcement agencies		
Recoveries of illegally obtained horns <i>in situ</i> (estimate) ²¹	408	8.6%
Confiscations/seizures in Africa ²²	425	8.9%
Confiscations/seizures outside of Africa ²³	260	5.5%**
Recovery Total	1,093	23.0%
***Total African rhino horns entering illegal trade	3,664	77.0%

*Percentage of total horns intended for illegal markets.

**Percentage of horns seized outside of Africa, out of total horns intended for illegal markets that leave Africa, is 6.6%.

***Estimated number of horns intended for illegal markets minus estimated number seized.

Table 4: Estimated average number of African rhino horns sourced for illegal markets per year, 2000-2017. (Based on Milledge, 2007; Milliken *et al.*, 2009; Emslie *et al.*, 2012; Emslie *et al.*, 2016.)

Jan'00-Dec'05 (Pre-CoP 14)	Jan'06-Sept'09 (Pre-CoP15)	Jan'09-Sept'12 (Pre-CoP16)	Oct'12-Dec'15 (Pre-CoP17)	Jan'16-Dec'17 (Pre-CoP18)
106	408	1,140	2,674	2,378

2.3.2 Major illegal trade flows and countries most affected

Figure 5 and Table 5 present data from the TRAFFIC Rhino Horn Seizures Database from 2009 to September 2018, covering 737 rhino horn seizure cases and involving an estimated 2,733 horns or horn pieces weighing a total of 6,349 kg²⁴. Without a formal reporting mechanism for historic seizures, many of these data were obtained through opportunistic collection of open-source records. Many of the records originated from official government sources²⁵. Although these data only reflect what has been detected and reported, this dataset remains the most comprehensive set of rhino horn seizure data presently available and analysis yields valuable insights into trade routes and other dynamics. There is now a formal process for CITES Parties to submit annual illegal trade reports in accordance with Resolution Conf. 11.17 (Rev. CoP17); rhino seizure data included in these reports could inform future reporting pursuant to Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) if made available.

Based on these data, the total estimated weight and number of horns seized has increased steadily from 2009-2017 (Figure 5, Table 5). More seizures were made in Africa (relative to countries outside Africa) in every year except 2013 and 2014, with numbers in 2017 being almost evenly split. From 2010-2014 the weight of horns seized per rhino poached declined as poaching was steadily increasing, reaching close to peak levels in 2014. However, since 2014 there has been an annual increase in the weight of horn seized per rhino poached, which may be indicative of increased enforcement effectiveness/effort. This trend has coincided with first a slowing rate of increase in poaching and then a

¹⁵ Based on recorded number of poached rhinos in Table 2 multiplied by 1.98 horns per rhino.

¹⁶ Assuming a 3% theft rate and a 3% annual natural mortality rate.

¹⁷ Based on data obtained by TRAFFIC in collaboration with governments.

¹⁸ Based on data obtained by D. Balfour, increased by 10% to account for estimated unreported data.

¹⁹ Assuming a 3% annual natural mortality rate of privately-owned rhinos and an estimate of 14.5% entering illegal trade based on expert knowledge from law enforcement professionals and individuals monitoring the status of rhinos in South Africa.

²⁰ Based on assessment of trophy hunting data for South Africa and known and estimated patterns of pseudo-hunting.

²¹ Assuming 9% of poached rhino based on discussions with wildlife authorities.

²² Based on seizures data in the TRAFFIC Rhino Horn Seizures Database.

²³ Based on seizures data in the TRAFFIC Rhino Horn Seizures Database.

²⁴ 2,765 kg in the period 2009-2013; 3,584 kg in the period 2004-2018.

²⁵ Often pursuant to reporting to the CITES SC-RWG, through the National Ivory and Rhino Action Plan (NIRAP) process, or reporting to the Elephant Trade Information System (ETIS) where rhino horns are seized together with ivory; other official data comes through AfRSG country representatives in African range States, as well as South African government statistics on rhino crime). TRAFFIC has put significant effort into vetting these data and is willing to share data with Parties on request.

limited decline in poaching post-2015, with 2018 poaching estimates projected to return to levels last observed in 2013.

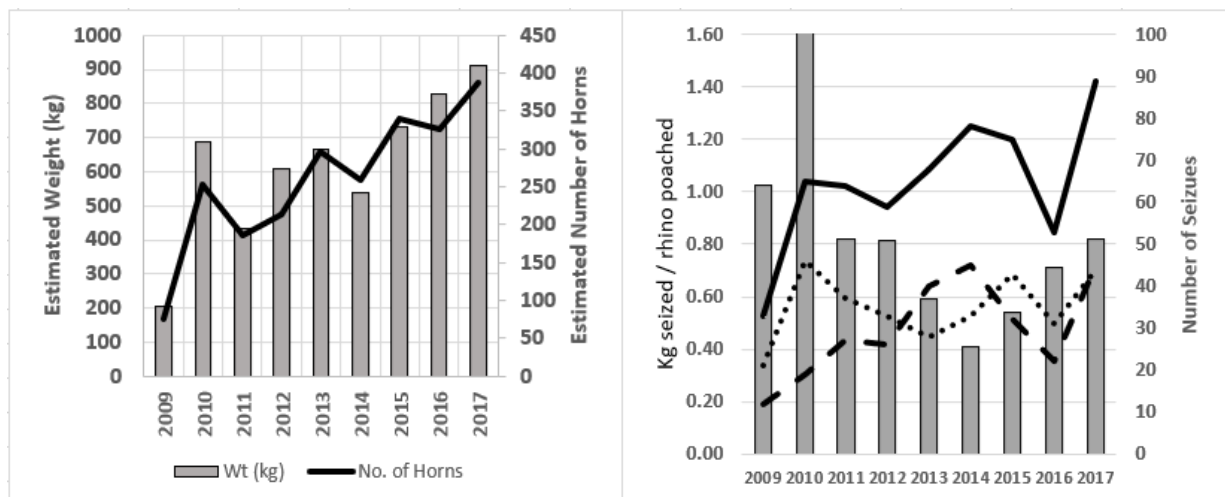


Figure 5: Estimated weight and number of African rhino horns seized globally (left), and number and location of seizures of African horns (in Africa [dotted line], in Asia and other countries [dashed line] and total [solid line]) and the ratio of seized horn weight to rhino poached (grey bars) (right), 2009–2017. (Based on TRAFFIC Rhino Horn Seizures Database. Where data on weights or numbers of horns were not available for a particular seizure, these have been calculated using species-specific average horn weights found in Pienaar *et al.*, 1991 and Leader-Williams, 1992.)

In Table 5, data for seizures made by a particular country (“*Made by*”) have been combined with data on seizures that took place elsewhere but implicated that country as the origin, exporter, transit link or final destination (“*Implicated in*”)²⁶. Therefore, total consolidated numbers of seizures, weights and numbers of horns in Table 5 include some double-counting as data from a single seizure can be captured at more than one point in the trade chain. In the absence of DNA analysis of all seizure samples, the origin of much of the horn leaving Africa remains unknown. Knowledge of trade chains would be enhanced by increased forensic testing and more timely submission of seizure information and samples for DNA analysis (discussed later). Given the caveats associated with interpretation of the data in Table 5, these data cannot be used to indicate law enforcement effectiveness/effort, unless perhaps comparing similar types of countries (e.g. destination countries) or within a country over time. Nevertheless, the trade flows shown by these data provide an indication of the countries most affected by the illegal rhino horn trade.

²⁶ If a seizure was made in Country A and horns were destined to have been transported by air via Country B to Country C, the seizure would be recorded as “*Made by*” A and also listed under “*Implicated in*” for Countries B and C. In this case, law enforcement authorities in Countries B and C would have had no chance to make a seizure and thus “*Implicated in*” does not necessarily reflect law enforcement effectiveness. If a seizure is made in Country C and DNA shows the horn came from Country A, then it would be recorded as “*Made by*” Country C and listed under “*Implicated in*” for Country A.

Table 5: Global rhino horn seizure data, 2009–September 2018. (Based on TRAFFIC Rhino Horn Seizures Database. Where data on either weight or number of horns were not available for a particular seizure, these have been calculated using species-specific average horn weights found in Pienaar *et al.*, 1991 and Leader-Williams, 1992. Shading in the columns for the most recent period is proportional to the values in each column.)

Country/Territory	2009-2013				2014-Sept2018				Entire Period 2009-Sept2018			
	Seizure Number Made by	Seizure Number Implicated in	Estimated Weight (kg) of Seizures	Estimated Number of Horns & Pieces	Seizure Number Made by	Seizure Number Implicated in	Estimated Weight (kg) of Seizures	Estimated Number of Horns & Pieces	Seizure Number Made by	Seizure Number Implicated in	Estimated Weight (kg) of Seizures	Estimated Number of Horns & Pieces
South Africa	138	13	1,560	503	102	33	1,434	552	240	46	2,994	1,055
China (+Hong Kong SAR)	75	35	733	314	85	38	982	425	160	73	1,715	739
Viet Nam	26	35	847	339	35	25	910	422	61	60	1,757	761
Mozambique	7	12	241	89	25	18	790	341	32	30	1,031	430
Malaysia	0	4	63	25	3	3	367	140	3	7	430	165
Kenya	9	3	122	44	9	7	347	150	18	10	469	194
Qatar	0	11	102	62	1	13	201	86	1	24	303	148
Thailand	6	7	135	57	8	5	193	92	14	12	328	149
Malawi	0	0	-	0	3	2	138	61	3	2	138	61
Singapore	3	1	-	0	4	3	116	61	7	4	116	61
Namibia	0	0	-	0	10	5	114	55	10	5	114	55
Cambodia	0	0	40	19	2	4	96	42	2	4	136	61
Uganda	1	2	62	27	4	1	87	53	5	3	149	80
Zambia	1	0	14	5	4	3	73	33	5	3	87	38
Ethiopia	0	5	43	20	0	7	68	32	0	12	111	52
Nigeria	0	4	81	32	0	3	64	24	0	7	145	56
Lao PDR	0	1	6	2	2	6	63	48	2	7	69	50
Turkey	0	0	-	0	2	1	61	23	2	1	61	23
United Arab Emirates	1	6	35	18	0	6	50	41	1	12	84	59
United Kingdom	5	1	37	29	4	0	41	16	9	1	78	45
India	18	0	19	20	51	0	39	52	69	0	58	72
France	2	6	52	35	1	1	14	13	3	7	67	48
Czech Republic	4	0	118	40	2	0	7	3	6	0	125	43
U.S.A.	1	2	108	40	3	0	4	4	4	2	112	44
Zimbabwe	7	2	69	36	1	1	3	4	8	3	71	40
Σ Other Countries *	29	25	277	147	43	21	257	182	72	46	534	329
TOTAL	333	174	4,763	1,903	404	206	6,517	2,955	737	380	11,281	4,858

*Includes 35 other countries: Angola, Belgium, Bhutan, Botswana, Canada, Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Egypt, Germany, Greece, Guinea, Hungary, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, Myanmar, Nepal, Netherlands, Philippines, Portugal, Rwanda, Slovakia, South Sudan, Spain, Sudan, eSwatini, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan (province of China), Tanzania, Togo.

As in reports to previous CoPs, Table 5 indicates that South Africa, China (including Hong Kong SAR), Viet Nam and Mozambique remain the countries most affected by illegal trade, and nationals of all of these countries continue to be arrested for rhino crimes.

Among source countries, **South Africa** accounts for the highest number of seizures in Table 5, with the country either making or being implicated in 33% of all seizures that have occurred since 2014 and accounting for 40% of the total weight of seized rhino horn in this period. This is not unexpected since South Africa has the greatest number of rhino and experienced the heaviest poaching, and therefore remains the biggest source of horn for illegal markets. Whilst the number of seizures made in South Africa, the estimated weight of seized horns and the estimated number of seized horns have all declined in the period 2014-2018 compared to the earlier period, these variables have all increased considerably in seizures made by other countries that implicate South Africa in the trade chain. This may be due in part to increased availability of information regarding the source of illegally traded horn, through DNA analysis and information obtained from traffickers that have been detained. The shift towards smuggling processed horn (discussed below) is, however, making detection more difficult. While South Africa remains one of the countries most affected by illegal trade, poaching levels in South Africa have been declining since 2014 (Table 2).

Mozambique is the second most prominent source country in Table 5; the country made, or was otherwise implicated in, approximately one in 10 of the total number of seizures made in the period 2014-2018. The weight of horn seized is significantly greater than could be produced by the small number of rhino that currently occur in Mozambique, indicating that the country is acting as a major transit country for horn. Many Mozambique nationals continue to be implicated in rhino poaching in

South Africa (Kobus De Wet, KNP - personal communication) and there is evidence that Vietnamese-led transnational criminal syndicates are heavily engaged in trafficking ivory and South African-sourced rhino horn out of Mozambique (EIA, 2017, 2018). While the number of rhino horn seizures made by Mozambique has risen 3.6 times compared to an approximate two-fold increase in poaching over the period 2014-2018 (Tables 2 and 5), which could be indicative of an improvement in law enforcement in the country, a greater quantity of rhino horn illegally left the country compared to the period 2009-2013 (involving at least an estimated 149 horns, weighing 374 kg, in 18 separate seizures that Mozambique was reportedly “implicated in” since 2014). Rhino horn trade dynamics in Mozambique are intrinsically linked with neighbouring South Africa which is the major source of rhino horn and is believed to share highly adaptive transnational criminal networks involved in the trade on both sides of the border.

China²⁷ again ranks as another important end-use destination in Asia based on available seizures data. China either made, or was implicated in, 30% of all recorded seizures in the period 2014-2018, representing more than one-quarter of the estimated weight and number of seized rhino horns (Table 5). The estimated weight and number of rhino horns seized by China grew by one-third and one-quarter, respectively, in the most recent period relative to the earlier period. The estimated weight and number of rhino horns in seizures made elsewhere that implicated China in the trade chain increased by 36% and 55%, respectively, during this same period. While these data may be indicative of improved enforcement effort, they could equally suggest that demand for rhino horn could be intensifying in the country, and that despite significant law enforcement effort and many prosecutions the country remains a key destination for illegal trade.

Among destination countries, available seizures data suggest that **Viet Nam** continues to be a leading destination for rhino horn overall, accounting for around 15% of the rhino horn seizure cases and more than one-quarter of the seized rhino horns by estimated weight or number in the more recent (2014-2018) period (Table 5). The number of seizures made in the country increased by 35% in the 2014-2018 period relative to the earlier period, with the estimated total weight and number of horns in those seizures more than doubling. In the same period, seizures made by other countries implicating Viet Nam decreased considerably. This could be indicative of an improvement in law enforcement in Viet Nam over the two periods. Overall, however, Viet Nam’s rhino horn trade flow increased by about 24% between the two periods in terms of the estimated numbers of horns involved. As has been the case since CoP15, demand in Viet Nam remains a key driver of the illegal rhino horn trade.

The predominance of China and Viet Nam in the illegal rhino horn trade is not only reflected in the available seizure records, but also in law enforcement data available for source countries. These data indicate that within Africa, Chinese and Vietnamese nationals are heavily engaged in rhino horn trafficking and play major roles in the acquisition and transport of rhino horn out of Africa to Asian destinations. The results of 141 cases in which 219 nationals of Asian countries were arrested in conjunction with a rhino horn seizure in Africa, or were arrested in Asia coming directly from Africa with rhino horn, are presented in Figure 6. Comparing the periods 2009-2013 and 2014-2018, four times more Chinese nationals were arrested in the more recent period (25 versus 101 arrests), while there was a much smaller increase in the number of Vietnamese nationals arrested between the two periods (34 versus 53 arrests). From 2009 to date, Chinese nationals made up 57% of Asian individuals arrested while Vietnamese nationals comprised 40%.

A recent analysis of 21 court cases pertaining to rhino horn seizures made at OR Tambo international airport from August 2016 to October 2018 by South Africa’s Department of Environmental Affairs in collaboration with South African Police Service, the Hawks and the South African Revenue Service (Melanzi, 2018) reveals a similar pattern of involvement of these two countries. Hong Kong SAR was the reported end destination for 13 of these shipments, with another two scheduled to pass through Hong Kong SAR to Nanjing in China, and the remaining six cases involving horns destined for Viet Nam via either Dubai or Doha.

²⁷ Data for China includes data for Hong Kong SAR, as there is no evidence that this region constitutes a separate market.

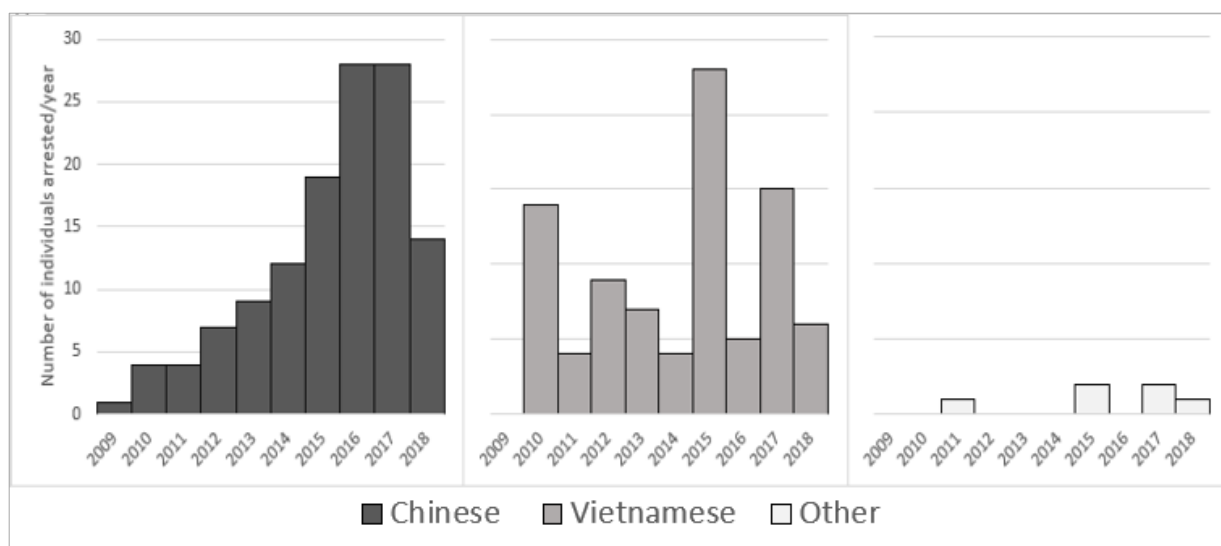


Figure 6: Numbers of individuals from Asian countries arrested in conjunction with African rhino horn seizure cases. (Based on TRAFFIC Rhino Horn Seizures Database. “Other” nationalities include 1 Malaysian, 2 North Korean, 2 Taiwanese and 1 unspecified “South East Asian”.)

Evidence of Chinese-run rhino horn processing operations in South Africa for export to Asian markets has emerged since CoP17 and marks an entirely new development in the trade. Police investigations in 2017 uncovered small home workshops where rhino horn beads and bracelets are manufactured for export along with horn offcuts and powder, and two Chinese nationals and a Thai national were arrested as a result (Moneron *et al.*, 2017). Bags of rhino horn offcuts, beads and cylinders have also been seized in Mozambique but it remains unknown whether processing operations have been established in the country or whether the seized goods originated in South Africa or elsewhere (T. Milliken, personal observation, July 2018). The advent of manufacturing of rhino products in Africa coincides with a similar development in the illegal ivory trade (CITES, 2017).

