CONVENTION ON INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN ENDANGERED SPECIES
OF WILD FAUNA AND FLORA

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Sixteenth meeting of the Conference of the Parties
Bangkok (Thailand), 3-14 March 2013

CONSIDERATION OF PROPOSALS FOR AMENDMENT OF APPENDICES I AND II

A. Proposal

Proposal to amend the annotation for *Loxodonta africana* as follows (additional text underlined, deleted text struckthrough):

h) *no further proposals to allow trade in elephant ivory from any populations already in Appendix II shall be submitted to the Conference of the Parties for the period from CoP14 and ending nine years from the date of the single sale of ivory that is to take place in accordance with provisions in paragraphs g) i), g) ii), g) iii), g) vi) and g) vii). In addition such further proposals shall be dealt with in accordance with Decisions 14.77 and 14.78 (Rev. CoP15).*

B. Proponent

Burkina Faso and Kenya[2].

C. Supporting statement

1. Taxonomy

    1.1 Class: Mammalia

    1.2 Order: Proboscidae

    1.3 Family: Elephantidae

    1.4 Genus, species or subspecies, including author and year: *Loxodonta africana*
                                                                    (Blumenbach, 1797)

    1.5 Scientific synonyms: None

    1.6 Common names: English: African elephant
                         French: éléphant d'Afrique
                         Spanish: elefante africano

    1.7 Code numbers: CITES A-115.001.002.001
                          ISIS 5301415001002001001

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[1] *This document has been provided in these languages by the author(s)".*

[2] *The geographical designations employed in this document do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the CITES Secretariat or the United Nations Environment Programme concerning the legal status of any country, territory, or area, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. The responsibility for the contents of the document rests exclusively with its author.*

2. Overview

African elephants are under severe and escalating levels of threat. This alarming situation has been widely recognised by CITES and it is the firm belief of the Proponents that unless CITES now takes resolute action to protect elephants in Africa, that they will soon be lost from many parts of their range. We are no longer in a position to take risks or allow 'experimental' sales. CITES must exert whatever precautionary measures are necessary and are at its disposal to ensure that Africa's vulnerable elephant populations are given the strongest protection possible. This is the responsibility not only of range States, but also consumer States, transit States, and the wider international community.

The agreement reached at the 14th meeting of the Conference of the Parties to CITES (The Hague 2007), that there should be no further elephant proposals to allow trade in ivory submitted for the consideration of CITES Parties for a period of at least nine years, was meant to make a vital contribution to this effort to protect elephants. Regretfully, the wording of the annotation inadequately reflects what had been agreed. As it stands, the annotation only applies to those Parties with African elephants *already* on Appendix II (i.e. Zimbabwe, South Africa, Botswana and Namibia).

This Proposal, which amends the wording of the annotation to ensure that no proposals to allow trade in elephant ivory can be submitted during the agreed nine-year period from any population on Appendix II, is intended to reflect the intention of the 2007 agreement of the elephant range States, and to ensure that African elephants are not put under any further threat from legalised ivory sales.

There is no adequate, robust, scientific and peer-reviewed evidence that clearly shows that legal ivory sales have not been detrimental to the survival of the species. The Proponents believe the opposite to be the case. The Proponents contend that legal trade in ivory poses a very serious threat to elephant populations. It is, therefore, the responsibility of CITES to fully take Rio Principle 15 (the Precautionary Approach) into consideration, as also recognised in the preambular paragraphs to Resolution Conf 9.24 (Rev. CoP15), as well as the statement in Annex 4, that: *"By virtue of the precautionary approach and in cases of uncertainty regarding the status of a species or the impact of trade on the conservation of a species, the Parties shall act in the best interest of the conservation of the species concerned and, when considering proposals to amend Appendix I or II, adopt measures that are proportionate to the anticipated risks to the species".*

Finally, the Proponents request that Parties, when considering this Proposal, take into account the importance of implementing the prioritised objectives of the African Elephant Action Plan (AEAP) before any further sales are considered for approval. The African Elephant Action Plan agreed by all African elephant range States has been recognised as critical to the long-term survival of elephants across their current range. At such a serious time, when elephants are perhaps under more threat than they have been for two decades, ensuring implementation of the AEAP is more important than ever before.