As previously reported, in 1993 the Chinese government banned all trade and exploitation of rhino horns and tiger bones with the issuance of a *Circular on Banning the Trade of Rhino Horns and Tiger Bones*. This legal instrument strictly prohibited the import and export, sale, purchase and transport (including carrying or sending by post) of these wildlife products, and was further buttressed by the official removal of these substances as approved ingredients in the official *Chinese Pharmacopoeia* governing traditional Chinese medicine (TCM). However, on 29 October 2018, a *Notice by the General Office of the State Council on Strict Rules of Activities of Operation and Utilization of Rhinoceros and Tiger and their Products* repealed the 1993 *Circular* and effectively opens up two new channels of rhino horn and tiger bone usage and trade: the sale of antique or collectable specimens which hold cultural value, and licensed trade as a medicinal product through approved TCM doctors in accredited hospitals. The first trade option essentially mimics an exemption made for ivory antiques at the time of the market closure of legal ivory trade on 31 December 2017, but the allowance of rhino horn as a TCM ingredient overturns a longstanding prohibition on domestic use of rhino horn spanning two and half decades. The *Notice* restricts rhino horn usage to captive bred animals (as distinct from zoo specimens), but key implementation details concerning the eligibility of individual live rhino presently in China as a future source of horn, the conditions of rhino horn stock procurement and management, the design of chain of custody controls from producers to consumers, and other related issues are yet to be developed. However, on 12 November 2018, the official Xinhua news agency reported that the “detailed regulations for implementation” of the October *Notice* had been “postponed after study”, and the “three strict bans” will continue to be enforced meaning that the import and export; the sale, purchase, transport, carrying and mailing; and the use of rhino horns and tiger bones in medicine all remain strictly banned. State Council Executive Deputy Secretary-General Ding Xuedong also announced that the government would soon be organising special crackdown campaigns focused on addressing the illegal trade in tigers and rhinos and their by-products, and that illegal activity would be dealt with severely.

In the meantime, trade in rhino horn products continues to be observed in China. A study of art and antiquities auctions in China from 2000-2014 documented 7,189 rhino products in domestic trade with a rapid escalation in sales from 202 items in 2005 to 2,698 items in 2011, followed by a virtual collapse in the period 2012-2014 following the issuance of a special notice by China’s State Forestry Administration on 15 December 2011 reaffirming prohibitions on rhino horn trading in the country (Gao

et al., 2016). Investment and appreciation of artistic value were the two common reasons given for purchase and the government's subsequent intervention was cited by the China Association of Auctioneers as a major factor in "a sharp decrease in turnover in China's booming art auction market" (Gao *et al.*, 2016). Another more recent review of auctions in China found rhino TCM products being sold²⁸. Although the auction houses engaged in this trade were in apparent violation of the 1993 ban on rhino horn, the items found on display had all ostensibly been approved by officials from the State Administration of Cultural Heritage, indicating a major gap in awareness of wildlife trade regulation in the country amongst key government officials.

Countries with a higher proportion of "*Implicated in*" seizures in Table 5 include some countries with airports that are major transport hubs. With the recent expansion of Ethiopian Airlines to become the biggest airline in Africa, Ethiopia has emerged as an important regional transport hub, along with South Africa and Kenya where carriers offer direct flights to Asian destinations. The national carriers of Qatar, United Arab Emirates and Turkey also offer similar connections via Doha, Dubai/Abu Dhabi and Istanbul, and available evidence suggests that these routes have all been used by couriers to illegally move horn between Africa and Asia.

In addition to available data on seizures, market surveys can also provide valuable information regarding trade routes. An undercover investigation in the Golden Triangle (the border region between Thailand, Myanmar and Lao PDR) in April 2018 revealed a market where large quantities of illegal wildlife products were openly displayed for sale, including whole African rhino horns as well as pieces, shavings and worked beads of rhino horn²⁹.

2.3.3 DNA analysis and use of the CITES rhinoceros horn seizures form

The RhODIS® Rhino DNA Indexing System (Harper *et al.*, 2013, 2018), established in 2010, is proving to be increasingly useful in investigations where DNA profiles from blood samples, seized horns and even horn dust in a bag used to transport horns can be compared and matched to DNA forensic sample profiles taken from poached animals at specific crime scenes, or by searching for matches against the DNA profiles of thousands of live animals and horn stocks on the RhODIS database. The storage of all these profiles from multiple African countries in a single continental database facilitates such matching (Harper *et al.*, 2018). With collection of samples from hunts, dehorning and any rhino immobilizations being legally mandatory in South Africa, and other range States such as Kenya and Namibia continuing to supply samples, the number of DNA profiles on the continental database continues to grow, and the chances of getting matches to international seizures increases. The system provides a tool to police and control domestic horn sales and the export of hunting trophies by allowing for the identification of illegal laundering of horn from either source onto illegal markets.

South Africa's report to SC70 (SC70 Doc. 56 Annex 14) summarizes international seizure samples sent to South Africa from international sources over the three-year period 2015-2017. Links were made to specific Kenyan, Namibian and South African rhino in seizure samples received from 11 countries during this period. Additional matches not listed in SC70 Doc. 56 Annex 14 have also been made from international seizure samples submitted in 2012-2014 and 2018, with a positive match to at least one animal for every international seizure sample submitted since 2016. If individual countries instead opted to implement their own incompatible DNA profiling systems, it would not be possible to efficiently look for matches across Africa as has been possible using the continental RhODIS database.

Nevertheless, some countries have indicated a preference to use their own in country DNA labs, while others have questioned the need to allocate resources to sending samples to the South African Police Service Forensic Science Lab (SAPS FSL) and subsequent RhODIS analysis³⁰, when for them, a simple species DNA test may be all that is needed to successfully secure a prosecution in a seizure case in their own country. One option used very successfully by Malaysia was to use its national DNA

²⁸ "For these items, the date of manufacturing was mostly claimed to be in the 1980s or before 1993 when the trade ban on rhino horn and tiger bone was imposed. A total of 112 lots of TCM were recorded. There were 66 auction lots of Peaceful Palace Bovine Bezoar Pill (containing rhino horn), with an estimated auction market value of ... USD1,160-4,639 per lot" (Chou, 2018).

²⁹ Based on photographs taken by an undercover investigator in April 2018, that were shown at the 30th meeting of the Rhino and Elephant Security Group (Mwanza, Tanzania, November 2018).

³⁰ While DNA species identification tests can be undertaken in a range of countries, RhODIS profiles are currently only being produced in a single lab in South Africa, but in time the hope remains that RhODIS-compatible profiles can be generated in multiple labs around the world. This would allow countries to analyse samples in-house and then share RhODIS-compatible DNA profiles without the need to send horn or extracted DNA samples to South Africa. Kenya's lab is apparently close to being able to derive RhODIS-compatible profiles. If a country is not able or seeking to adopt International Society of Animal Genetics standardization methods, another way to facilitate roll out of RhODIS compatible testing to other countries may be through the development of a commercial RhODIS kit.

forensic lab to extract DNA and conduct a species test needed for a local prosecution, and then to send samples of the extracted DNA to South Africa (obviating the need to send horn samples) that allowed many matches to be made.

Many range State investigators, conservationists and the major rhino coordination groups in Africa see it as vital for law enforcement efforts against transnational organized crime to share as much seizure information as possible (perhaps excluding confidential nominal data that can't be shared due to ongoing investigations or pending cases) along with DNA samples for analysis, and support the use of RhODIS as the only standardized DNA system and database to identify the source of samples in Africa. The system allows investigators to identify which different reserves and countries specific organized crime syndicates have been and are operating in, and provides greater understanding of their supply routes. Using DNA evidence to show the whole chain of supply in court allows couriers to be convicted for trafficking, rather than just illegal possession, and therefore receive higher penalties (for example in a recent case in eSwatini discussed later). INTERPOL in southern Africa has also shown support for the system and a film presentation to the 87th INTERPOL General Assembly by South Africa's Directorate for Priority Crime Investigations Unit stressed the value of using the RhODIS system to link seizures back to specific rhino in Africa.

From reports to the SC-RWG, it is also clear there have been many instances where transit or end user countries have not used the recommended CITES *Form for collection and sharing of data on rhinoceros horn seizures and on samples for forensic analysis* referenced in Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) and/or timeously submitted details of seizures. South Africa reported it had only received the collection form from three countries. Countries in general seem reluctant to complete the CITES collection form because investigations or court cases are still ongoing or pending.

2.3.4 Trophy hunting

In South Africa and Namibia, the two countries with the largest rhino populations in Africa, numbers of both species of rhino have increased considerably since sport hunting of white and black rhino resumed in 1968 and 2005 respectively (Emslie *et al.*, 2016; Cooney *et al.*, 2017). In 2004, CITES Parties approved annual hunting quotas of five black rhino males for both South Africa and Namibia. Between 2005-2017, 45 black rhinos were hunted in South Africa (an average 3.5/year and 69% of the quota), and a total of 10 black rhinos were hunted over the same period in Namibia (15% of the quota; Figure 7). Over the last six years, an average of 4.8 black rhinos/year have been hunted in the two countries. For white rhino, where hunting is not subject to CITES quotas, an average 83 white rhino/year have been hunted across both countries in the six years 2012-2017. These average hunting rates are equivalent to hunting a very low and sustainable 0.50% and 0.13% per year of the current total number of white and black rhino, respectively, in the two countries.

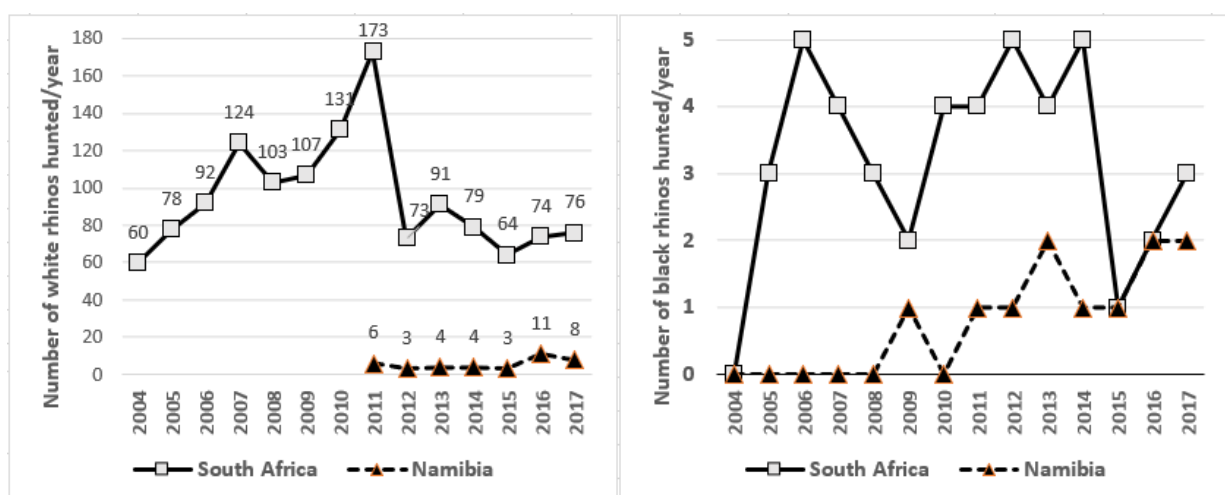


Figure 7. Number of white rhino hunted in South Africa 2004-2017 and Namibia 2011-2017 (left); and number of black rhino hunted in South Africa and Namibia since approval of annual quotas of five black rhino for each country in 2004 (right). (Data from Hall-Martin *et al.*, 2009, Milliken & Shaw 2012, South African Department of Environmental Affairs and Namibian Ministry of Environment and Tourism).

Pseudo-hunting (hunting to acquire horns for illegal markets) emerged as a serious issue in South Africa in 2006, rising steadily to peak in 2011 (Milliken and Shaw 2012, described in the CoP17 report).

This resulted in a doubling of the number of white rhino hunted in South Africa from 2005 to 2011 (Figure 7) coinciding with a marked increase in the number of hunters from “non-traditional” countries (Figure 8). South Africa’s regulatory clampdown on pseudo-hunting in 2012 was followed by a decrease in the number of white rhino hunted annually between 2012-2015 to levels previously seen in 2004-2006 (Emslie *et al.*, 2016), a trend which has continued through 2016 and 2017. It is suspected that some pseudo-hunting has continued since 2012, although at a much lower level as a result of improved regulation, fewer white rhino hunts taking place annually, and some hunting applications being rejected in South Africa (a total of eight in 2016-2017, usually where the applicant had no prior hunting experience). Since the clampdown, the number of white rhino hunting applications from “non-traditional” countries including Czech Republic, Poland, Thailand and Viet Nam has declined considerably, while the number and proportion of white rhino hunting applications from “traditional” countries (those that hunted white rhino in 1977-1986 and/or 1991-1993) has increased (Figure 8). The proportion of white rhino hunting applications from the principal “traditional” countries, Spain and the United States, has increased from 1.2% and 5.4% respectively at the time of peak pseudo-hunting (2009-2011) to 5.8% and 47.4% respectively in 2016-2017. Historically over the period 1977-1986 and 1991-1993, hunters from Spain the United States accounted for 6.9% and 71.6% of white rhino hunted in South Africa respectively (Emslie 1994b).

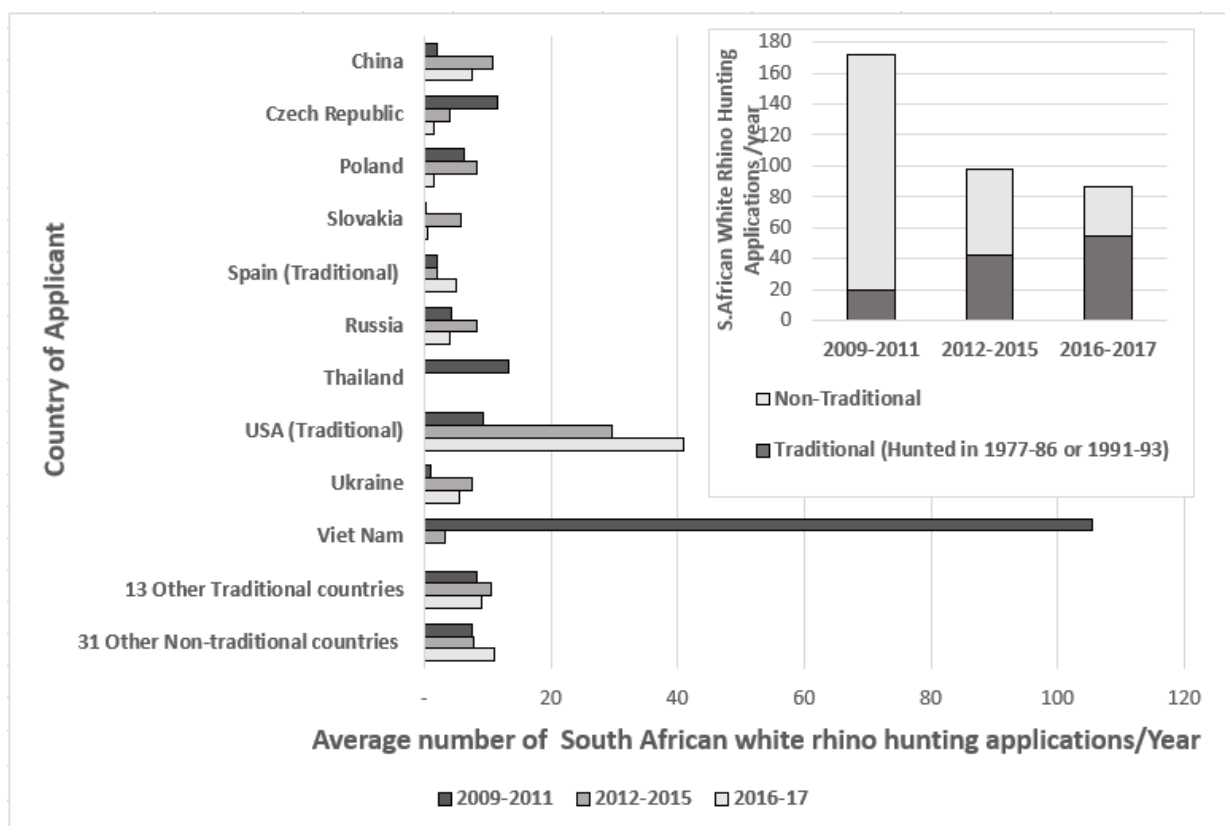


Figure 8: Average number of hunting applications for South African white rhino per year by hunter country of residence, for 2009-2011 (prior to psuedo-hunting clamp down by South Africa in early 2012), 2012-2015 and 2016-17. (Based on South African Department of Environmental Affairs rhino hunt data. “Traditional” countries are defined as those from which hunters came from to hunt white rhino in 1977-86 and/or 1991-93 (based on Emslie’s (1994b) analysis of data from the CITES Trade Database for 1977-86 and South African CITES permits from 1991-93). Summary totals are provided for countries from which less than 5 permit applications/year were submitted in any of the three periods. The smaller insert bar graph compares the average number of applications per year over the three periods from “traditional” and “non-traditional” countries. Note that not all applications were approved or resulted in hunts.)

In reports to CITES and the SC-RWG, the EU reported that it has recommended that, where possible under national laws, Member States carry out risk-based checks on persons who imported trophies since 2009 to ensure they still remained in their possession. Austria, Germany and Hungary indicated they had checked hunting trophy imports to ensure they remained in possession of hunters, while the UK was also considering measures to ensure trophies remained in the possession of hunters. Hungary also reported steps to join a joint investigative team targeting illegal rhino horn trade in Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia, while Slovakia has suspended the import of hunting trophies since 2016. In the EU, the import of rhino trophies is conditional upon the issuing of an import permit by Member States.

The EU and South Africa have been closely considering the hunting experience of those applying to hunt or to import hunting trophies (SC70 Doc. 56 Annexes 1,3,5,6,13 and 17 and Mpho Tjiane – South African Department of Environmental Affairs, personal communication).

Whilst prior to CITES CoP16 it was estimated that as much as 18% of the rhino horn sourced in Africa for illegal markets may have originated from pseudo-hunting (Emslie *et al.*, 2012), following the implementation of control measures from 2012 this source had declined to an estimated 2% prior to CoP17 (Emslie *et al.*, 2016). It is now estimated that only around 0.7% of horns destined for illegal markets may be sourced from pseudo-hunting (Table 3). Although hunters from Poland and Slovakia continued to be engaged in sport hunting of white rhino in South Africa in the period 2015-2016, this was at a reduced level compared to 2013 and Slovakia suspended the import of trophies in 2016 (SC70 Doc. 56 Annex 13). However, it is worth noting that there remain very large accumulated discrepancies between exports of rhino horn trophies reported by South Africa to certain countries, in particular Russia and the United States, and imports reported by these countries, which merit further investigation (see Annexure 1). Other such discrepancies continue to be noted for Canada, China, Denmark, Hungary and Spain. Further, hunters from Malaysia and Kuwait have apparently engaged in seven and ten sport hunts, respectively, while South Africa has not reported the export of the majority of these trophies (Annexure 1). In order to assist CITES Management Authorities in importing countries and facilitate their efforts to ensure trophies remain in the lawful possession of hunters, South Africa is encouraged to consider taking stricter domestic measures, as the EU has done, and require the prior issuance of an import permit before issuing an export permit for rhino horn trophies.

Hunting continues to play an important role in white rhino conservation through the revenue it generates, as recognised by the 2012 IUCN World Conservation Congress³¹ and national rhino management plans in South Africa and Namibia, the two range States with the highest numbers of black and white rhino which together conserve 87% of Africa's rhino. Measures that have been introduced to restrict trophy hunting, such as hunting trophy import bans by some countries and refusal of certain airlines to transport trophies, has the potential to negatively impact on African rhino conservation by reducing revenue generated through this source.

2.3.5 Domestic horn sales

International rhino horn sales remain banned under CITES while the commercial sale of hunting trophies is also not permitted. Following successful legal challenges to the procedures followed by South Africa in instituting a moratorium on domestic rhino horn trade in 2008, the country's Constitutional Court ruled in 2017 that a tightly controlled legal domestic trade in rhino horn could re-open in South Africa³². As of September 2018, South Africa has reported issuing 12 permits for the potential sale of up to 1,219 rhino horns and 16 permits have been granted to potential buyers. To ensure traceability and assist law enforcement, all horns being sold were required to have RhODIS DNA profiles. While the numbers of horns actually sold or prices achieved have not been publicly released, a brief statement issued after the first rhino horn auction stated "the auction yielded fewer bidders and fewer sales than expected". This is likely to be at least partly due to the fact that the main market for horn is international rather than domestic.

2.3.6 Live sales

Regular removals of live animals from State and private populations to maintain productive densities continues to form a key part of the biological management of populations in most national rhino management plans. Historically, the sale of such surplus animals in some countries has also generated significant additional revenue to help fund and incentivise conservation efforts. Following the upsurge in poaching it has become more difficult to assess overall revenue from live sales, since for security reasons more private owners are buying rhinos by individual arrangement, rather than on public auctions from which sales data can be more easily obtained. However, trends in average prices can still be obtained from data provided by major auctioneers, major selling conservation agencies, and the owner of the largest privately-owned white rhino population (Figure 9).

³¹ IUCN World Conservation Congress 2012 Recommendation 138: <https://portals.iucn.org/library/node/44105>.

³² https://cites.org/eng/news/Background_issuance_CITES_permits_export_of_rhinoceros_horn_15032017.

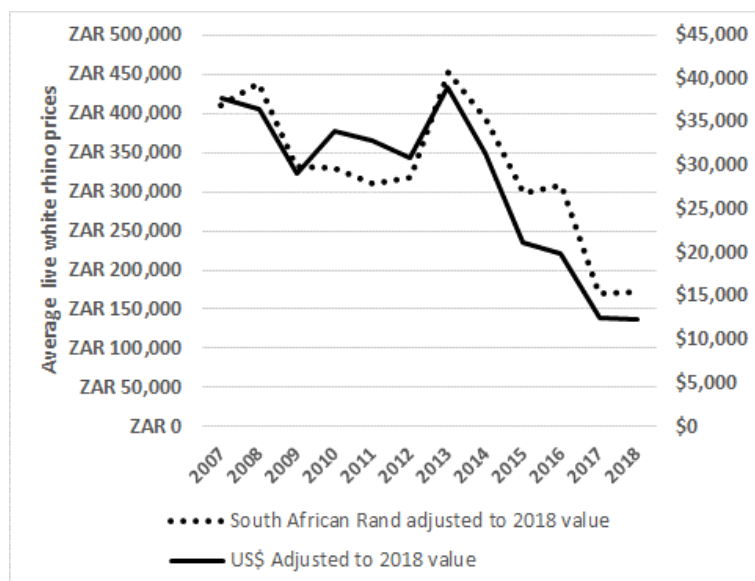


Figure 9: Inflation-adjusted average prices per live white rhino in South African Rand (ZAR) and United States Dollar (US\$) from 2007-2018. (Based on data supplied by Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife, South African National Parks, Vleisscentraal Bosveld Auctioneers, Mpatamacha Wild Auctioneers, John Hume and Michael t' Sas-Rolfes).

From 2007-2018, prices per live white rhino (adjusted to account for inflation) showed a 58% drop in South African Rand (ZAR) and 67% drop in United States Dollar (US\$) value (Figure 9). Since the poaching upsurge began post-2007, this has reduced the total asset value of white rhino in South Africa alone in 2017 by an estimated US\$396.8m. The loss of an estimated 6,753 white rhino to poaching in South Africa from 2008-2017 represents a further loss of US\$254.3m (based on 2007 pre-poaching upsurge prices adjusted for inflation). There is also the significant opportunity cost of poached rhinos not breeding, representing an estimated further loss of ~US\$60.2m over ten years assuming an average net growth rate of +7.1% per year (which was the net growth rate achieved continentally prior to the poaching increase). The combined loss of revenue from these three sources totals ~US\$711.3m, equivalent to ~US\$105,330 or well over ZAR1m per white rhino poached in South Africa since the upsurge in poaching started. If estimates for the potential declining value of animals on State land and in other range States, the value of the lost horn, and the substantially increased cost of security and law enforcement for all parties since poaching escalated were also taken into account, the real economic cost of the upsurge in poaching would be substantially higher. Seen in this context, a fine of around ZAR1m for a trafficking seizure involving poaching of multiple animals is well below the economic cost of the crime. The combination of much lower prices and fewer surplus animals to sell due to poaching, and in some cases what appear to be overzealous veterinary restrictions preventing some translocations, significantly threaten both State and private sector revenues from this source.

A number of possible reasons have been suggested for the decline in average live sale value. A 2018 survey of white rhino on South African private land (Balfour *et al.*, 2018) indicated that security costs per white rhino on private land had increased an estimated 348% since 2014, with total 2017 costs estimated at ZAR181.8m (~US\$13m). Supplementary feeding during the recent drought has further added to costs. The number of white rhino hunts remains limited (Figure 7), and owners are unable to generate a significant return from their legal horn stocks. The recent launch of the “Rhino Coin” cryptocurrency³³ also occurred at a particularly difficult time when values of major cryptocurrencies have crashed and most new initial crypto-coin offerings have failed. It is therefore becoming increasingly difficult for owners to sustainably fund their rhino management, while incentives to conserve rhino continue to decline. To date, most of the rhino owners that have sold all their rhino have been relatively small-scale and therefore of less conservation significance. However, the owner of the largest semi-wild population of over 1,600 rhino has indicated that additional funding is urgently needed to maintain current efforts, while in 2018 the owner of another semi-intensive operation that once had 250 white rhino and had been spending ~US\$ 20,840/month on management and protection has now sold most of his rhino and some of his land (Balfour *et al.*, 2018; Coetzee, 2018). While 62% of respondents to a recent survey of private owners in South Africa indicated that they didn't intend to sell any of their white

³³ Built on the Ethereum blockchain, with each coin issued against 1g of legal rhino horn and a percentage of each coin sold going to fund rhino conservation: <https://www.rhinocoin.com/>.

rhino, 18% indicated they were considering selling up to a third of their white rhino, 7% between a third and two thirds of their rhino, and 13% more than two thirds of their rhino (Balfour *et al.*, 2018). Certain Namibian rhino custodians are also starting to question their part in the custodianship programme given the increased security costs and limited financial benefit.

2.4 Horn stocks and stock management

The CITES Secretariat provided the AfRSG with data on rhino horn stocks received from a number of Parties for 2016, 2017 and 2018 pursuant to Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), together with data on horns obtained prior to 2016 provided by some Parties. While these data are incomplete, data were received from the four African range States that currently conserve the most rhino (Kenya, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe), together with Malawi and Uganda. However, Kenya and Uganda did not separate their totals into legal and illegal stocks, while South Africa only reported on additions in 2017. South Africa reported accumulating 7.40 tonnes of horn in 2017, with the majority of this (5.65 tonnes) privately held. The AfRSG has been provided with end-2015 data that improves upon Taylor *et al.*,’s (2017) South African stockpile estimate for 2016³⁴, as well as end-2015 eSwatini stockpile data. Adding a conservative projection for 2016 accumulation in South Africa (calculated as 75% of the reported 2017 accumulation) gives a conservative total African stockpile estimate of 52.16 tonnes, with the majority of this being legal stocks. With increasing numbers of white rhino on private land, some private owners undertaking regular dehorning³⁵ and some State-run parks also dehorning for security reasons, it is expected that horn stocks will increase more rapidly in future. These stockpile levels can be contrasted with the estimated average ~5.1 tonnes of African rhino horn entering illegal trade per year over the period 2016-2017. Taylor *et al.*, (2017) estimated that South Africa alone could sustainably produce from ~5.3 to ~13.4 tonnes of horn legally a year.

2.5 Conservation actions and management strategies

2.5.1 Management plans and strategies

Globally, resolutions, decisions and recommendations adopted under CITES and the IUCN World Conservation Congress³⁶ continue to provide direction with regard to rhino conservation and management. At the **continental** level, the African Rhino Conservation Plan that was developed with input from all African rhino range States was launched at a CoP17 side event. Almost all range States have **national** rhino conservation plans that have been formally accepted, with most being 5-10 year plans that undergo regular review and revision upon expiry. Since CoP17, national plans have been revised by Kenya, Namibia (separate black and white rhino plans), Tanzania (undergoing final revision and approval process) and Zimbabwe (awaiting Ministerial sign off). Uganda has now formally approved its first plan, and Rwanda and Chad also developed plans as precursors for the reintroduction of black rhino. Approved national plans have also been developed in Botswana, Malawi, South Africa (separate black and white rhino plans) and eSwatini. Zambia has also revised its plan but at the time of writing it is not known if this has been formally approved. Almost all of these national plans have measurable targets, and Key Performance Indicators for key components are being increasingly included.

2.5.2 Coordination and implementation mechanisms

Rhino range States continue to promote continental and regional coordination through membership in various groups and through the African Rhino Range States’ plan³⁷. Since CoP17, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Rhino Management Group and East African Community Rhino Management Group have both held meetings in South Africa and Rwanda, respectively, and the IUCN/SSC AfRSG is scheduled to meet in Namibia in February 2019. A number of countries have formally identified rhino coordinators, and range States have nominated Official Country Representatives within the AfRSG. While the various continental and regional groupings have all created and maintain valuable networks, and continue to successfully share information, experiences and best practices, the degree and effectiveness of national rhino coordination remains limited in some range States.

³⁴ These data do not include any figure for private land in the province where the largest private white rhino population is found, therefore an additional estimate has been included based on figure provided by the owner of this population.

³⁵ Dehorning every 18 months generates approximately 0.75kg and 1.5kg per adult female and male white rhino, respectively, per year (John Hume, personal communication).

³⁶ In particular, CITES Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) and Decisions 17.133 to 17.144, and IUCN World Conservation Congress 2012 Recommendation 138.

³⁷ https://www.environment.gov.za/sites/default/files/strategic_plans/africanrhino_conservationplan.pdf.

2.5.3 Major conservation actions and field activities

As a report to CITES which primarily focuses on trade issues, conservation activities being undertaken by range States are only briefly outlined in this report; more detail can be found in range State reports to SC70 (Annexes to SC70 Doc. 56). Monitoring and continued biological management remain key areas for most countries but an increased focus and deployment of staff on rhino security has reduced the quality of monitoring in some areas.

South Africa undertook a thorough process to develop plans for the five key areas identified in its 2016 Committee of Enquiry report as requiring interventions, namely: security; community empowerment; biological management; responsive legislative provisions that are effectively implemented and enforced; and demand management. The WWF Black Rhino Range Expansion Project continues to contribute to expansion of black rhino range and numbers in the country. There is increasing recognition of the need for greater involvement of communities in rhino conservation in South Africa, and a number of pilot projects have been set up or are being planned³⁸. A small number of more intensive semi-wild populations in South Africa have also very successfully bred and protected white rhino, but the financial sustainability of such operations in the current environment is increasingly challenging. Namibia has responded to increased poaching with some dehorning, and increased collaboration among government agencies and more coordinated involvement of NGOs. Botswana has significantly boosted its rhino numbers through some significant translocations into the country. In Kenya an “eyes in the court” programme that monitors case progress is proving useful. In Malawi, over 31,000 snares were removed from one rhino park, and the potential for boosting Malawi’s black rhino numbers as part of the WWF Black Rhino Range Expansion Project is currently being considered. eSwatini continues to keep poaching at very low levels through intensive field patrolling and intelligence. Drought losses in the country were reduced through measures such as supplementary feeding, translocating animals, temporarily holding animals in bomas, hand raising calves, and removing other competing grazers. Tanzania is investigating options to bring in additional founder rhino and survey work is once again planned in areas of the Selous Game Reserve. Zimbabwe also held a one-day rhino metapopulation management workshop and developed detailed translocation recommendations to genetically revitalize some of its smaller white rhino populations.

Technology is playing an increasingly important role in law enforcement efforts, particularly in larger parks where field ranger densities are low. Technologies that have proved useful include innovative “Meercat” mobile radar systems that can distinguish humans from other animals, use of software such as CMORE in 24-hour manned command centres, thermal imaging, intrusion detection systems, and enhanced detection scanners. Detection, tracking or attack dogs continue to be very valuable in the field, at park entry points and at ports of exit. Increased aerial support and surveillance is assisting and as ever intelligence remains critical in the fight against poaching. However, finding ways to secure sufficient and sustainable funding for field protection, monitoring and management remains a major challenge and threat to rhino conservation. In an attempt to address this issue, a Rhino Impact Investment Project³⁹ has been initiated with the intention of developing a sustainable funding mechanism for rhino conservation in some key populations.

2.6 Enforcement issues

2.6.2 Security and law enforcement strategies

In recent years there has been greater recognition that poaching presents an organised crime problem impacting the socio-economics of range States, rather than being simply a conservation issue. To successfully combat organised crime requires a holistic government approach that is ideally police-led. Since CoP17, several range States have been working to enhance cooperation between different government agencies.

A number of countries have developed specific security-related strategies. Mozambique has developed a *National Ivory and Rhino Action Plan*, which outlines and periodically assesses measures to deal with rhino crimes. The country continues to co-operate closely with law enforcement authorities in neighbouring Kruger National Park in South Africa, and has started resettling villages in Limpopo National Park which have been known sources of poachers to areas outside the park. South Africa has an *Integrated Strategic Management Approach* to combat rhino poaching and a *National Strategy of the*

³⁸ In South Africa this is being included as part of the country’s programme to develop a Wildlife Economy as part of its Biodiversity Economy. The aim is to fast track community programmes in which biodiversity and wildlife are seen as valid land uses and economic activities for communities to engage in.

³⁹ <https://www.zsl.org/conservation-initiatives/animals-on-the-edge/rhino-impact-investment-project>.

Safety and Security of Rhinoceros Populations and Horn Stocks. South African Government departments responsible for law enforcement also identified the need for an integrated approach across government, assisted by civil society, and under the leadership of the South African Police Service finalised a *National Integrated Strategy to Combat Wildlife Trafficking*. Namibia has developed a *National Strategy on Wildlife Protection and Law Enforcement*. Like many range States, Namibia has well-established informant networks and has set up a toll-free number the public can use to provide information. It has also undertaken training of wildlife investigators, prosecutors and magistrates so they can be more conversant with wildlife crime and applicable legislation, and is moving towards the use of a broad suite of Acts to prosecute offenders. With the recent signing of an MoU between the country's Big Game Parks, police and Directorate of Public Prosecutions, eSwatini has also recently formalised its National Wildlife Law Enforcement and Anti-Poaching Task Team. In Tanzania the introduction of a 24-hour operations control room is assisting its law enforcement efforts. Malawi has established a Wildlife Crime Investigations Unit and an Anti-Trafficking Unit.

In recent years a number of range, transit and end-user States have collaborated and developed bilateral MoUs. Mutual Legal Assistance agreements are also being sought. In addition, the SADC Law Enforcement and Anti-Poaching Strategy (LEAP) programme has been accepted by the SADC countries⁴⁰. SADC is also pursuing the AFRICA-TWIX (Trade in Wildlife Information eXchange) tool developed to facilitate cooperation and the exchange of information between enforcement and custom officers to assist in combatting wildlife trafficking⁴¹. Since CoP17 the Rhino and Elephant Security Group in Southern Africa has also held meetings in South Africa and Tanzania. The Asset Recovery Inter-Agency Network of Southern Africa (ARINSA) promotes and facilitates use of asset forfeiture in member States to “follow the money” and to try to “take the proceeds from crime”.

At a global level, the International Consortium on Wildlife Crime (ICWCC) is working to bring coordinated support to national wildlife law enforcement agencies. With respect to rhino, the World Customs Organisation (WCO) at CITES SC70 noted that it is seeking to encourage law enforcement efforts not to see international seizures as an end point, but rather the beginning of further action to investigate and prosecute wildlife traffickers (Roux Raath - WCO, personal communication).

2.6.2 Legislation and prosecutions

South Africa uses asset forfeiture, and Section 252A of the Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1977 also allows for the use of traps and undercover operations where evidence obtained is admissible in court. In addition to prosecuting under its National Environmental Management and Biodiversity Act, South Africa lists 12 additional charges that can be instituted against rhino crime-related offenders and 11 associated legal Acts (Doc. SC70 56 Annex 16). By pursuing multiple charges, significant sentences have been handed down such as an effective sentence of 35 years 3 months in a November 2018 rhino case conviction on 11 counts under eight different charges. However, while there have been several convictions with significant deterrent sentences, there have been other cases where those convicted have received very light sentences.

Mozambique has reported several successful convictions following the coming into force of new amendments to its conservation law in 2017.

In Kenya the Wildlife Conservation Act of 2013 has penalties of up to a life sentence or a fine of up to KES20m.

Malawi's amended National Parks and Wildlife Act contains stiffened penalties. Following collaboration between African Parks, Malawi's Department of National Parks and Wildlife and its Police Service, a black rhino poacher in Malawi was convicted (horns recovered) and sentenced to 18 years' imprisonment, with two accomplices also sentenced to 8 and 10 years each. This has set a new precedent for punishment of wildlife crimes in the country.

Namibia's Controlled Wildlife Products and Trade Amendment Act of 2017 provides for the implementation of CITES with fines of up to N\$15-25m and/or imprisonment of up to 25 years. Repeat offenders are liable for fines up to N\$50m and/or imprisonment up to 40 years. The Nature Conservation Amendment Act of 2017 also provides for similar increases in penalties relating to poaching of rhino. In 2016, four Chinese nationals were sentenced to 14 years for attempting to smuggle 14 rhino horns. However, case backlogs due to trial postponements while awaiting forensic reports appears to be an issue.

⁴⁰ https://tfcaportal.org/system/files/resources/SADC_LEAP_FINAL%20DRAFT_Revised%2031%20MARCH%2015%20Eng.pdf.

⁴¹ <https://www.traffic.org/news/africa-twix-enhancing-collaboration-in-the-fight-against-illegal-wildlife-trade-in-central-africa/>.

Tanzania amended its Economic and Organised Crime Control Act in 2016 to increase penalties to between 20-30 years' imprisonment, and defined certain trafficking offenses to be economic offenses of the first schedule under the Wildlife Conservation Act Number 5 of 2009.

Zimbabwe has reported two convictions for poaching with sentences of 36 and 10 years. The Parks and Wildlife General Laws Amendment of 2011 provides for significant jail terms of nine years and from 11-20 years for repeat offenders.

The granting of bail to serious or repeat offenders remains a problem identified by some range States. Botswana issued an INTERPOL Red Notice for known rhino trafficker Dumisane Moyo so he could be brought back to the country to face charges; but after having been arrested and extradited by Zimbabwe on the strength of this Red Notice, he was again released on bail in Botswana. At the time of writing his current status is unclear. The granting of bail in Zimbabwean cases has for some time also been identified as a problem. This problem was also apparent in a South African analysis of 21 court cases pertaining to trials of 22 couriers caught smuggling rhino horn at OR Tambo International Airport from August 2016 to October 2018 (Melanzi, 2018). While nine of the cases had been finalized and five cases had been postponed for various reasons, warrants of arrest have had to be issued for the remaining eight accused (36% of those charged). All eight were Chinese nationals and all had been granted bail of from R70,000 to R150,000 (Melanzi, 2018).

To date there have been more than 250 rhino poaching and seizure case reports where RhODIS DNA matches were found and have assisted in successful prosecutions, not only in South Africa, but also in Kenya, Namibia and eSwatini. DNA evidence can help ensure convictions and longer sentencing. Table 6 gives examples of 10 successful court cases from four African countries where RhODIS DNA evidence was used. A recent case in eSwatini is a good example, where RhODIS DNA analysis was able to link a seizure in eSwatini to specific poached rhinos in three different reserves in neighbouring South Africa. In addition to being sentenced to 29 years each, the convicted traffickers were (for the first time) also ordered by the court to pay compensation for the poached animals to the three identified owners in South Africa, with a failure to do so adding another four years to their sentences. DNA evidence was key in this case as it allowed the prosecution to identify the full criminal supply chain from source, so that the accused could be convicted of wildlife trafficking and not just illegal possession of rhino horns and receive longer sentences as a result.

Table 6: Summary of ten prosecuted case of rhino crimes. (Based on Harper *et al.*, (2018); Mick Reilly – eSwatini Big Game Parks, personal communication).