3. Species characteristics

   3.1 Distribution

   Elephants are distributed over the following 38 sub-Saharan African countries: Angola; Benin; Botswana; Burkina Faso; Cameroon; Central African Republic; Chad; The Republic of Congo; The Democratic Republic of the Congo; Côte d'Ivoire; Equatorial Guinea; Eritrea; Ethiopia; Gabon; Ghana; Guinea; Guinea-Bissau; Kenya; Liberia; Malawi; Mali; Mozambique; Namibia; Niger; Nigeria; Rwanda; Senegal; Sierra Leone; Somalia; South Africa; South Sudan; Sudan; Swaziland; Tanzania, United Republic of; Togo; Uganda; Zambia; Zimbabwe.

   These range States include elephant range estimated at over 3.3 million km^2 (3,335,827 km²) (AfESG 2007) which is nearly 1.6 million km² less than the range estimate in 2004 (AfESG 2002). Protected Areas account for only 31% of estimated elephant range. This change in the estimated range is thought to be primarily due to the updating of previously unreliable information on elephant distribution, particularly in Central Africa (AfESG 2007). Although this reduction cannot be attributed to a significant *recent* reduction in habitat availability, it does reflect a significant reduction in space available to elephants over time. However, it is important to note that the most recent data available is contained within the 2007 IUCN African Elephant Specialist Group Elephant Status Report and the situation may have changed significantly since that time.

3.2   Habitat

African elephants cover a wide range of habitat across sub-saharan Africa. The majority of forest elephant populations (*Loxodonta africana cyclotis*) live in Central and West African rainforests, while the savannah elephant (*Loxodonta africana africana*) is found throughout the grassy plains, woodlands, swamps and bush lands from sea level to high mountains. In north-western Namibia and in Mali, elephant populations exist in extremely arid and desert areas.

3.3   Biological characteristics

African elephants are the largest living terrestrial mammals (shoulder height up to 330 cm; weight up to 7,500 kg). Female elephants between 14 and 45 years may give birth to calves approximately every four years. Inter-birth intervals of up to 13 years may occur depending upon habitat conditions and population densities (AfESG 2006). The gestation period is 22 months on average. Under favourable conditions, elephant populations increase at an annual rate of 4-5 %. Although males reach sexual maturity at about 10 years, they reportedly cannot successfully compete for mating rights until the age of 20. Life expectancy is about 50-70 years. Individual home ranges vary from 15 to 3,700 km2, depending on population and habitat (AfESG 2006). If food and water are available, elephants may not venture far; if not, they may make seasonal migrations of several hundred kilometres (Nowak 1991).

3.4   Morphological characteristics

Currently, two subspecies of the African elephant are recognised, the forest elephant (*Loxodonta Africana cyclotis*) and the savannah elephant (*Loxodonta africana africana*). The African forest elephant can be distinguished from the savannah elephant by its smaller body size, smaller ears and straighter, downward-projecting tusks (Roca et al 2001).

3.5   Role of the species in its ecosystem

Elephants play a vital role in the ecology of their habitats (Haynes 2012). For example, their feeding habits open up thick bush and forest for grazing species; they also maintain waterholes and keep open forest pathways used by wildlife and humans (Carroll 1988). Elephants are also important seed dispersal agents for a number of tree species (Alexandre 1978).

4.   Status and trends

4.1   Habitat trends

Habitat loss is widely recognised as a significant threat to the survival of elephant populations in many parts of their range. Habitat loss is due to changes in human land-use practices including: agriculture, ranching, human habitation, deforestation, extractive industries, water extraction and desertification.

4.2   Population size

The known continental elephant population in 2007, the latest year for which population data on a continental basis was presented in the IUCN AfESG African Elephant Status Report, was 472,269 individuals classified as 'definite'. In addition, 82,704 elephants were estimated as "probable", another 84,334 as "possible" and another 50,364 as "speculative" (Blanc et al 2007). Although population surveys of some areas have been carried out since the publication of this data, those which have been submitted to the AfESG are currently pending review. The above continental figures therefore remain the best available at the present time.

The quality of available data concerning the size of elephant populations varies greatly across elephant range, and for many populations there are no reliable estimates available at all. Only 51 % of populations in known elephant range have reliable population estimates. Data for Central Africa is particularly sparse, with reliable population estimates only available for 13% of assessed range, while guesses still account for 73 %. In Eastern African, elephant population estimates are only available for 45 % of estimated range, and in Southern Africa elephant population estimates are only available for 53 % of estimated elephant range. In Western Africa, the population estimates cover a greater

percentage of estimated range (66 %). However, two thirds of these estimates are only guesses (AfESG, 2007).