Year	Species	Subspecies/ Genetic Management Cluster	Match result	Country Case in	Country horns linked to	Poaching Site linked by DNA	Sentences	Nationality
2012	White rhino	<i>C.s.simum</i> Southern	2 horns matched carcass 1 and 1 horn matched carcass 2	South Africa	South Africa	Kruger National Park	29 years 3 months	Mozambican
2012	White rhino	<i>C.s.simum</i> Southern	2 horns matched carcass 1 and 1 horn matched carcass 2	South Africa	South Africa	Waterberg (SA)	10 years	Zimbabwean
2013	White rhino	<i>C.s.simum</i> Southern	Horn matched carcass	South Africa	South Africa	Hoedspruit	15 years each	Mozambican & S.African
2013	Black rhino	<i>D.b.michaeli</i> Southeastern	2 horns matched carcass 1 and 1 horn matched carcass 2	South Africa	South Africa	Kruger National Park	14 years	Mozambican
2014	White rhino	<i>C.s.simum</i> Southern	6 horns with 2 horns matched to a carcass	South Africa	South Africa	Kruger National Park	15 months	Vietnamese
2015	White rhino	<i>C.s.simum</i> Southern	The profile from clothing matched carcass	South Africa	South Africa	Limpopo	8 years each	Zimbabwean and Mozambican
2016	Black rhino	<i>D.b.bicornis</i> Southwestern	14 horns with 2 horns matched to a carcass	Namibia	Namibia	Etosha National Park	14 years	Chinese
2016	White rhino	<i>C.s.simum</i> Southern	3 horns matched to 3 carcasses	South Africa	South Africa	OR Tambo International Airport and Hluhluwe-Imfolozi Park	R800,000 fine or 6 years	Chinese
2017	Black rhino	<i>D.b.michaeli</i> Eastern	Horn matched blood on carpet	Kenya	Kenya	Oi Pejeta Conservancy	11 years	Kenyan
2017	White rhino	<i>C.s.simum</i> Southern	Out of horns there were matches to carcasses in three different reserves in three different SA provinces. In one case horn in eSwatini a week since animal poached	eSwatini	South Africa	King Msawati III International Airport (eSwatini) and Balule (SA), Hluhluwe-Imfolozi (SA) and Madikwe GR (SA)	29 years each plus order to pay compensation for value of rhinos to identified owners in S.Africa or an additional 4 years	2 Taiwanese

3. Asian rhinoceroses

3.1 National and continental conservation status and trends

Population estimates of Asian rhino species are summarized in Table 7 based on AsRSG and WWF data.

Table 7: Estimates of Asian rhino numbers by country, species and subspecies with trends since CoP17 report*. (Based on AsRSG and WWF data.)

Species Subspecies	Greater One-horned (GOH)	Lesser One-horned or Javan	Sumatran			Trend
Country	<i>R.unicornis</i>	<i>R.s.ondaicus</i>	<i>D.s.sumatrensis</i>	<i>D.s.harrisoni</i>	Total	
India	2,939					Up slightly in Assam and Uttar Pradesh but trend since 2015 in West Bengal unknown
Nepal	649					Up in two smaller populations since 2015 (due to growth and translocations) but trend in main population since 2015 unknown
Indonesia		65-68				Up since 2015
			37-75	3	40-78	Unknown for <i>D.s.sumatrensis</i> but assumed stable for <i>D.s.harrisoni</i>
Total	3,588	65-68	37-75	3	40-78	

*Given their uncertainty, *D. s. sumatrensis* rhino estimates have been provided as a range, from minimum estimates based on footprints, camera traps and range occupancy information to maximum estimates of possible numbers (Source: AsRSG). Nepal's figure is based on the 2015 estimate for its largest population less translocations, assuming zero natural population growth given high recent natural mortalities, plus updated estimates for the other three populations. India's figure reflects recent slight increases in Assam and Uttar Pradesh but numbers in West Bengal have not been updated since CoP17.

The greater one-horned rhino (*Rhinoceros unicornis*) is categorized as Vulnerable on the IUCN Red List (Talukdar *et al.*, 2008). Surveys in 2018 confirm numbers in Assam are relatively stable at an estimated ~2,650 rhino in four populations in April 2018 (an increase of only 25 rhino from February 2015). Kaziranga National Park in Assam conserves the majority (~82%) of India's population, with numbers continuing to increase, albeit at a very slow rate of <1% per year which suggests that density dependence is an increasingly important factor. Since re-establishment of the population in Manas National Park, births there have cancelled out earlier poaching losses. Following four more introductions from Kaziranga's Centre for Wildlife Rehabilitation and Conservation (CWRC) from 2016-2018 and the birth of a calf in September 2018, the population has increased from 32 to 37 and here are plans to move at least another two founder rhinos to the park during 2018-19. Since 2015, numbers in Uttar Pradesh have increased by two to 34. There have been no new counts in West Bengal since the 2015 estimate of ~255 rhinos. Despite low growth rates in existing populations, no wild rhino have been translocated in Assam since 2016 as the identified new recipient reserve site needs more time to prepare logistics and put protection and monitoring regimes in place prior to reintroduction.

In Nepal, heavy poaching in a period of socio-political unrest caused numbers to fall to a low of 410 in 2005 before recovering to 645 by 2015. This follows a political settlement and the re-engagement of the army to assist with rhino protection in 2010. Only two rhino have been reported poached in the entire country from 2011 to September 2018. Like India the majority (~94%) of Nepal's rhinos occur in one population, in Chitwan National Park. There have been no rhino counts in Chitwan since 2015 and while deaths are recorded there is no standardised recording of births, so it is not possible to model a revised updated estimate. While numbers in Chitwan increased by ~4.7% per year from 2011-2015, natural mortalities have increased recently in this population with a minimum of 34 mortalities recorded in 2017 alone (a likely underestimate of true numbers). Thus, as in India, it appears that density dependence may be starting to impact on growth. Thirteen rhino have also been translocated out of this population. A conservative revised Chitwan estimate of 592 rhino (605 minus 13 translocations) assuming zero net population growth was used in compiling the revised national total in Table 7. Updated estimates are, however, available for other populations in Nepal: Bardia National Park has 37 rhino (up from 29 in 2015 following translocation of eight rhino); Suklaphanta National Park has 17 rhino (up from 8 in 2015 following translocation of five rhino); and Parsa National Park has three rhino. This gives a revised total estimate of 649 rhino in the country (five more than reported to CoP17).

The Javan rhino (*Rhinoceros sondaicus*), categorised as Critically Endangered (van Strien *et al.*, 2008a), only exists in a single population in Ujung Kulon National Park in west Java, Indonesia. As reported to CoP17, monitoring is improving with camera traps now covering the entire park. Park

authorities report that between 2016 and 2018, three Javan rhino were found dead with horn intact (presumed natural mortalities) but at least four calves were born in 2017 and three additional calves have been reported so far in 2018, giving a current total estimate of 65-68 individuals. This represents a small increase on the 2015 estimate of 63 individuals included in the CoP17 report. With all individuals in a single population, the species is particularly vulnerable to outbreaks of poaching, disease carried by domestic cattle, and potential natural disaster through volcanic activity ("Anak Krakatau" volcano is active immediately north of the park) or a major tsunami. Decades-old plans to establish a second population in Indonesia continue to show little progress. Strategically, a second population would not only reduce risk, but should promote breeding in the current population by freeing up food resources for remaining females, assuming a sufficient area of suitable and well-protected habitat.

The Sumatran rhino (*Dicerorhinus sumatrensis*), also categorized as Critically Endangered (van Strien *et al.*, 2008b), is now restricted to only four isolated sites in Indonesia in up to ten sub-populations. Some sub-populations are estimated to number between only two and five animals that are not likely to be viable in the long term. In addition to known populations in three National Parks in Sumatra, three rhinos survive in Kalimantan (Indonesian Borneo). No existing sub-population is thought to be greater than 30 individuals. In 2015, the minimum total number of Sumatran rhino was estimated at 73 individuals (Miller *et al.*, 2015), far fewer than previously thought. Monitoring effort has not been sufficient to obtain precise estimates of any of the populations on Sumatra. Recent ground information suggests the population in Bukit Barisan Selatan National Park could number between 4-15 individuals and in Way Kambas National Park between 15-30 individuals. Much uncertainty also exists around numbers in Gunung Leuser National Park due to its large area, undulating forested terrain, and patchy photo-trapping effort. Limited photo-trapping over the last seven years has recorded at least 18 different individuals, but it is thought there may be as many as 30 in this population. Despite a successful trial of intensive camera trapping in a study area in Gunung Leuser National Park a few years ago, which yielded high average sighting frequencies of individual rhino, this methodology has not been rolled out across all Sumatran rhino range areas at the scale needed to reliably assess numbers, distribution and population structure. Such monitoring data would not only help guide security needs assessments and patrol deployment, but would also enable more informed biological management decision-making and, over time, perhaps also help identify missing individuals. Improved monitoring data could help guide decision-making regarding the possible need to consolidate some very small outlier populations that may be non-viable if left alone (as Kenya successfully did in the 1980s). Field ranger densities also remain lower than minimum recommended levels in Africa and there are also significant infrastructure and equipment needs if protection is to be brought up to the necessary level. In addition to poaching, habitat conversion, invasive species and possible vegetation succession remain important threats to the survival of the Sumatran rhino. The seizure of three Sumatran rhino horns has been reported since 2014 (Table 8) and this only represents what has been detected. The need to significantly increase efforts to better monitor, secure and manage remaining wild populations is becoming ever more urgent if this species is to be saved from extinction.

3.2 Illegal killing

Available data indicate that poaching of the greater one-horned rhino has declined each year since 2013 (Figure 10). Only two out of 120 recorded deaths in Nepal from January 2011 to September 2018 were due to poaching⁴². Recorded poaching is not currently significant for this species and well below levels in Africa. Numbers of Javan and Sumatran rhino are, however, so low that sub-populations could be negatively impacted by even very low levels of poaching, so there remains a need to enhance law enforcement effort for these critically endangered and highly conservation-dependent species.

⁴² Correction from CoP17 report – the one rhino reported poached in Nepal in 2014 was in fact poached in 2012.

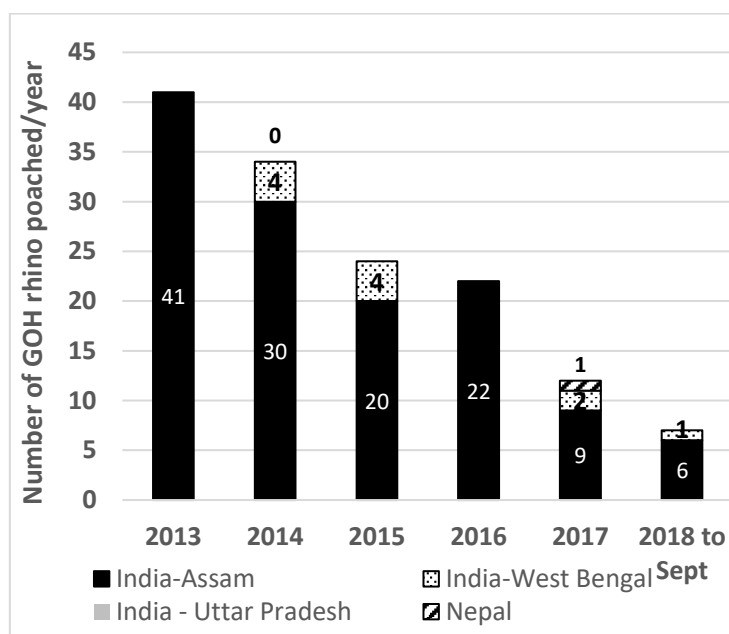


Figure 10: Poaching of greater one-horned rhino, 2013 – September 2018. (Based on AsRSG data.)

3.3 Trade

The continued decline in poaching of the greater one-horned rhino documented in Figure 10 reflects the success of enforcement agencies working on the ground. Although the two African rhino species account for the vast majority of the horns in current trade, horns from Asian rhino species are specifically identified in seizures on occasion. Table 8 presents available seizures data between 2009-2018, comprising a total of 117 greater one-horned rhino horns (although some of the horns in data reported by the Indian government are described as “suspected horns”⁴³), four Sumatran rhino horns and two Javan rhino horns seized in seven Asian countries.

While 86% of greater one-horned rhino horns were seized in the two main range States of this species, India and Nepal, 16 horns from this species were seized in transit or end-use market countries. While 75 horns were recovered from 2014-2018, only 99 greater one-horned rhino were reported poached during this period. Seizures of Sumatran rhino horns from 2009-2018 occurred in Indonesia (three horns) and China (one horn). Two Javan rhino horns were reportedly seized in China in 2009⁴⁴.

Table 8: Seizures of Asian rhino horns, 2009-2013 and 2014-2018. (Based on the TRAFFIC Rhino Horn Seizures Database.)

Country	2009 - 2013					2014 - 2018				
	No. of Seizures	Weight (kg)	Number of GOH Horns	Number of Javan Horns	Number of Sumatran Horns	No. of Seizures	Weight (kg)	Number of GOH Horns	Number of Javan Horns	Number of Sumatran Horns
China	5	3.70	3	2	1					
India	18	18.76	20			51	39.32	52		
Indonesia						3	0.81			3
Myanmar						1	3.05	4		
Nepal	15	15.49	18			10	9.16	11		
Taiwan (Province of China)	1	1.00	1							
Viet Nam						1	3	8		
TOTAL	39	38.95	42	2	1	66	55.34	75	0	3

Investigations being conducted by members of the AsRSG and NGOs working in South and Southeast Asia have increasingly indicated that Myanmar is a key transit country for horns of poached greater one horned rhino. Field investigations and intelligence from arrested poachers have revealed that rhino horn

⁴³ Many of the horns reported seized by police in Indian newspapers have turned out to be fake. The TRAFFIC Rhino Horn Seizures Database did not include newspaper reports of seizures in India.

⁴⁴ The species was reportedly identified by the Kunming Institute of Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences.

traders are using the Moreh-Tamu border to transport rhino horns from West Bengal and Assam via Mandalay in Myanmar (a known transit point of illegal wildlife products) before being moved on to China and other end-user countries. There is a need to improve monitoring and build capacity among the relevant authorities in India and Myanmar to address the illegal movement of rhino horns and other wildlife products between the two countries.

3.4 Horn stocks and stock management

Pursuant to CITES Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), Asian countries (Japan, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Thailand and Viet Nam) reported horn stockpiles totaling 1.04 tonnes of horn to the CITES Secretariat (some of which will comprise African horns), with Indonesia reporting two horns. In Viet Nam, Customs officers were prosecuted for stealing 6.1 kg of rhino horn, together with elephant ivory, from a government stockpile in 2017 (Anon., 2017). Once again neither Nepal nor India reported horn stockpiles to CITES. In Assam, which is estimated to manage about 90% of India's rhino horn stockpiles, a verification audit of rhino horn stockpiles was however initiated in 2016. The committee responsible verified around 2,020 rhino horns within Assam government treasuries, cross-referencing horns against data recorded by various Forest Divisions in the field at the time of acquiring the horn. However, it is estimated that there may be another 150-200 rhino horns in Assam which are being kept in different forest divisions and have not yet been deposited in government treasuries due to lack of space. West Bengal and Uttar Pradesh have not reported on their rhino horn stocks to CITES through the Indian Government. As in Africa, a lack of regular auditing and reporting of all stockpiles opens up opportunities for theft and possible leakage of horn onto international markets. Nepal and India are therefore encouraged to report their stocks to CITES.

3.5 Conservation actions and management strategies

As in Africa, the greatest rhino conservation successes in Asia continue to occur where there has been significant political will backed by active resourcing of sites, combined with dedicated staff commitment to effective action in the field.

In 2017, Nepal revised and updated its national Conservation Action Plan for the period 2017-2021. India still lacks a national rhino strategy, with conservation currently coordinated at the state level in Assam, West Bengal and Uttar Pradesh. Indonesia developed action plans for both Javan and Sumatran rhinos covering a 10-year period from 2007, which have now expired. Population Viability Assessments (PVAs) were also conducted for Sumatran and Javan rhino in 2015 (Miller *et al.*, 2015; Haryono *et al.*, 2016).

In contrast to India, Nepal and some African range States, where staffing densities, expenditure and political will are comparatively high, in Indonesia there remains limited government support and funding for protection, monitoring and biological management of free-ranging wild rhino populations. Indonesia is preparing an Emergency Action Plan for the next three years, and the PVA represents an important step. However, Sumatran rhino conservation continues to face great challenges from the low densities of anti-poaching field rangers (well below recommended minimum densities in Africa) to insufficient budgets allocated for protection and monitoring. Improving knowledge of the current status of this species in the wild remains a priority to determine security needs and better inform biological management decision-making. On World Rhino Day on 22nd September 2018, IUCN/SSC announced the launch of a Sumatran rhino rescue project in partnership with the International Rhino Foundation, WWF, Global Wildlife Conservation, National Geographic and the Indonesian Government. The project will establish two new intensive semi-captive breeding facilities that will aim to breed animals from currently small and isolated sub-populations in Kalimantan and Bukit Barisan Selatan National Parks in the hope of expanding these populations. The existing breeding facility in Way Kambas National Park was also recently expanded.

For Javan rhino, the immediate priority is to increase numbers in the wild through improved biological management and the creation of a second population in suitable habitat; goals identified through the PVA workshop included securing three well-managed sites for *in situ* populations to ensure an increase to at least 150 animals by 2040.

3.6 Enforcement issues

3.6.1 Security and law enforcement strategies

India and Nepal's anti-poaching efforts in the field and intelligence-based investigations continue to be critical in combatting poaching of greater one-horned rhino. In July 2018, the Chief Minister of Assam province in India appointed 90 youths from local communities surrounding Kaziranga National Park as constables to form a Special Rhino Protection Force that will help to protect rhinos in Kaziranga, Orang and Manas National Parks.

3.6.2 Legislation and prosecutions

In India and Nepal, jail terms under national wildlife legislation are generally severe. Although fines in both countries remain extremely low compared to the value of horns in illegal trade, in most cases fines continue to be given in addition to a jail term and not as an alternative. In Assam, the 12 district courts established in November 2016 by the Gauhati High Court are now fast-tracking judicial proceedings for all wildlife-related cases, with several cases already in the courts. Penalties for killing a rhino in Assam include a minimum seven years' imprisonment with Rs75,000 fine (~US\$1,062). If an offender is convicted of rhino poaching on more than two occasions, the offender can receive a sentence from 14 years to life imprisonment. For example, in January 2017, the Golaghat Court in Assam sentenced a poacher for killing a rhino in Kaziranga to seven years' imprisonment and a fine of Rs50,000 (~US\$708). In Nepal, the minimum sentence is five years' imprisonment and the maximum up to 15 years with a minimum fine of around US\$50.

4. Measures implemented by implicated States to end illegal use and consumption

Legislation in **China** is well developed and penalties for minor offenses include up to five years' imprisonment, criminal detention and a fine, whilst major offenses can result in a life sentence, property confiscation and suspension of political rights. The severity of the crime and corresponding sentences for those convicted are determined by the economic values of the products or animals being illegally traded. A distinction is also made between cross-border smuggling and internal illegal sale, purchase and transport of horn. In determining the value of each crime, a flat price of RMB250,000 (~US\$39,396) is used for each horn, with a fixed value of RMB1m (~US\$145,583) for each white rhino involved and RMB2m (~US\$291,168) for each animal of any other rhino species⁴⁵.

There have been a number of successful prosecutions for rhino crimes in China. According to a Government website that lists court verdicts⁴⁶, 88 cases involving rhino horn or horn products were finalized between June 2013 and April 2017, with 131 offenders convicted and sentenced over a 46-month period (Wang 2018). Sentences on average were heavier for international cross-border smuggling than for internal trafficking and illegal trade, as generally these cases involved greater quantities of horn (Wang 2018). All 131 offenders convicted received either fixed-term imprisonment or criminal detention totaling 689 years (average 5 years 4 months). However, 43 of the offenders were put on probation, with sentences postponed subject to a judge's assessment after probation (where those convicted are institutionalized in a correctional programme and required to undertake community service for a stipulated time). Assets were also forfeited by 13 of those convicted of cross-border horn smuggling. One had all assets seized, while the remainder had property totaling RMB3.41m (~US\$496,400) confiscated. Ninety per cent of those convicted also received fines, totaling RMB5.502m (~USD801,001, range RMB2,000 to 500,000 or ~US\$291 to 72,792). Eight of those convicted were also deprived of political rights for one to three years. In one case, the seller of only a single 4g bead made of rhino horn was sentenced to four months' imprisonment with probation of six months and a fine of RMB3,000 (~US\$437), while the purchaser was sentenced to four months in criminal detention and a fine of RMB5,000 (~US\$728).