Population sizes also vary greatly across the four sub-Saharan African regions. Southern Africa has 58% of the continental total, (in the 'definite' and 'probable' categories). Eastern Africa has 30 % of the continental total, Central Africa is home to 10.7 % of the known and probable populations, while West Africa holds just 1.7 % of the continental total. The small and fragmented populations in West Africa are of particular concern, with some perhaps being biologically non-viable in the long-term. Significant efforts are required to protect these populations to prevent localised extinction as has already happened in Burundi, and may very soon occur in countries such as Senegal and Sierra Leone.

4.3   Population structure

African elephants are known to have complex social structures. Both poaching and culling have been reported to result in the breakdown of these social structures among the surviving members (Bradshaw et al 2005) and this may negatively affect the entire herd's chances of survival. The drastic decline of some elephant populations in the past has also resulted in a reduction in the amount of genetic diversity in the surviving populations, for example in Uganda (Nyakaana and Arctander 1999).

The structure of many elephant populations was greatly affected by the high levels of poaching for ivory experienced before the 1989 ban. Elephant poaching, in particular, targets adult animals with the largest tusks, i.e. old bulls and matriarchs (Cobb and Western 1989). Studies have shown that the long-term impacts from the pre-1989 poaching have persisted, more than 15 years after the ban was implemented (Gobush et al, 2008). Research from Zambia's North Luangwa National Park found that 6 years after the decrease of severe poaching, despite a high reproductive rate, the density of the population had not increased; indicating that removal of older matriarchs has severe repercussions on the recovery of a population after poaching (Owens and Owens 2009).

4.4   Population trends

It is estimated that between 1979 and 1989, the continental number of African elephants fell by as many as 600,000 African elephants, primarily as a result of poaching for ivory, resulting in a decrease in the continental population from an estimated 1.3 million to an estimated 600,000. In some regions up to 80% of elephants were killed, and many herds have not recovered to their original size.

Many populations, particularly in Western Africa are now extremely small and fragile (see section 4.2) and the loss of just a few elephants from a single population can have a severe and negative impact on the viability of that population.

Illegal killing for ivory continues to represent a significant, ongoing and serious cause of population decline across the continent. SC62 Doc 46.1 notes: *"The rise in levels of illegal killing and the dynamics surrounding it are worrying, not only for small and fragmented elephant populations that could face extirpation, but also for previously secure large populations"* The document goes on to provide data indicating that PIKE (the Proportion of Illegally Killed Elephants) levels are now, for the first time, above 0.5 - the threshold above which elephant populations are very likely to be in net decline – for all four regions.

4.5   Geographic trends

The range of the African elephant once spanned the entire continent (Mauny 1956; Douglas-Hamilton 1979). Elephants occurred in parts of northern Africa until the beginning of the current era (Scullard 1971), and are presumed to have been widespread everywhere south of the Sahara. (Blanc et al 2003).

The total range area (known and possible) reported in the 2007 IUCN African Elephant Status Report is nearly 32 % smaller than reported in the AfESG's 2002 report. However, it is suggested that this is primarily due to improved available information in recent years. It should be noted that 63% (less than two thirds) of the total reported range is considered to be in the "known" category, whereas 37 % is in the "possible" category, and that a significant amount of the information in the 'possible' category is more than 10 years old.

The trade in ivory has contributed significantly to the contraction of the range of the species (Douglas-Hamilton 1979; AERSG 1987). Pressure from poaching has, in many areas, either eliminated entire elephant populations or reduced population densities to very low levels (Burrill and Douglas-Hamilton 1987). It has been documented that from about 1970 onwards illegal killing rather than habitat loss has been the dominant influence on elephant population dynamics. In 1987, elephant population size was estimated to be only 8% of the carrying capacity (Milner-Gulland and Beddington 1993).

According to SC62 Doc 46.1: "*a new analysis of information is available for central and West Africa's Sudano (Bouché, 2012) and suggests that elephant populations have been increasingly fragmented and confined to protected areas in this region*". However, a copy of Bouché 2012 was not available to the Proponents at the time of writing.