China also reported to SC70 (SC70 Doc. 56 Annex 2) on several measures it was taking to address rhino horn trafficking. The country has participated in a number of international operations targeting illegal wildlife trade, including most recently the INTERPOL operations Thunderbird (2017) and Spring Thunder (2018). The country has also undertaken internal operations to combat wildlife trafficking which have resulted in rhino horn seizures. China also reported that it cooperates closely on efforts to combat rhino trafficking via MOU's with several countries, and has improved international exchange of

⁴⁵ With the proviso that the accumulated values of parts from one rhino will not exceed the economic value of the whole animal.

⁴⁶ <http://wenshu.court.gov.cn>.

information and intelligence. China's industry and commerce departments have regularly policed tourist souvenir and antique sales and online auctions, with information being passed onto law enforcement authorities for further action as required. Customs authorities have also prioritized the detection of rhino products, using X-ray and CT scanners and sniffer dogs to check containers, vehicles and luggage. Chinese criminal law allows for this use of specialized investigation techniques such as controlled deliveries and covert investigations to detect wildlife trafficking.

China has also conducted public education efforts to raise awareness of illegal trade in rhino horn, with public service advertisements on mass media and social media, sign boards, posters and brochures, as well as displays at airports and important land and sea border points. However, while knowledge and awareness are prerequisites to change behaviour, they are not necessarily sufficient on their own. Experience suggests that behaviour change rarely occurs as a result of public service ads alone, and that campaigns often need to be implemented in conjunction with other influencing strategies to effect behaviour change (Bada and Sasse, 2014). News of seizures and subsequent prosecutions and sentences are being reported in the mass media in the hope that these will act as a deterrent. China also reported a range of educational efforts focused on Chinese nationals in Africa, including SMS messages sent by the three main Chinese communication service providers to every Chinese national arriving in a foreign country warning not to buy, carry or ship endangered wildlife and particularly rhino horn and ivory. The effectiveness of these measures appears to be limited given the increasing numbers of Chinese nationals being arrested abroad (Figure 6), and a recent study by GlobeScan for USAID which found that the typical rhino horn/ivory buyer in China is someone who has travelled abroad, purchased the product and brought it home⁴⁷ (Figure 11; USAID Wildlife Asia 2018).

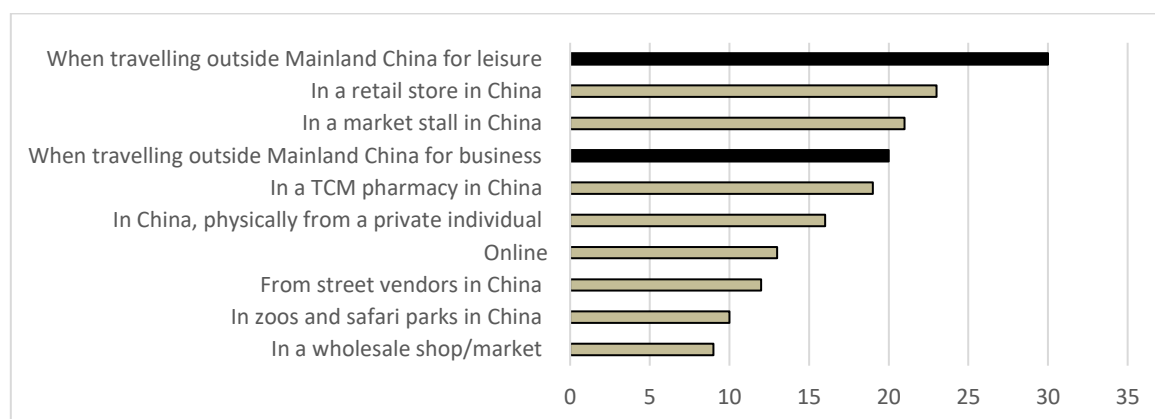
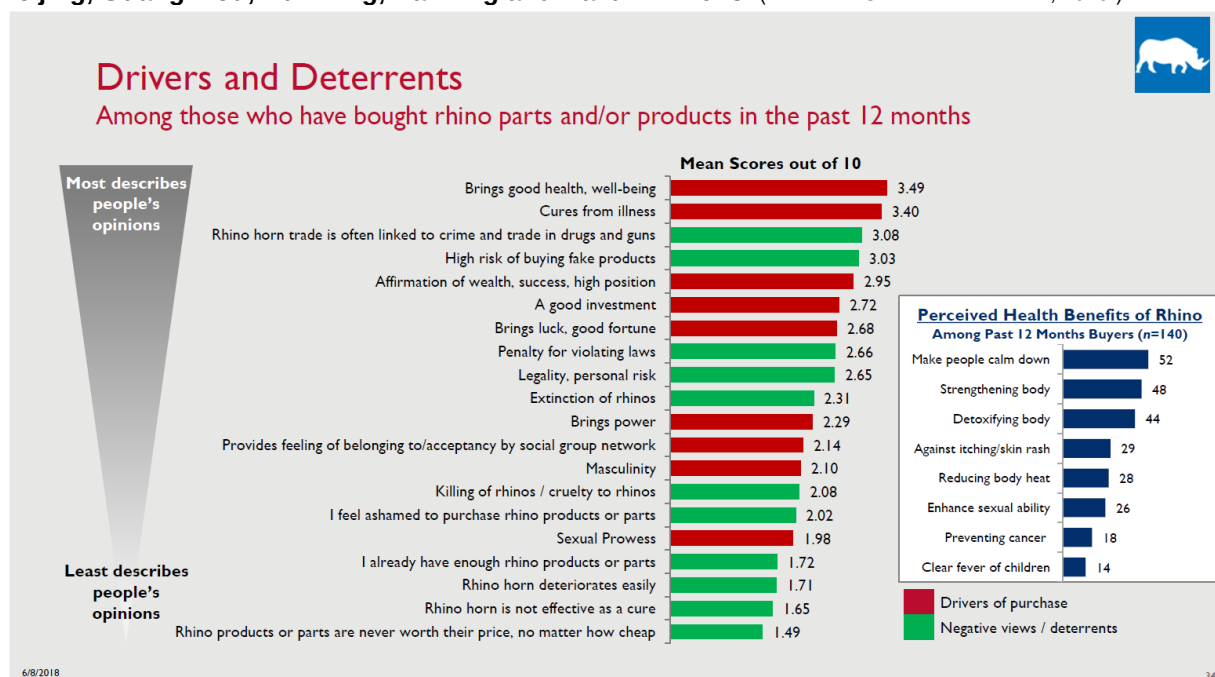


Figure 11: Main purchase channels of rhino horn for Chinese nationals based on a survey of 173 buyers. (Based on USAID Wildlife Asia 2018.)

A quantitative online survey assessing consumer demand for elephant, pangolin, rhino and tiger products in China was conducted in February-March 2018 among 1,800 self-reported buyers in six urban centres: Shanghai, Beijing, Guangzhou, Kunming, Nanning and Harbin (USAID Wildlife Asia, 2018). The timing of the surveys coincided with China's Lunar New Year gifting season when the purchase of high-value gifts such as rhino horn is likely to occur. The study revealed that 16% of the survey sample reported purchasing rhino horn, with 8% claiming to have done so within the previous 12 months. More than one-fifth of those reporting past purchase claimed to have done so as a gift. More than three-quarters (77%) of rhino horn buyers in the past 12 months indicated they were likely to purchase again in the future. Across the survey sample, around one-third believed cow/ox and buffalo horn were acceptable alternatives to rhino horn, while 31% indicated synthetic alternatives, which resembled rhino horn aesthetically, might replace it for the purpose of decoration. Comparing the drivers and deterrents reported in this study (Figure 12) with those presented in Kennaugh (2016), the survey found some shift towards viewing rhino horn as medicine as it 'brings good health, well-being' and 'cures from illness', surpassing more status-related motivations such as 'affirmation of wealth, success and high position' and 'a good investment' (USAID Wildlife Asia, 2018).

⁴⁷ A 2018 USAID study found that 50 out of 173 respondents from China who indicated they had bought rhino horn obtained it when travelling outside China for leisure (30 respondents) or business (20 respondents).

Figure 12: Drivers and deterrents behind Chinese consumer demand for rhino horn in Shanghai, Beijing, Guangzhou, Kunming, Nanning and Harbin in 2018. (Based on USAID Wildlife Asia, 2018.)



All online trade in rhino products is currently illegal in China, even items that would otherwise qualify for specific exemptions under Chinese law. TRAFFIC's long-term monitoring programme of 31 website platforms that frequently offer endangered species products for sale has allowed monthly tracking of the number of new advertisements for a range of endangered species, including rhino. Whilst the annual number of new rhino product advertisements per month more than halved from an average of 96 per month in 2016 to 42 per month in 2017, a major resurgent trade has since been noted over the first six months of 2018: through June 2018, the monthly average of new rhino product advertisements increased 6.7 times to 283 per month (TRAFFIC unpublished data). This dramatic increase has occurred in conjunction with China's full closure of its legal ivory market, which has resulted in the offering of ivory products through these website platforms to plummet to record lows. Since then, following interventions with the offending website managers, the number of rhino product solicitations has dropped to only 34 across the 31 websites monitored in October 2018 (TRAFFIC unpublished data).

An Internet Enterprise Coalition against Cyberspace Illegal Wildlife Trade, involving the three biggest internet service providers in China, was launched in November 2017. In March 2018, Chinese coalition members joined forces with Google, Facebook and six other international companies to form an international coalition aiming to reduce illegal wildlife trade on internet platforms by 80% by 2020. However, criminals may simply migrate to the Dark Web or other encrypted member-only sites.

Viet Nam also reported to SC70 on the implementation of its NIRAP (SC70 Doc. 56 Annex 19). The country's CITES Management Authority cooperated with United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) to organise three training courses for 190 law enforcement personnel including police and customs officials. The course included the application of the penal code in relation to wildlife trade, identification of rhino horn and undertaking investigations. Viet Nam's environmental police department conducted two operations that resulted in the seizure of 20.5kg of rhino horn and arrest of two traffickers in Lao Cai in transit to the Chinese border.

A revised Penal Code governing trade in rhino horn and elephant ivory in Viet Nam took effect on 1 January 2018 with the objective of treating trafficking crimes as serious offences. Now the maximum penalty is up to 15 years imprisonment or a fine of VND2 billion (~US\$86,500) for individuals who are convicted of rhino horn trafficking, whilst corporate entities face fines of up to VND15 billion (~US\$651,000) or the suspension of operations for up to three years. Whilst this is clearly a step forward, exemptions still remain if the amount of rhino horn is less than 50 grams. This loophole is an issue of contention as most consumers of rhino horn products such as beads, bracelets, pendants or medicinal powders would qualify for this exemption. Further, under current Vietnamese law, illegal

advertisements offering rhino horn for sale through online channels are only regarded as administrative violations subject to fines of up to VND100 million (~US\$4,300). A criminal prosecution of an offer for sale can also only take place if a suspect is caught in possession of a rhino horn. This allowance constitutes another serious loophole as the rhino horn trade progressively retreats from physical markets into the safer confines of internet and social media advertising. Indeed, there have been very few convictions for serious wildlife crime in Viet Nam and the sentences handed out to date have primarily been limited to fines and not imprisonment. Closely monitoring the situation in Viet Nam, as one of the two most important markets for rhino horn, is of critical importance to ensure that the full extent of the revised Penal Code is effectively used to deter rhino horn trafficking and retail sales in the country. Viet Nam is due to submit a full progress report to the Secretariat by 31 January 2019 on the implementation of the Penal Code.

In a quantitative study of 1,400 Vietnamese nationals in 2018, 11% of respondents indicated they had 'ever' consumed rhino horn, with 6% indicating this was within the past 12 months (GlobeScan, 2018). 23% of recent buyers bought at least once a month, suggesting that rhino horn consumption is a more habitual behaviour and consequently more difficult to change. The main deterrents to consumption among recent buyers were the endangered status of rhinos (76%), heavy penalties for buyers (73%) and animal cruelty (71%). However, a disconnect was evident with focus group respondents reporting awareness of animal cruelty images and messaging around extinction threats, but that it did not affect their future purchase intentions. They reasoned that they were not the ones killing the animals and justified their purchase by perceiving it to be a by-product. Legal deterrents were not considered to be effective due to a perception of poor implementation combined with minor penalties. Only 41% of recent rhino horn buyers were aware of the revised Penal Code, which was lower than those consuming elephant or pangolin products. Drivers for purchase included to give a gift, in particular in formal and important (business) relationships. The use of powdered horn continued to be in order to cure a hangover and improve sexual performance. The most important attributes driving purchase by recent buyers were that rhino horn was '*worth the price however expensive*' and to demonstrate wealth, power and social status.

Using choice modelling, Hanley *et al.*, (2017) explored willingness to pay for rhino horn among existing and potential future consumers in Viet Nam and found that wild-sourced horn, harvested humanely from the least rare species, is the most highly valued product. Furthermore, they report that consumers were willing to pay less for rhino horn products under a scenario where international trade was legalized compared to the current situation of illegal trade, although they caution their sample may not have been representative of the potential wider population of buyers. However, a much broader study of 310 rhino horn buyers, users or 'intenders' to buy or use in five Vietnamese cities, found that 46% of the respondents expected to pay more for rhino horn emanating from legal trade and only 17% suggested it would be cheaper. Conversely, 50% expected to pay less for rhino horn from illegal trade, whilst only 12% thought it would be more expensive (GlobeScan, 2018).

5: Challenges and suggested best practices for reducing poaching and trafficking

With reference to the recommendation from SC70 to explore options to reflect on challenges and best practices for addressing rhinoceros poaching and rhinoceros horn trafficking, we have briefly listed here some key challenges and suggested best practices. We suggest a focus on best practices in the widest sense of reducing impact of poaching and trafficking on rhino numbers, and this includes facilitating the growing of rhino numbers as fast as possible to offset these impacts.

- A major challenge identified by a number of range States, as previously discussed, is the granting of bail to repeat offenders and flight risks. Another major challenge is continued low and slow conversion rate of arrests to successful convictions with deterrent sentencing. More formal monitoring of court cases may help quantify and draw attention to this issue, with civil society also playing an important role. Greater use of INTERPOL Red Notices may assist in international efforts to bring offenders to trial.
- In some countries, backlogs and delays in obtaining forensic reports remains an issue, as well as the slow speed of DNA analysis and reporting of results. Again, a more formal process for tracking the progress of arrests through to court and reasons for case postponements may assist.
- Most arrests are of lower level poachers and couriers, and the challenge is how to successfully investigate and prosecute those higher in the criminal pyramid, especially when they may live in different countries. Whenever possible cases should be recognised as serious organised

crimes and coordination between different government agencies improved, with police departments playing a key role. Intelligence-sharing both nationally and internationally is key but presents another significant challenge. Greater sharing of intelligence and samples through use of the CITES rhino seizure form referenced in Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), as well as increased use of platforms such as TWIX, could assist.

- Another identified problem is that rhino horn seizures are often treated as the end of an investigation, with disregard for possible beneficial intelligence flow. Again, greater use of the CITES seizure form and submission of horn samples or extracted DNA to SAPS-FSL for RhODIS analysis could help range States with their investigations and efforts to combat organised crime, noting that funding is likely to be required to assist efforts to facilitate roll-out of RhODIS-compatible DNA analyses to other labs around the world. Seized horn may also provide investigators with opportunities to gain further intelligence by following what happens to horns if released (controlled deliveries).
- There have been calls by ICCWC partners and the Asset Recovery Institute of Southern Africa to “follow the money” and use asset forfeiture approaches to recover criminal revenues. The challenge is to develop financial investigation skills and an enabling legislation to catalyse expansion of such approaches.
- Internal corruption and staff involvement in poaching, or provision of information to poachers, continues to be a challenge. Attempts to corrupt court processes can also occur. A more formalised court system where all cases and outcomes are closely monitored, as previously mentioned, would help to address this issue.
- There is a danger of paralysis of decision makers following rhino losses in a small number of recent high-profile translocation exercises. It is critically important to keep translocating surplus rhinos to maintain productivity of established populations (and hence maximise offset against any poaching). There is strong evidence that without translocations, certain populations (such as the largest populations of greater one-horned rhino) would eventually cease to grow due to density dependence. Translocation has been central to growing rhino numbers and range rapidly. Overzealous veterinary restrictions on translocations also pose an important threat to effective biological management of some key populations. Solutions include the development of improved Standard Operating Procedures for translocations and expert evaluation of and learning from any losses that occur.
- The main approach advocated by the international community in recent years has been to increase law enforcement effort and to support demand reduction efforts that seek to change behaviour of consumers in end-user countries. The recent surveys referenced in the previous section in both Viet Nam and China indicate a willingness of many existing buyers to continue to buy horn, suggesting new behaviour change interventions will need to focus carefully on these particular buyers.
- The difficulty of sustainably funding the very high costs of rhino conservation in some areas is a major and increasing problem. Increasing costs and risks and declining incentives pose a threat to the continued successful conservation effort being made by many private owners and custodians.
- Another challenge identified in Africa is the need to create alternative livelihood opportunities for communities, which are often the source of poachers. This is difficult in the current environment where financial returns and incentives are limited and costs and risks are high. In the absence of such progress, the potential negative impacts of paramilitary law enforcement on attitudes of neighbouring communities to conservation efforts poses another important challenge and longer-term threat to conservation.
- The issue of inadequate securing, monitoring and reporting of rhino horn stocks by certain countries has also been identified as a challenge, as this may create opportunities for corrupt officials to launder horn. Transparent, long-term rhino horn stock management systems spanning rhino horn trade chains from producers to end-use destinations would assist in preventing leakage of horn onto illegal markets.
- Field ranger densities, monitoring effort and expenditure in the remaining Sumatran rhino range remains relatively low compared with what would be considered appropriate minimums for informing management decision-making and successfully protecting and growing rhino populations. In Africa, co-management or contractual management has boosted rhino

conservation in some State reserves and may be an option to consider, although this may require legislative changes in certain range States. The proposed increase in more intensive semi-captive efforts to breed Sumatran rhinos also needs to be done in such a way as to not detract from wild conservation efforts or negatively affect population viability. It is important that habitat in Kalimantan and Bukit Barisan Selatan is protected and conserved so that animals can be released back into these areas if successfully bred in the new semi-captive facilities.

- While currently well protected and monitored, the persistence of Javan rhino in only one population remains a significant risk to the survival of this species, and steps to establish new populations are encouraged.

6. Conclusions

Average rhino poaching in Africa has remained at high levels, with an average of just over three rhino poached per day in 2017. Nevertheless, the latest information available indicates some limited progress in reducing poaching in both Africa and Asia. The use of innovative technology as a “force multiplier” appears to be assisting law enforcement efforts, and the estimated quantity of horn reaching end-user markets in Southeast Asia has declined slightly for the first time since CoP14.

White rhino have, however, been badly affected by a recent severe drought in parts of southern Africa, especially in the largest white rhino population in Kruger National Park. In response to both poaching and drought, white rhino numbers have been in decline since 2012. At the time of writing, another possible drought threatens any recovery in this population. Private owners are playing an increasingly important role in conserving this species, but limited and reducing incentives and increasing costs and risks pose a threat to the continued growth of rhino numbers on private land. By contrast, black rhino numbers have continued to increase, although poaching has slowed growth rates.