While illegal killing has been the primary influencing factor in elephant population trends, habitat loss nevertheless has a substantial impact. Increasing human populations, conversion of natural habitats for agriculture and droughts have confined elephants to isolated pockets of national parks and reserves in West Africa. In Central Africa, thousands of square kilometres of lowland rainforest contain suitable elephant habitat; the range, however, is increasingly being fragmented due to habitat loss. In eastern Africa, loss of habitat due to human activity is contributing to the decline and compression of elephant populations. In southern Africa, elephant habitat is highly fragmented by human activities. Locally high numbers have resulted from water supplementation, fencing and the reduction and fragmentation of landscapes (van Aarde and Jackson 2007).

5. Threats

African elephant populations are confronted by a number of serious threats. These threats vary according to specific populations and their location. While elephants outside Protected Areas are known to be particularly vulnerable, those within some Protected Areas are also facing serious pressures.

The African Elephant Action Plan, adopted by all African elephant range States in March 2010, and supported by the African Elephant Fund (created in March 2011), contains eight prioritised objectives, which reflect the main threats to elephants across their range. These eight objectives are (in order of priority):

i)   Reduced Illegal Killing of Elephants and Illegal Trade in Elephant Products;

ii)   Maintained Elephant Habitats and Restored connectivity;

iii)   Reduced Human-Elephant Conflict;

iv)   Increased Awareness of Elephant Conservation and Management of key Stakeholders that include Policy Makers, Local Communities among other interest groups;

v)   Strengthened Range States Knowledge on African Elephant Management;

vi)   Strengthened Cooperation and Understanding Among Range States;

vii)   Improved Local Communities Cooperation and Collaboration on African Elephant Conservation;

viii)   African Elephant Action Plan is Effectively Implemented.

It is the hope of the African elephant range States that donors will contribute to the African Elephant Fund to enable full implementation of the African Elephant Action Plan in order to mitigate these threats.

The three top prioritised threats are addressed in some detail below:

Illegal killing and illegal trade in elephant products: For some countries, particularly those with fragile and vulnerable populations, the scale of illegal poaching for ivory threatens the long-term survival of those populations. SC62 Doc 46.1 indicates that 2011 witnessed the highest levels of poaching since MIKE records began (a statistically significant increase with respect to 2010, which

itself represented the second highest levels of poaching since MIKE records began). DNA analysis techniques are able to reveal the exact source of seized ivory, and it is now clear that all four sub-Saharan regions are affected by poaching and illegal ivory trade (Wasser et al 2009).

Examples of recent poaching incidents include: 22 elephants killed in Garamba National Park between March and May 2012; close to 450 elephants killed in Bouba N'Djida National Park, Cameroon, between January and March 2012; 56 elephants killed in south-western Chad in 2012; 77 elephants poached in Niassa Game Reserve in northern Mozambique, in 2011; 12 elephants poached in the space of a week in the Quirimbas National Park (PNQ), in northern Mozambique in September, 2011. Examples of illegal trade can be found in section 6.4

Degradation and fragmentation of elephant habitats: Across the continent, elephant habitats are becoming increasingly degraded, fragmented and, in some cases, lost entirely, due to human-induced threats such as agricultural expansion, logging and mining. Such pressures limit the unrestricted movement of elephants and other species throughout their traditional range, thereby limiting elephants' access to essential food and water resources. There is an urgent need to maintain extensive landscapes for elephants and maintain and restore connectivity wherever possible. Historically, for the majority of elephant range States, local and national land use planning has been undertaken with limited consideration for its impact on wildlife and wildlife habitats. As land pressures continue to grow across the continent, a larger, inclusive vision with a longer-term planning horizon is needed. Therefore, elephant-friendly conservation policies, which take into account socio-economic development aims and the tenure or other property rights of local communities, are essential.

Human-elephant conflict: Elephants can have severe impacts on local livelihoods, including through crop-raiding and consumption of scarce water sources. Such competition for resources can result in conflict and loss of human life and the lives of domestic stock. As a consequence, many elephants are also killed, both legally and illegally, to control the damage they cause. For some elephant populations, the scale of removal of "problem animals" through such control measures may be negatively impacting the elephant populations concerned while failing to address the underlying causes of the problem. To date, no permanent, 'fool-proof' solutions have been discovered to entirely prevent human-elephant conflict. Therefore, a variety of mitigation tools must be used, and potential solutions must take into consideration the origin and underlying causes as well as the extent of these conflicts.