In India and Nepal, poaching rates of greater one-horned rhino have declined markedly and seizure rates appear high. The greatest constraint to growing numbers of greater one-horned rhino is density dependence, coupled with a lack of additional secure areas in which to establish new populations. The continued lack of regular reporting of horn stocks to CITES by range States remains a concern, although a thorough audit of stocks has recently been undertaken in Assam. Javan rhino numbers are likely to have increased slightly but remain at very low numbers. It is still a strategic concern that the establishment of a second wild population of this species within Indonesia has not been progressed as hoped. The Sumatran rhino continues to be the most threatened rhino species. There remains an urgent need to more accurately determine numbers and distribution of Sumatran rhino in the three main populations to inform management and protection, as well as boost law enforcement effort at least to levels considered the minimum desirable in Africa. Additional planned efforts to expand intensive breeding efforts should also be done in such a way as not to detrimentally affect or draw attention away from efforts needed to boost wild rhino monitoring, protection, and biological management.

As in reports presented to previous CoPs, and despite progress on a number of fronts since CoP17, China (including Hong Kong SAR), Mozambique, South Africa, and Viet Nam continue to be the most affected source, transit and destination countries for African rhino horn, recorded in over two-thirds of reported seizures. These four countries remain priorities for actions to successfully curb the illegal rhino horn trade. Enforcement action in Viet Nam appears more limited thus far and reporting by the country on implementation of its new Penal Code in January 2019 is awaited with interest. The role of Myanmar as a potentially key transit country for Asian rhino horn may also merit further investigation.

There have been a number of successful prosecutions with deterrent sentences in many countries. Use of asset forfeiture, charging accused under multiple acts, and where possible treating offences as organised crime have assisted in increasing penalties. However, the granting of bail to serious offenders and flight risks, as well as low and slow conversion rates of arrests to prosecutions, remain important challenges. DNA forensic evidence is playing an increasingly valuable role and it is important that enforcement authorities do not see seizures simply as an end, but use all opportunities to further knowledge of the entire criminal supply chain and assist law enforcement efforts in range States by providing samples and intelligence information on seizures, and where possible releasing and following seized horns in a controlled manner. Taking action to address corruption and internal involvement in rhino crimes also remains essential to the success of law enforcement efforts.

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Annexure 1. Trade in African rhino horn trophies recorded in the CITES Trade Database.

Table A1: Direct exports of white rhino horn trophies* from South Africa reported by South Africa and by importing countries, 2013-2016 (based on data included in the CITES Trade Database***).**

Importer#	2013		2014		2015		2016		Total		
	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Balance between reported exports and imports
Russia	56		46		22		20	X	144		144
United States	54	40	170	64	131	134	88	68	443	306	137
China			14	12	43	6	58	24	115	42	73
Canada	11		2		16		18		47		47
Poland▲	32	22	35	24	12	4	6	4	85	54	31
Denmark	4	2	12		10	4	2		28	6	22
Slovakia▲	26	20	18	6	4	6	8	4	56	36	20
Spain	10	6	16	10	7		4	2	37	18	19
Kuwait							2	20	2	20	(-18)
Hungary	4		10		4		2	4	20	4	16
Ukraine	10	2	28	21	14	8	12	18	64	49	15
Germany	18	8	4		6	4	2	4	30	16	14
Sweden	8	20							8	20	(-12)
Viet Nam▲		12								12	(-12)
Italy	6		4						10		10
Lebanon	4	N/A	6						10		10
Czech Republic▲	14	6	2	2					16	8	8
France	2		6	18	2				10	18	(-8)
Australia					2		2		4		4
Kazakhstan			6	X	2			4	8	4	4
Mexico			4		4	4	2	2	10	6	4
Switzerland					2		2		4		4
United Kingdom			2		2		2	2	6	2	4
Hong Kong SAR		4								4	(-4)
Estonia							4	2	4	2	2
Gambia	2	X						X	2		2
Luxembourg	2								2		2
Panama					4	2			4	2	2
Zimbabwe			2						2		2
Belgium	2	2	4		2	10	7	5	15	17	(-2)
Philippines					2	4			2	4	(-2)

Romania							2		2	(-2)	
Austria	2	2	10	2	2	6	2	6	16	16	0
Singapore					4			4	4	4	0
Total	267	146	401	159	297	192	243	175	1208	672	536

*Includes trade reported as "horns" or "trophies" ("trophies" were converted to horns using a conversion factor of 2 horns per trophy), with purpose code "H" (hunting trophy), "P" (personal) or "T" (commercial). Trade reported with source code "I" (seized/confiscated) or "O" (pre-Convention) was excluded.

**In the columns "Reported by importer", X = annual report not received from the country, N/A = First year in which CITES came into force in the country so annual report not required.

***CITES Trade Database (trade.cites.org) managed by the UN Environment World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC) on behalf of the CITES Secretariat. Data obtained on 22 November 2018 in consultation with UNEP-WCMC.

#For the importing country concerned, ▲ = incidences of pseudo-hunting have been confirmed (investigations have concluded that imported sport hunted trophies have gone into illegal trade).

Table A2: Direct exports of white rhino horn trophies* from Namibia reported by Namibia and by importing countries, 2013-2016 (based on data included in the CITES Trade Database***).**

Importer	2013		2014		2015		2016		Total		
	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Balance between reported exports and imports
United States	8	4			4	2	2	4	14	10	4
Russia					4	6	4	X	8	6	2
Austria			2	1	4	4			6	5	1
Germany					2			2	2	2	0
Denmark	2	2							2	2	0
Hungary			2	2					2	2	0
South Africa					2	2			2	2	0
Total	10	6	4	3	16	14	6	6	36	29	7

*Includes trade reported as "horns" or "trophies" ("trophies" were converted to horns using a conversion factor of 2 horns per trophy), with purpose code "H" (hunting trophy), "P" (personal) or "T" (commercial). Trade reported with source code "I" (seized/confiscated) or "O" (pre-Convention) was excluded.

**In the columns "Reported by importer", X = annual report not received from the country.

***CITES Trade Database (trade.cites.org) managed by the UN Environment World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC) on behalf of the CITES Secretariat. Data obtained on 22 November 2018 in consultation with UNEP-WCMC.

Table A3: Direct exports of black rhino horn trophies* from South Africa reported by South Africa and by importing countries, 2013-2016 (based on data included in the CITES Trade Database***).**

Importer	2013		2014		2015		2016		Total		
	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Reported by South Africa	Reported by importer	Balance between reported exports and imports
Malaysia	1		2		3	20	4		10	20	-10
France			4		4	2			8	2	6
Mexico		6								6	-6
China							4		4		4
Germany	2	2			1	2	4		7	4	3
Poland		2								2	-2
Total	3	10	6		8	24	12		29	34	-5

*Includes trade reported as "horns" or "trophies" ("trophies" were converted to horns using a conversion factor of 2 horns per trophy), with purpose code "H" (hunting trophy), "P" (personal) or "T" (commercial). Trade reported with source code "I" (seized/confiscated) or "O" (pre-Convention) was excluded.

**Annual reports have been received from all importing countries for the period 2013-2016.

***CITES Trade Database (trade.cites.org) managed by the UN Environment World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC) on behalf of the CITES Secretariat. Data obtained on 22 November 2018 in consultation with UNEP-WCMC.

Table A4: Direct exports of black rhino horn trophies* from Namibia reported by Namibia and by importing countries, 2013-2015 (based on data included in the CITES Trade Database***). No trade was reported in 2016.**

Importer	2013		2014		2015		Total		
	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Reported by Namibia	Reported by importer	Balance between reported exports and imports
South Africa		2						2	-2
Spain			2			2	2	2	0
United States	2	2			6	6	8	8	0
Total	2	4	2		6	8	10	12	-2

*Includes trade reported as "horns" or "trophies" ("trophies" were converted to horns using a conversion factor of 2 horns per trophy), with purpose code "H" (hunting trophy), "P" (personal) or "T" (commercial). Trade reported with source code "I" (seized/confiscated) or "O" (pre-Convention) was excluded.

**Annual reports have been received from all importing countries for the period 2013-2016.

***CITES Trade Database (trade.cites.org) managed by the UN Environment World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC) on behalf of the CITES Secretariat. Data obtained on 22 November 2018 in consultation with UNEP-WCMC.

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The following information is provided in pursuant to the recommendations listed in paragraph 90 in SC70 Doc.56. The texts in black bold come from the documents.

91. The Working Group considers that China and Namibia identified as countries for consideration of Priority concern, should continue to be identified in that way as the information they have supplied indicates that some work is required in the following areas:

China:

– China is encouraged to develop bilateral relationships with Mozambique and Zimbabwe so that they can work collaboratively with all Parties identified as priority countries in CoP17 Doc. 68 Annex 5.

China is actively forging bilateral relationships with Mozambique and Zimbabwe to promote cooperation on public education, wildlife conservation and fighting against illegal wildlife trade in rhino horns.

In 2014, China began to conduct a series of outreach campaigns in African countries where illegal wildlife trade is identified as a problem of concern. The purpose of this program is to combat illegal wildlife trade by enhanced communication and exchange with local wildlife and CITES authorities, and equally important to raise awareness of the detrimental impacts of illegal wildlife trade among Chinese companies and Chinese overseas in African country and to solicit their support and participation in fighting against illegal wildlife trade.

An out-reach campaign was organized in Maputo, Mozambique on April 12, 2016. Lecturers from State Forestry Administration, General Administration of Customs, and Forests Police of China introduced the status of illegal wildlife trade in Africa, the enforcement measures taken by Chinese government in fighting against illegal wildlife trade, and called upon the Chinese companies and overseas Chinese communities to participate in the efforts to curb wildlife crimes.

Two day later, the Chinese officials met officials from Mozambique National Parks CITES management authority, customs, Ministry of Justice, and Environmental Police Department to step up cooperation on fighting transnational wildlife crime. Both sides agreed to strike further cooperation in three major areas: multilateral and bilateral exchange of information, capacity building and public awareness. The governments of China and Mozambique pledged to work together to reduce to the maximal extent illegal wildlife trade and promote environmental production and sustainable development by increased communications and the establishment of long-term mechanism.

A Chinese team led by Mr. Yongli Zhang, the Deputy Minister of State Forestry

Administration of China organized a high-level outreach campaign on conservation of endangered species and CITES implementation in Harare, Zimbabwe on June 11, 2017. Officials from China CITES Management Authority introduced amendment to relevant legislation and regulations within CITES framework, implementation and enforcement of CITES in China, and in specific, administration of ban on domestic trade in ivory and its repercussions. It was attended by nearly 100 participants from Chinese companies, chamber of commerce, representative of overseas Chinese, representative of Zimbabwe Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate, and Chinese and local media reporters. At the event a letter of appeal calling for Zero Tolerance to illegal ivory trade was adopted.

In the following day, Mr. Zhang and his Zimbabwe counterpart from Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate met to discuss bilateral cooperation and reached an agreement, among other things, to work together on wildlife conservation and CITES implementation.

Back In December 2015, China donated an array of equipment and facilities to support wildlife conservation and anti-poaching efforts in Zimbabwe. The list included vehicles (4WD, pickups, truckers, road grader, tractors), walkie-talkies, mobile solar batteries, backpacks, sleeping bags, outwears, tents, binoculars, portable GPS, diesel engines, and water pumps, with a total worth of \$2.3 million.

Non-governmental cooperation is also actively encouraged. In September 2015, China-Zimbabwe Wildlife Foundation was established to support wildlife conservation and anti-poaching in Zimbabwe, which received donations of nearly \$500,000 from Chinese companies operating in that country. In addition, Chinese volunteers are playing an increasing role in anti-poaching activities in Zimbabwe since 2015.

– China is encouraged to report details of any prosecutions initiated since October 2016.

There is no official statistics on the number of on-going prosecutions of wildlife trafficking cases. Furthermore such information is sensitive and its premature disclosure might jeopardize the on-going legal process. As a rule, information can be solicited from two sources: seizures records from customs and court rulings.

According to the statistics of the customs, Chinese made 3 seizures of rhino horn products, resulting in 2 whole rhino horns and 39 pieces of rhino horn. All the rhino horns came from Africa and were intercepted in passenger luggages at airport.

There have been a number of successful prosecutions for rhino crimes in China. A summary of a Government website that lists court verdicts (<http://wenshu.court.gov.cn>) indicates that over a 46 month period (June 15 2013 – April 12 2017) 88 cases involving rhino horn or products were finalized with 131

convicted and sentenced. Sentences on average were heavier for international cross-border smuggling than for internal trafficking and illegal trade, as generally these cases involve greater quantities of horn (Wang 2018). All 131 convicted during the period received either fixed term imprisonment or criminal detention totaling 689 years and 1 month (average of 5 years 4 months). 43 were however put on probation with sentences postponed subject to a judge's assessment after stipulated periods of probation (where those convicted they have to do community service or be institutionalized in a correctional program for a stipulated time). Assets were also forfeited by 13 of those convicted of cross-border smuggling of horn. One had all assets seized, while another 12 had property worth a total of RMB 3.41m (\$496,400) confiscated. 90% of those convicted also received fines totaling RMB5.502m (\$801,001) ranging from RMB 2,000 to 500,000 (\$291 to \$72,792). Eight of those convicted were also deprived of political rights for one to three years.

– China is encouraged to fully report incidents of illegal trade in rhinoceros horn as part of their annual illegal wildlife trade report.

The report has been submitted.

– China is requested to clarify information about tourists who smuggle endangered wildlife products into China. In its voluntary report China stated that it does not bring criminal charges against tourists who import souvenirs of endangered wildlife products into the country worth less than RMB100,000, yet later in the document says it brings criminal charges against tourists who carry any rhinoceros horn products as personal effects regardless of the size of the products.

According to China's Criminal Law, wildlife trafficking cases are punished by the level of its seriousness, which is gauged by the economic value of the contraband involved.

	Minor circumstances	Serious circumstances	Extremely serious circumstances
smuggling	<5 year imprisonment, with a concomitant fine	5-10 years imprisonment, with a concomitant fine	>10-year imprisonment up to life sentence in prison and concomitant forfeiture of property
Illegal sell, purchase and transport of endangered wild animals	<5 year in imprisonment, criminal detention, and a concomitant fine	5-10 years imprisonment, with a concomitant fine	>10 year imprisonment, with concomitant fine or forfeiture of property.

To provide quantitative criteria, a regulation in 2001 formulated cut-off standards in terms of economic values to determine the level of seriousness of a criminal case (Unit: RMB1,000).

		Minor	Serious	Extremely
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		circumstances	circumstances	serious circumstance
Illegal purchase, sell and transport	Economic value	0	>100	>200
	Profit	0	>50	>100
smuggling	Economic value	0	>100	>200

As more and more Chinese tourists take home with them small items made from rhino horn as personal effects, the Chinese legal system is overburdened with cases of wildlife trafficking of minor circumstances. To expedite prosecution process, an Interpretation of the Supreme People's Court and the Supreme People's Procuratorate on Several Issues in the Application of Law When Handling Criminal Cases of smuggling was issued in September 2014. The Article 9 of the regulation states that no criminal charge will be filed against someone who carried endangered wildlife and their products into China as souvenir if it is not for profitability and the economic value of the contraband is below RMB100,000. Furthermore, it will not even constitute a criminal crime if the case is of less seriousness.

The wildlife trafficking cases below the new cut-off line will be subject to administrative punishment delineated in the Rules of Administrative Penalties for the Implementation of the Customs Law of the People's Republic of China, promulgated by the Customs General Administration on July 1, 1987, which states that anyone who smuggles goods prohibited by the State are subject to confiscation of contraband, illegal gains, and a concomitant fine no more than RMB1 million; anyone who smuggles articles prohibited by the State are subject to confiscation of contraband, illegal gains, and a concomitant fine no more than RMB100,000.

– China is encouraged to utilize the Form for collection and sharing of data on rhinoceros horn seizures and on samples for forensic analysis provided in the Annex to Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17).

China does not use the Form for collection and sharing of data on rhinoceros horn seizures and on samples for forensic analysis. Instead it uses its own system of registration of wildlife trafficking cases. China has not taken samples from seizures of rhino horns and products for DNA analysis, because exportation of rhino horn specimens for any purpose is strictly prohibited by the current policy.

– China is urged to report stocks of rhinoceros horn to the Secretariat in accordance with the provisions of Resolution Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17).

China is now in the process of verifying information on stocks of rhino horns. The information on the stocks of rhino horns is not yet available.

NB. As the information based for answering the above questions is mainly in Chinese and is from different government bodies or other data sources, the current version of this document may or may not have accurately reflected the original intent or content of the source material.

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STATUS OF RHINOS IN ZIMBABWE

2018

Conservation status of Rhinos Globally and in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe has two species of rhinos, the black and white rhinos. The conservation status of the two species is as follows:

a) Black rhino (*Diceros bicornis*)

Conservation Status of Black Rhinos

- Conservation Status under International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN)

Black rhinos are listed as critically endangered under the IUCN. The IUCN is a body of international experts in management of different wildlife species and their expert opinion is regarded as credible worldwide. The categorization as critically endangered means that black rhino population levels are critical and are at the brink of extinction. Management actions should therefore aim or be targeted at increasing populations of the rhinos.

- Conservation Status under the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Flora and Fauna (CITES)

The Black rhino population of Zimbabwe is listed in Appendix I under CITES. The CITES is an international body that regulate trade of endangered wildlife species. The categorization of Black rhinos under Appendix 1 means trade in any black rhino product is prohibited.

b). White Rhino (*Ceratotherium simum ssp. simum*)

- Conservation Status under IUCN

White rhinos are listed as near threatened critically endangered in Zimbabwe. This means that white rhino population levels are critical and are at the brink of extinction. Management actions should therefore aim or be targeted at increasing populations of the rhinos.

- Conservation Status under CITES

The white rhino population of Zimbabwe is listed in Appendix I under CITES.

1. Range Areas

Rhinos (both black and white) occur on three main ranges in Zimbabwe; Bubyie Conservancy, Malilangwe and Save Valley Conservancy. There are other important but smaller populations in areas such as Matopos, Kyle and Chivero and Kavango. (See figure 1 for rhino ranges in Zimbabwe).

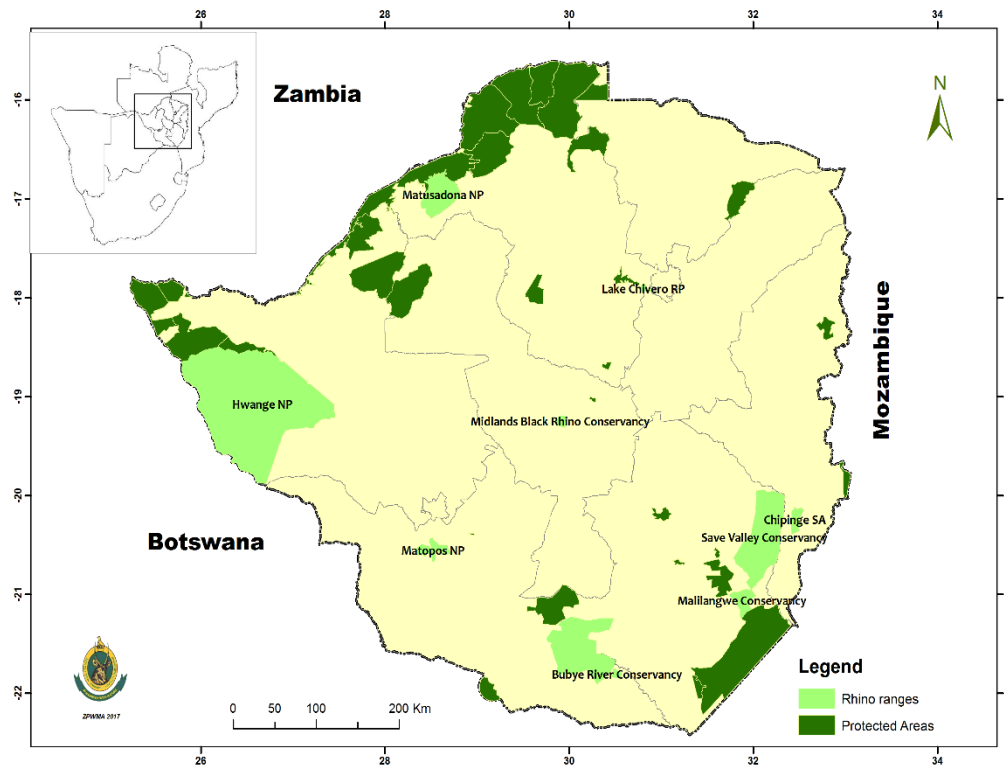


Figure 1. Rhino range areas in Zimbabwe

2. Overall Country Population

Currently the country has a total estimate of 857rhinos. Of these 499 are black (58%) and 358 (42%) are white.

3. Black Rhino Population Status over the Past 20years

Over the past 20 years, the country have lost some rhino range areas and also created new ones. Range areas such as Gourlays Ranch and Chiredzi Conservancy which were important for black rhinos were disintegrated largely due to lack of security and encroachment. New areas such as Kavango were created and are thriving and are a potential source of animals for other areas.

There has been an increase in black rhino population over the past 20 years from 350 to 520. The population increased by 170 individuals over 20 years which translates to an average of 9 animals per year.

4. Black Rhino Population Performance in the Past Six (6) Years.

Population Trends

Population increased from 423 in 2010 to 520 as at 31 December 2017. Seventy-one (71) individuals were thus added over the five year period. A total of 180 black rhinos were poached over the same review period (See Table 1).

Table 1. Zimbabwe Black Rhino Population Trend for 2010 to 2018

Year end	Bubye	Save	Malilangwe	Matopos	Chiredzi	Chipinge	Nakavango	Midlands	Imire	Sinamatella	Matusadona	TOTAL
2010	157	106	77	15	4	16	5	5	5	18	15	423
2011	163	108	82	13	0	14	5	5	4	5	6	405
2012	182	103	89	18	0	16	7	5	4	4	6	434
2013	188	106	100	13	0	15	7	4	4	8	4	449
2014	216	116	107	14	0	14	8	5	5	6	4	495
2015	205	113	109	13	0	12	9	4	5	4	4	478
2016	208	118	113	14	0	12	11	6	5	4	1	492
2017	212	128	120	16	0	13	12	6	5	7	1	520
2018	191	128	120	16	0	13	12	6	5	7	1	499
Rhinos added in 5 years	51	12	36	-1	-2	-4	6	1	0	-14	-14	71
Reported poached	98	60	0	4	2	8	0	2	0	5	6	201

5. Contribution of Range Areas to National Population Numbers

A total of 441 rhinos out of 499 of the national population of black rhinos occur on private land. This translates to 88% of all rhinos occurring on private estate. Three main properties are contributing highly to national population. These are:

- Bulye Conservancy 191;
- Malilangwe 128 and;
- Save Valley Conservancy 120.

This indicates that private properties were contributing immensely to the national population of rhinos.

6. White Rhino Population Performance in the Past Five (5) Years.

Population Trends

Population increased from 299 in 2010 to 370 as at 31 December 2017. A total of seventy-one (71) individuals were thus added over the five year period. A total of 70 white rhinos were poached over the same review period (See Table 2).

Table 2. White rhino population performance 2010 to 2018

Year end	Bubye	Save	Malilangwe	Matopos	Mtirikwe	Chivero	Thetford	Imire	Hwange	Eldorado	TOTAL
2010	60	38	90	26	13	14	10	2	40	6	299
2011	64	34	103	28	16	15	10	2	15	4	291
2012	70	35	109	23	17	12	7	2	3	4	282
2013	78	38	118	21	17	13	8	2	3	3	301
2014	80	43	125	29	18	13	8	2	3	3	324
2015	81	41	137	29	18	13	9	2	0	3	333
2016	75	42	156	29	22	14	8	2	0	3	351
2017	72	44	168	35	23	13	9	3	0	3	370
2018	71	44	168	30	20	10	9	3	0	3	358
Rhinos added in 5 years	15	4	66	3	9	0	-2	0	-40	-3	52
Translocation Out				5	3	2					
Reported Poached	39	13	0	7	0	0	5	0	6	1	71

7. Translocations

A total of 10 white rhinos (5 from Matopos, 3 from Kyle and 2 from Chivero) were translocated to RDC in 2018.

8. Contribution of Range Areas to National Population Numbers

76% of the national population of white rhinos occur on private land with the remainder occurring on state land. This indicate that private properties were contributing immensely to the national population of rhinos. Matopos and Kyle and Chivero hold important small populations with a potential for growth on state land.

9. Poaching Statistics

Rhino poaching trend is showing a sustained increase in poaching since 2015. The country lost 47 rhinos in 2015; 25 in 2016; 27 in 2017 and has lost 21 so far in 2018 as shown in figure 2.

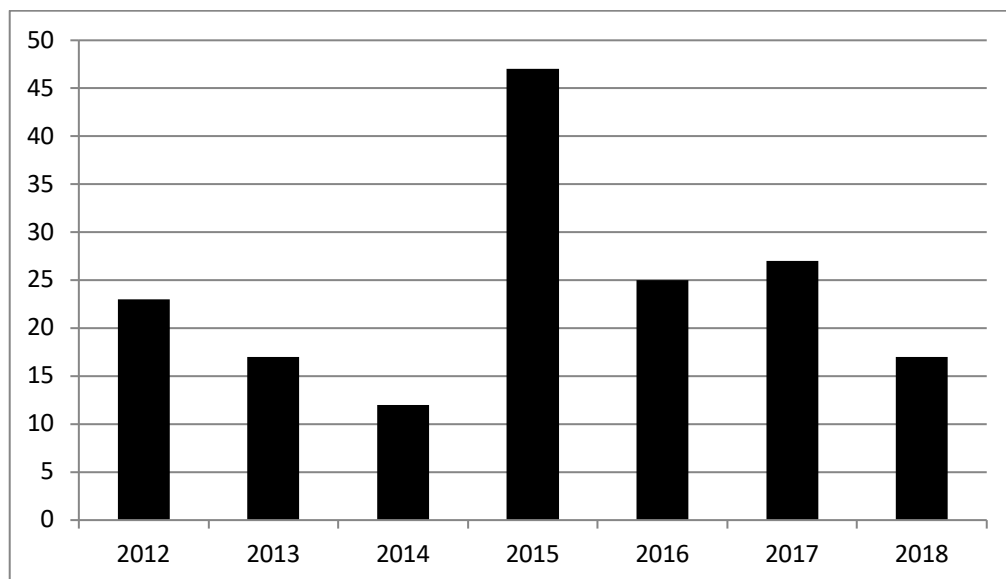
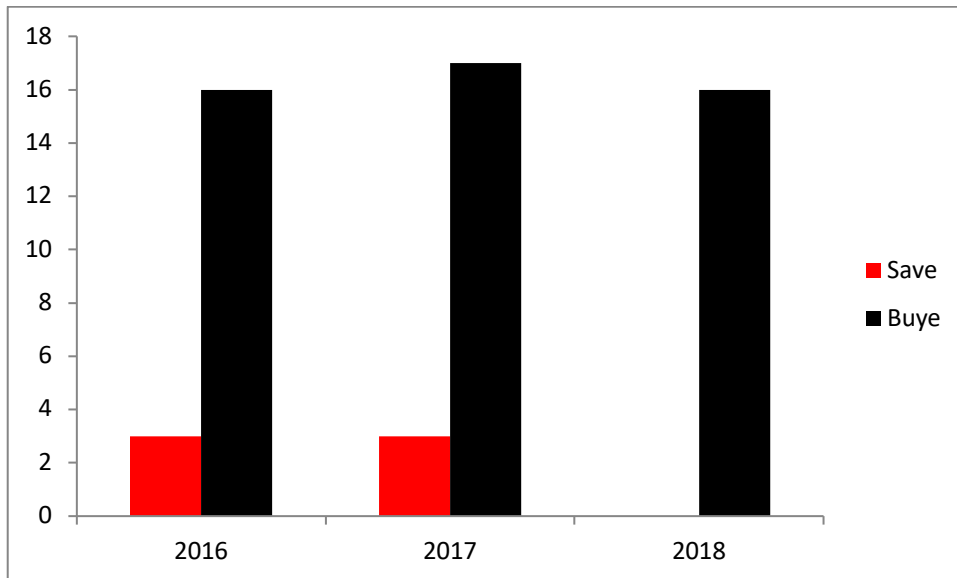


Figure 2. Rhino poaching trends 2012 to 2018.

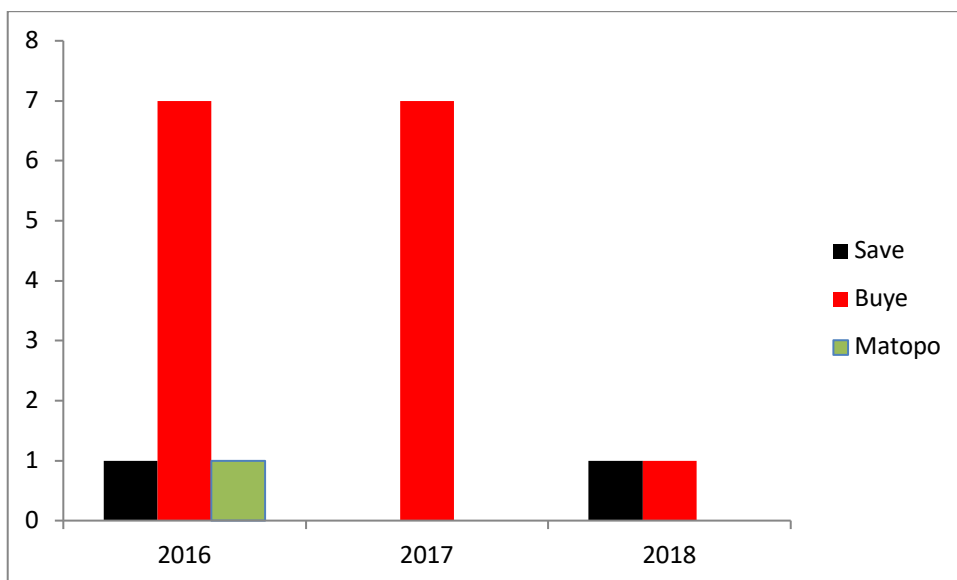
10. Poaching Hot-Spot Black Rhinos

Poaching of black rhinos remained high on private properties and particularly at Bubyee Conservancy. This is largely because of the high number of rhinos on the property (high chance of the poachers encountering a rhino with relatively low risk of an incursion). The conservancy has been losing an average of 16 black rhinos each year since 2016 (see figure 3).



11. Poaching Hot Spot for White Rhinos

Poaching of white rhinos is relatively low as compared to poaching of black rhinos. Buye Conservancy continue to record high poaching levels of white rhinos as well. Poaching of white rhinos is low largely because of the congregation nature of the species which make them easy to monitor.



As such Buye and Save Valley Conservancies are the main poaching hot-spots in the country due to high populations occurring on these properties.

12. Court Cases on Rhinos 2014 to 2018

A total of 40 rhino related cases were brought to the courts for the year 2014 to 2018. A schedule of the cases is given in annexure 1.

13. Challenges other than Poaching

- **Climate Change**

Climate change impacts are also taking a toll on conservation efforts. There is a growing increase in competition for resources especially water between people and animals. This is seeing more and more records of human and wildlife conflicts as animals move out or go for longer distances in search of water or people encroaching into protected areas for land and water.

The country is experiencing more spells of reduction in annual average rainfall. This has resulted in an increase in the budget for game water supply as the government has to pump more water for the animals.

- **Resource Constrains**

a) Shortage of manpower, shortage of transport, shortage of fuel and financial resources for effective field operations. The standard ranger density for effective patrol coverage is 1 ranger covering 20km². However due to manpower shortages 1 ranger is covering an average of more than 80km² and in extreme cases in areas such as Hwange National Park 1 ranger is covering more than 150km². The ideal ranger staff complement is 3218 against the current establishment of 2048. There is therefore a deficit of 1170 Rangers. This means the Authority is operating at 63% of the required staffing.

b) Transport for law enforcement is critical standing at 264 vehicles of which 189 are runners and 75 are non-runners. There are a total of 41 boats of which 22 are runners and 19 are non-runners. In the past two years we received 2 Landcruiser pick up vehicles from Great plain which were deployed at Kapirinhengu and Sapi in Zambezi Valley and one Landcruiser pick up vehicle from the World Wide Fund for Nature WWF for Chizarira. Six new Landcruisers were also procured in 2018. With the current fleet the Authority is operating at 51% of the required law enforcement vehicles. Restrictions in Trade of Wildlife and Wildlife Products

There are reductions in revenue inflows for conservation due to trade bans and restrictions for hunted wildlife trophies and raw ivory. There are over 106 tonnes of ivory in stock worth over \$10 million.

c) Slump in Tourism

There is a general decrease in tourism both consumptive and non- consumptive. Since the Authority is not getting any funding from the fiscus and that donor support is dry, the Authority relies heavily from tourism for its revenue to fund conservation. However, tourism is low and there is little funding available for conservation.

d) Habitat Fragmentation, Modification and Loss

Habitat fragmentation, modification and loss from factors such as human settlement pressures in protected areas, changes in vegetation communities due to veldt fires and impacts of climate change has affected wildlife habitation and exposed wildlife to poaching. Investment towards protection has therefore increased.

14. Conservation Actions by the Authority and Stakeholders

The management of rhinos in Zimbabwe is done through strategic planning and action predicated in a participatory approach and drawn into a management policy which is reviewed after a five year period. The policy has long, medium and short term action plans meant to enhance both on security and biological performance.

- The long term objectives are to increases in Zimbabwe's black and white rhino populations achieved, to levels of at least 2,000 individuals of each species through meta-population management in suitable habitats throughout the country. The targets are:
 - To achieve metapopulations of 660 black rhinos and 470 white rhinos in Zimbabwe by end of 2022 (based on net growth of 5% per annum)
 - To increase the numbers of black and white rhinos, under sustainable conservation initiatives, to a combined total of 1,000 rhinos within 2.5 years.

Current Security and Law Enforcement

a. Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement

Zimbabwe ratified to the protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law enforcement and is implementing the protocols in its management of wildlife resources. Some of the prominent actions taken include ratifying and implementing TFCA programs, domestication of the LEAP Strategy, conducting research and monitoring.

b. SADC Law Enforcement Strategy (Domestication of the Strategy in Zimbabwe)

The SADC Law Enforcement and Anti-Poaching (LEAP) Strategy 2016-2021 was adopted for implementation by Member States at the meeting of the Ministers of Environment and Natural Resources held in November 2015 in Gaborone, Botswana. The Strategy is now awaiting approval by SADC Summit.

Zimbabwe has crafted and domesticated a National Law Enforcement Anti- Poaching Strategy which was adopted by the Sub National JOC and presented the document to the National JOC for approval.

However, Zimbabwe has several strategies in place that are being implemented:

- Strategies to control poaching and smuggling of wildlife
- Strategies to curb poisoning of wildlife
- Species-specific protection strategies and management plans (elephants, rhinos, lions and leopards). Zimbabwe has reviewed the rhino policy and now have a document outlining management policies for the period 2018 to 2022.
- Guide to investigation and prosecution of rhino crimes in Zimbabwe
- Handbook for prosecution for wildlife crimes in Zimbabwe

Details of the strategies are:

- **Implementation of Park and Species Management Plans and Policies**

These management plans have components (such as protection and law enforcement, biological monitoring and management, and capacity building) and community benefit and support that have specific management actions to enhance protection and growth of populations. The management plans are operational for a five year period after which they are reviewed in tandem with the national plans.

- **Advocating for and Implementation of Legislative Changes**

- ✓ Zimbabwe has adopted a zero tolerance initiative to poaching, illegal ivory and rhino horn trade and trafficking. The Parks and Wild Life General Laws Amendment number 5 of 2011 provides for a 9 years jail term for anyone found in possession of elephant ivory or for the killing of an elephant through whatever

means. On a second and subsequent conviction the law provides for an eleven years jail term up to a maximum of 20 years in prison to the offender.

- ✓ Statutory Instrument 56 of 2012 Parks and Wildlife (Payment for hunting of animals) Notice, 2012, place the value of an elephant at US\$50 000 which forms the value of compensation which will be paid out by the accused to the complainant in the event of a successful trial and subsequent conviction.
- ✓ The Criminal Law Codification and Reform Act Chapter provides for the charge of criminal abuse of office by law enforcement or public officials involved in corrupt practices related to poaching and trafficking.
- ✓ The Firearms Act criminalizes the use of automatic weapons such as AK47 assault rifles that are currently utilized by poachers to further their illegal activities. The same Act further criminalizes a person for mere possession of ammunition and arms of war which effectively attracts a jail term of up to 5 years in prison for such related offences.

- **Combating use of Poisons**

- ✓ The Zimbabwe Environmental Management Act criminalizes the administration of poison such as cyanide which is used by poachers to kill wildlife. The Act was implemented during trial of accused persons involved in elephant poisoning leading to the conviction of poachers who poisoned elephants in Hwange National Park in 2013. Most of the offenders were given sentences of up to 18 years in prison.
- ✓ Currently the Authority is crafting a new statutory instrument to deal with gaps that have been identified in the use of poisonous chemicals by poachers.
- ✓ Lobbying for licencing of access and use of poisonous chemicals so that it is easy to track source and illegal use.

- **Awareness Campaigns**

- ✓ The Authority is continuously conducting awareness workshops that target the judiciary, the prosecutors, law-enforcement agencies and other stakeholders involved in the fight against poaching. This has resulted in significant improvements in the expeditious preparation of dockets and finalization of cases with a marked improved in convictions in the various courts around the country.
- ✓ Continuously carrying awareness campaigns with the local communities for them to appreciate the value of wildlife and solicit for conservation support.

- **Stakeholder Collaboration**

Stakeholders in the private sector are assisting with the provision of scarce resources that are needed to combat poaching and ivory and rhino horn trafficking. Properties with rhinos continue to offer livelihood support and opportunity initiatives at various levels. The

support is largely centred on health, education and livelihood support. Notable activities done include;

- Construction of the Imire Community Education Centre located at the Imire Anti-Poaching Headquarters. The Centre is an educational space fitted with 10 state of the art computers each linked to a local server and network, wi- internet access, a library and a complete solar powered lighting and electricity system.
- Support of educational programs at Imire, and the South Eastern Lowveldt (Save Valley and Bubi Valley Conservancies). The support include payment for school fees, purchase of books and reading materials.
- Livelihoods enhancement projects such as bee keeping, irrigation and employment have also been active in some areas.
- In Matopos, the Park constructed 4 thatch huts for the disadvantaged and vulnerable.
- **Aerial Support and New Technology**
 - ✓ The use of helicopters and aircrafts in the fight against poaching has also increased and this has assisted with deployments and detection of poachers in the field.
 - ✓ The country is experimenting with using sniffer dogs in deployments and detection of poachers in the field.
- **Cross Border Collaboration**
 - ✓ Cross border collaboration with law-enforcement agencies with neighbouring countries such as Botswana, South Africa, Zambia and Mozambique in information sharing on poacher movements and dealing with immediate incursions has tremendously helped in detection of cross-border poaching and trafficking incidents.
- **Collaboration with other Uniformed Forces.**
 - ✓ The Zimbabwe Republic Police Support Unit in collaboration with the ZPWMA carries out anti-poaching activities at all levels. The Minerals and Border Control Unit of Zimbabwe Republic Police Criminal Investigations Department is a specialized unit that investigates and prepares wildlife cases for courts.
 - ✓ Within the Zimbabwe's National Joint Operations Command (JOC) structure, elephant and rhino poaching have been elevated to a higher level of National Security Threat thereby making it a priority area of focus.
 - ✓ The same structures of the JOC committees have been activated both at national, provincial and district levels for effective monitoring of poaching situation on the ground.
- **Intelligence gathering and information sharing**

- ✓ Using secure networks;
- ✓ among national security agency;
- ✓ Between Zimbabwe and its neighbouring countries and;
- ✓ through Interpol

- **Improving Community Benefits from Wildlife Utilisation**

- ✓ In general rural communities are not happy with the level of benefits it is getting from wildlife. The government is therefore in the process of reviewing the CAMPFIRE concept so that it produces tangible benefits to local communities living with wildlife, especially elephants and large carnivores. This should make locals more cooperative in fostering the country's conservation goals.

- **Increased men on the ground**

- ✓ Zimbabwe is struggling to have enough patrol rangers on the ground because of resource constraints. In key elephant and rhino areas, this challenge has been addressed through a number of strategies:
 - Ranger call up system: The poaching pressure is not the same in all areas under the management of Parks. There is now a working system where rangers from low threat areas are temporarily deployed to high threat areas like the Zambezi valley and Hwange.
 - Joint anti-poaching patrols: The ranger complement in high threat areas has been augmented by enlisting the services of other law enforcing arms of the state, the Zimbabwe Republic police and the Zimbabwe National Army. The police now have almost permanent presence in some Parks Estates in Matabeleland whilst the army is called in when needed.

ANNEXURE 1: RHINO CASES FROM 2014 TO 2018 IN ZIMBABWE

<i>Case No.</i>	<i>Nature of offence</i>	<i>Date/Time/Place of occurrence.</i>	<i>ZRP,CID,DR.CRB.</i>	<i>Recoveries</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
1.	arrested at the after shooting and killing two white rhinos in the park	On 10 th April 2014 Crocodile Bridge Section of Kruger National Park in South Africa		H&K G3 full automatic assault rifle, with two magazines and twenty two (22) 7.62x51 mm calibre cartridges as well as a 9 mm Norinco semi automatic pistol with seven (7) 9 mm cartridges in the magazine. two sets of rhino horns from bags	Pending
2.	Rhino poaching	27/12/14 Bubye Valley Conservacy		375 fitted with a telescopic site 1 home made silencer Hunting touch 1 knife 8 (375) rounds 1 axe Toyota Corolla silver sedan	Pending
3.	poaching rhinos in Matendere Ranch	18/11/14 Matendere Ranch	CR78/11/12 DR10/11/12 Masvingo cid minerals		3years in jail.
4.	Rhino Poaching	18/10/14 mapari ranch of save valley conservancy		7 AK 47 spent cartridges	

<i>Case No.</i>	<i>Nature of offence</i>	<i>Date/Time/Place of occurrence.</i>	<i>ZRP,CID,DR.CRB.</i>	<i>Recoveries</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
		paddock e4			
5.	Rhino poaching	23/12/2014 save valley conservancy	CR 97/12/14 Bikita Police MSV DR 6/12/14	-1x ak47 rifle -57xak 47 rounds	Pending
6.	Rhino poaching	27/12/14 B VC	CR 31/12/14 Beitbridge Police CRB 48/15-1X375	1x375 licensed rifle -8x375 live rounds	Pending
7.	Rhino poaching	01/05/15 Chipinge		2 rhino horns removed from the carcass	
8.	Rhino poaching	22/02/15 Chishakwe Ranch of Save Valley	CR 57/02/15 Bikita Police DR 06/02/15 Masvingo MBCU.	3 black rhinos carcasses 2 horns were recovered Seven spent cartridges of AK 47 rifle.	
9.	Rhino kills using poison	25/02 15 Chipinge Safari Area	RRB 2307469 CR03/03/15 Middle Sabi Police	4 horns were recovered	
10.	Rhino poaching	3/05/15		1 small rhino horn	

<i>Case No.</i>	<i>Nature of offence</i>	<i>Date/Time/Place of occurrence.</i>	<i>ZRP,CID,DR.CRB.</i>	<i>Recoveries</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
		Matopos			
11.	Rhino poaching	19/04/15 Save Valley Conservancy (Msaize/Sango Boundary)	CR 68/04/15 Bikita Police	- 4 empty AK 47 cartridges - 1 live round AK 47.	
12.	Rhino poaching	Sango Ranch 05/06/15		Two rhino carcasses 14 spent AK 47 cartridges	
13.	Illegal hunting of rhinos thus c/s 45(1) of PWA (CAP 20;14)	03/08/15 Chipinge Safari@Chidimai Pan	CR 14/08/15 Middle Sabi Police RRB 2301924 DR 04/08/15 Mutare MBCU.		3 months wholly suspended for 5 years.
14.	Rhino poaching	15/08/15 Mapiri Area Bubye Valley Conservancy	Parks	Rhino carcass 1 x 303 bullet head	
15.	Rhino poaching	25/08/15 No.62 Area Bubye Valley Conservancy	Parks	Rhino carcass	
16.	Rhino poaching	26/08/15	Parks	Rhino carcass	

<i>Case No.</i>	<i>Nature of offence</i>	<i>Date/Time/Place of occurrence.</i>	<i>ZRP,CID,DR.CRB.</i>	<i>Recoveries</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
		Dindingwe Area Bubye Valley Conservancy			
17.	One male rhino named Luveve I.D.no. 1312 poached with two bullets wounds rhino recovered at senukwe homestead with all horns intact	16/10/15 Senuko ranch	RRB no 2561339 Mkwase police	2 rhino horns recovered 2 A.K. 47 bullets heads found in the carcass	
18.	Rhino poaching	23/10/15 Senuko Ranch	Cr 17/10/15 Mkwase Police.DR 02/10/15	8 AK 47 Cartridge and one live one male young adult name; Mobile I.D. 1358	
19.	Two rhinos shot by poachers dead	05/12/15 Senukwe ranch		2 rhino horns recovered.	
20.	Found in possession of a .303. rifle suspected to be poaching rhinos in the save valley conservancy	07/12/15 Senukwe	CR21/12/15mukwasine police	.303 Rifle recovered and 12 rounds of ammunition	Pending
21.	Two rhinos shot and killed in the bubye valley conservancy	10/12/15 Buby valley conservancy	CR.41/12/15 mwenezi Z.R.P. DR. 02/12/15 Masvingo minerals CRB MSV. 2370/15	Found in possession of one .375 rifle C2 550 telescopic and silencer fitted.	Pending

<i>Case No.</i>	<i>Nature of offence</i>	<i>Date/Time/Place of occurrence.</i>	<i>ZRP,CID,DR.CRB.</i>	<i>Recoveries</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
22.	Rhino poaching	14/12/15 Sango ranch		Magnum telescopic rifle and silencer U.S.A. made. Plus one AK47 and ammunitions	Pending
23.	Hunting of rhinos in Save valley conservancy C/S 45 (1) (a) as read with section 128 of the parks and wildlife act chapter 20:14	29/12/15 chegutu	CR112/12/15 Bikita police DR 05/12/15 Masvingo Minerals 2462/15 Masvingo magistrate	AK 47 rifle magnum rifle	Accused convicted and sentenced to 35 yrs imprisonment 15yrs were suspended for 5 years of good behaviour. To pay \$480 000.00 to save valley conservancy compensation
24.	Rhino poaching in SVC	26/03/16 Save valley conservancy	C.R. 78/03/16 Gutu Police CRB Msv 742-745/16	AK. 47 folding butt 41 rounds ammunition Nissan Terrano ACH 2957	Pending
25.	one adult rhino found dead with all horns missing	25/05/16 sango ranch		.303 cartridge found on the scene	
26.	Illegal possession of rifle 303 with intention to poach rhinos	17/07/16 Ngundu	CR-17/07/16 Ngundu Police CRB-Msv 1508/16 Mavingo court	rifle 303	Fined \$150.00
27.	Possession of hunting rhinos thus C/S 45 of PWA CAP 20:14	23/07/16 Chishakwe Ranch in Save Valley Conservancy	CR-91/07/16 Bikita Police Station DR-09/07/16 Masvingo MBCU CRB- 1535-38/16 Masvingo Court	458 rifle with silencer 303 rifle with a silencer Ford Ranger Twin Cab ADA 3054	Pending

<i>Case No.</i>	<i>Nature of offence</i>	<i>Date/Time/Place of occurrence.</i>	<i>ZRP,CID,DR.CRB.</i>	<i>Recoveries</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
				Mazda Cronos ADN 6879	
28.	Hunting rhino at Chishakwe Ranch in Save Valley C/S 45 of PWA CAP 20:14 found in possession of hunting rhinos with Cyanide		CR-50/12/16 Bikita Police CRB-2256/16 Masvingo Court.	Cyanide	Pending
29.	Rhino poaching	02/11/16 Beitbridge	ZRP Makhado CR15/02/16 Dr15/02/16	Rhino carcass Map of security area	Pending
30.	Rhino poaching	6/11/16 Save Valley Conservancy	Masvingo MBCU DR04/11/16	.337 revolver S/N R228179, two live rounds, Altezza vehicle metallic white reg. number ADK91565, 5 ketamine drug, one complete ZNA camouflage uniform and a black bag.	Pending
31.	poaching two (2) Black Rhinos	31/12/16 Bubye Valley Conservancy	ZRP Makado (Beitbridge) CR 28/12/16. Beit Bridge Court reference CRB 08/17.	three rifles, a GPS and 7 live rounds of 303	Sentenced to 10 yrs in prison.
32.	Rhino poaching	01/01/17 Bubye Valley Conservancy	Beitbridge Rural RRB 3040291	303 rifle; 5 Cell phones; A Silencer 1 x magazine 14 rounds	pending

<i>Case No.</i>	<i>Nature of offence</i>	<i>Date/Time/Place of occurrence.</i>	<i>ZRP,CID,DR.CRB.</i>	<i>Recoveries</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
				Honda CVR Reg.ACW7882	
33.	Rhino poaching	27/4/17 Savuli Ranch, Save Valley Conservancy	Parks, ZRP	Rhino carcass	
34.	Rhino poaching in Buby Valley Conservancy	01/06/17 Bulawayo			pending
35.	Arrested for rhino poaching.	20/12/17 Masvingo			they were sentenced to a combined total of thirty six (36) years imprisonment for illegal hunting of a specially protected animal and illegal possession of a firearm without a firearm certificate
36.	C/S 45(1) of PWA CAP 20:14 illegal rhino hunt in Chishakwe Ranch	Chishakwe Ranch	CR- 10/17 Bikita Police	375 rifle No 94373 with silencer, 22 rounds and 2 knives	
37.	c/s 45 of the P.W.Act, Chapter 20:14	24/03/18 Vic Falls	BB CRB 1020/18	Cell phone	Found not guilty and acquitted
38.	Illegal hunting of Rhinos in Buby Valley Conservancy	28/08/18 BVC	Beit-Bridge CR54/8/18 CRB	Illegal hunting	Both were convicted awaiting judgement

<i>Case No.</i>	<i>Nature of offence</i>	<i>Date/Time/Place of occurrence.</i>	<i>ZRP,CID,DR.CRB.</i>	<i>Recoveries</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
			BT1606-7/18		
39.	Illegal hunting of rhino in SVC	28/10/18	ZRP Mkwanaise RRB 3549335 Chiredzi MFFU DR 01/11/18	13 spent cartridges of ak47	
40.	Illegal hunting of Rhinos in Buby Valley Conservancy	11/11/18 BVC		375 hunting rifle fitted with a silencer device, a cell-phone and line, plus 11 rounds of live ammunition	Pending

RINOCERONTES (RHINOCEROTIDAE SPP.)

En su 17ª reunión (CoP17, Johannesburgo, 2016), la Conferencia de las Partes adoptó las Decisiones 17.133 a 17.144, sobre *Rinocerontes (Rhinocerotidae spp.)*, como sigue:

Dirigida a las Partes

- 17.133 *Todas las Partes deberían examinar su aplicación de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), sobre Conservación y comercio de rinocerontes de África y de Asia, y las estrategias y las acciones propuestas desarrolladas por el Grupo especial de la CITES para la observancia sobre los rinocerontes contenidas en el Anexo a la Notificación a las Partes No. 2014/006, de 23 de enero de 2014, a fin de lograr una buena aplicación de la resolución y de las estrategias y acciones propuestas, con miras a aumentar la eficacia de la respuesta de aplicación de la ley a la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el tráfico de cuerno de rinoceronte.*

Dirigida a los Estados del área de distribución del rinoceronte

- 17.134 *Todos los Estados del área de distribución del rinoceronte deberían revisar continuamente las tendencias de la caza furtiva y del tráfico, para garantizar que las medidas que aplican para impedir y combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el tráfico de cuerno de rinoceronte siguen siendo eficaces y pueden adaptarse rápidamente para responder a cualquier nueva tendencia que se identifique.*

Dirigida a la Secretaría

- 17.135 *La Secretaría deberá realizar una misión a Viet Nam para reunirse con los organismos de aplicación de la ley y del sector judicial y examinar las detenciones, decomisos, procesamientos, condenas y sanciones por posesión y comercio ilícitos de cuerno de rinoceronte, incluidos los delitos detectados en los puntos fronterizos y en los mercados internos de Viet Nam.*
- 17.136 *La Secretaría deberá informar a la 69ª reunión del Comité Permanente acerca de su misión a Viet Nam, en particular en lo que respecta a procesamientos, condenas y sanciones exitosos y fallidos, los motivos de esos éxitos y fracasos y las posibles medidas prioritarias necesarias.*
- 17.137 *La Secretaría deberá realizar una misión para reunirse con las autoridades del Ministerio de Tierras, Medio Ambiente y Desarrollo Rural de Mozambique, incluida la Autoridad Administrativa CITES, así como con los organismos encargados de la aplicación de la ley y del sector judicial responsables de aplicar la legislación sobre comercio ilícito de especies silvestres y de aplicación de la CITES y otras leyes. Esta misión se centrará en la aplicación del Plan nacional de acción para el marfil y los rinocerontes de Mozambique, especialmente para brindar asistencia a Mozambique en relación con las medidas prioritarias identificadas en las recomendaciones acordadas en la 67ª reunión del Comité Permanente.*
- 17.138 *La Secretaría deberá informar a la 69ª reunión del Comité Permanente sobre su misión a Mozambique, prestando especial atención tanto a los procesamientos, condenas y sanciones exitosos y fallidos, los motivos de dichos éxitos y fracasos y las posibles medidas prioritarias necesarias para abordarlos, como al estado y la seguridad de las existencias de Mozambique y la solidez de su sistema de gestión de existencias; ese informe debería incluir también cualesquiera recomendaciones que deban someterse a la consideración del Comité Permanente.*

Dirigida a Mozambique y Viet Nam

- 17.139 *Mozambique y Viet Nam deberían aplicar las recomendaciones acordadas por el Comité Permanente en su 67ª reunión y acoger las misiones de la Secretaría solicitadas en la Decisión 17.135 y la Decisión 17.137.*

Dirigida al Comité Permanente

- 17.140 *El Comité Permanente deberá evaluar, en sus reuniones 69ª y 70ª, la aplicación por las Partes de la Resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17) y las medidas para evitar y combatir la caza furtiva de rinocerontes y el tráfico de cuerno de rinoceronte, teniendo en cuenta las recomendaciones que figuran en el Anexo 5 del documento CoP17 Doc. 68 y, centrándose especialmente en los países señalados como países de atención prioritaria en ese informe, y formular recomendaciones, según proceda.*
- 17.141 *El Comité Permanente deberá evaluar los informes presentados por Mozambique y Viet Nam, como se establece en las recomendaciones acordadas en su 67ª reunión, y formular recomendaciones adicionales según proceda.*
- 17.142 *El Comité Permanente deberá evaluar el informe de la Secretaría sobre sus misiones a Mozambique y Viet Nam, y formular posibles recomendaciones adicionales sobre nuevas medidas, así como solicitar que se presenten informes adicionales a su 70ª reunión, según proceda.*
- 17.143 *El Comité Permanente, basándose en su evaluación de los progresos realizados por Mozambique y Viet Nam en sus reuniones 69ª y 70ª, deberá determinar si Mozambique y Viet Nam han abordado satisfactoriamente todas las recomendaciones o si se requieren otras medidas, que pueden incluir medidas de cumplimiento.*
- 17.144 *El Comité Permanente deberá presentar un informe con sus conclusiones y recomendaciones a la 18ª reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes.*

La Conferencia de las Partes en los párrafos 7 a 11 de la resolución Conf. 9.14 (Rev. CoP17), sobre Conservación y comercio de rinocerontes de África y de Asia:

7. *ENCARGA a la Secretaría que, antes de cada reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes, y sujeto a la disposición de financiación externa encargue a los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y a TRAFFIC que presenten un informe a la Secretaría sobre:*
- a) la situación a nivel nacional y continental de la conservación de las especies de rinocerontes africanos y asiáticos;*
 - b) el comercio de especímenes de rinocerontes;*
 - c) las existencias de especímenes de rinocerontes y la gestión de las existencias;*
 - d) los incidentes de matanza ilegal de rinocerontes;*
 - e) las cuestiones de observancia;*
 - f) las medidas de conservación y estrategias de ordenación, con una evaluación de su eficacia; y*
 - g) las medidas aplicadas por los Estados involucrados para poner fin a la utilización y el consumo ilegal de partes y derivados de rinoceronte;*
8. *SOLICITA a los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC que consulten con los Estados del área de distribución e involucrados, según proceda, así como con el Centro de Monitoreo de la Conservación Mundial del PNUMA cuando preparen el informe, y que reflejen los resultados de esas consultas en su informe con arreglo a esta resolución;*
9. *ENCARGA a la Secretaría que:*
- a) ponga un resumen global de las declaraciones de las existencias de cuerno de rinoceronte a disposición de los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC para su análisis e inclusión en su informe a la Secretaría con arreglo a esta resolución; y*
 - b) ponga el informe de los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC a disposición de cada reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes; y*
 - c) a tenor del informe, formule proyectos de decisión para someterlos a la consideración de la Conferencia de las Partes, según proceda;*
10. *ALIENTA a las Partes a apoyar financieramente a la Secretaría, para que pueda encargar un informe a los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC para cada reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes;*

11. *INSTA a los Estados del área de distribución de rinocerontes africanos y asiáticos, a los Estados involucrados, a otras Partes y a otros interesados a que cooperen con los Grupos de Especialistas en Rinocerontes Africanos y Asiáticos de la CSE/UICN y TRAFFIC en la recopilación de información y preparación del informe solicitado en esta resolución;*

PRESUPUESTO Y FUENTE DE FINANCIACIÓN PROVISIONALES
PARA LA APLICACIÓN DE PROYECTOS DE RESOLUCIÓN O DECISIÓN

Según la Resolución Conf. 4.6 (Rev. CoP16) sobre la *Presentación de proyectos de resolución, proyectos de decisión y de otros documentos para las reuniones de la Conferencia de las Partes*, la Conferencia de la Partes decide que cualquier proyecto de resolución o decisión presentado a la consideración de la Conferencia de las Partes que incida en el presupuesto y en el volumen de trabajo de la Secretaría o de los comités de carácter permanente, debe incluir o llevar anexado un presupuesto correspondiente al trabajo previsto y una indicación de la fuente de financiación. Por consiguiente, los autores de este documento proponen el presupuesto y fuente de financiación provisionales siguientes.

Proyecto de decisión 18.AA

El proyecto de decisión 18.AA no incide en el presupuesto o en la carga de trabajo de la Secretaría o de los comités permanentes.

Proyectos de decisión 18.BB, 18.CC y 18.EE

Los proyectos de decisión 18.BB, 18.CC y 18.EE necesitarían tiempo por parte de la Secretaría, pero se podrían atender en el marco del programa de trabajo normal.

Proyecto de decisión 18.DD

El proyecto de decisión 18.DD no tiene implicación presupuestaria alguna y las actividades pueden ser realizadas en el programa de trabajo normal del Comité Permanente.

Proyecto de decisión 18.FF

En caso de que fuese necesario contratar una consultoría para llevar a cabo análisis o estudios, podría ser necesaria una financiación limitada de aproximadamente 20 000 dólares de los EE.UU. No obstante, tales trabajos estarían sujetos a la disponibilidad de financiación externa y, por consiguiente, no implicarían la utilización de los fondos básicos. La aplicación requeriría la dedicación de tiempo por parte de la Secretaría pero podría encajar en su programa de trabajo normal.