6. Utilization and trade

6.1 National utilization

Elephants are utilised in a variety of ways in Africa: ivory, skin and hair are made into a number of different products; elephant meat is consumed as bushmeat across Africa; elephants are hunted for sport and live elephants are captured for entertainment purposes. Elephants are also of significant economic value through their utilisation as part of non-consumptive tourism strategies.

6.2 Legal trade

The CITES annotations governing legal international trade in African elephants are as follows:

Populations of Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe (listed in Appendix II):

For the exclusive purpose of allowing*:*

a) *trade in hunting trophies for non-commercial purposes;*

b) *trade in live animals to appropriate and acceptable destinations, as defined in Resolution Conf. 11.20, for Botswana and Zimbabwe and for in situ conservation programmes for Namibia and South Africa;*

c) *trade in hides;*

d) *trade in hair;*

e)   trade in leather goods for commercial or non-commercial purposes for Botswana, Namibia and South Africa and for non-commercial purposes for Zimbabwe;

f)   trade in individually marked and certified ekipas incorporated in finished jewellery for non-commercial purposes for Namibia and ivory carvings for non-commercial purposes for Zimbabwe;

g)   trade in registered raw ivory (for Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe, whole tusks and pieces) subject to the following:

   i)   only registered government-owned stocks, originating in the State (excluding seized ivory and ivory of unknown origin);

   ii)   only to trading partners that have been verified by the Secretariat, in consultation with the Standing Committee, to have sufficient national legislation and domestic trade controls to ensure that the imported ivory will not be re-exported and will be managed in accordance with all requirements of Resolution Conf. 10.10 (Rev. CoP14) concerning domestic manufacturing and trade;

   iii)   not before the Secretariat has verified the prospective importing countries and the registered government-owned stocks;

   iv)   raw ivory pursuant to the conditional sale of registered government-owned ivory stocks agreed at CoP12, which are 20,000 kg (Botswana), 10,000 kg (Namibia) and 30,000 kg (South Africa);

   v)   in addition to the quantities agreed at CoP12, government-owned ivory from Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe registered by 31 January 2007 and verified by the Secretariat may be traded and despatched, with the ivory in paragraph g) iv) above, in a single sale per destination under strict supervision of the Secretariat;

   vi)   the proceeds of the trade are used exclusively for elephant conservation and community conservation and development programmes within or adjacent to the elephant range; and

   vii)   the additional quantities specified in paragraph g) v) above shall be traded only after the Standing Committee has agreed that the above conditions have been met; and

h)   no further proposals to allow trade in elephant ivory from populations already in Appendix II shall be submitted to the Conference of the Parties for the period from CoP14 and ending nine years from the date of the single sale of ivory that is to take place in accordance with provisions in paragraphs g) i), g) ii), g) iii), g) vi) and g) vii). In addition such further proposals shall be dealt with in accordance with Decisions 14.77 and 14.78 (Rev. CoP15).

On a proposal from the Secretariat, the Standing Committee can decide to cause this trade to cease partially or completely in the event of non-compliance by exporting or importing countries, or in the case of proven detrimental impacts of the trade on other elephant populations.

In 2008, Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe sold 105,365kg of ivory to China and Japan under the terms of the annotation to the Appendices. According to SC58 Doc 36.3 (Rev. 1) the export of this ivory took place in February and March 2009. The records available in the UNEP-WCMC database, however, do not tally with these figures and may contain incorrect data. For example, according to UNEP-WCMC, South Africa exported 50,768kg of tusks in 2008 and 33,093kg of tusks in 2009, which gives a total of 83,861kg of ivory exported. However, the actual amount sold, according to SC58 Doc 36.3, was 50,945kg.

The number of ivory carvings exported by Zimbabwe (presumably in accordance with the annotation above), has grown from 58 ivory carvings in 2006 to 2,635 in 2010, representing a 4,400% increase.

The elephant trophy export quotas for 2012 are: Botswana (800 tusks); Cameroon (160 tusks); Mozambique (200 tusks); Namibia (180 tusks); South Africa (300 tusks); Tanzania (400 tusks); Zambia (160 tusks); Zimbabwe (1,000 tusks). In total, the export quotas for elephant trophies are

3,200 tusks or 1,600 animals. However, it is difficult to ascertain exactly how many elephant tusks are exported annually as a result of sport hunting activities, given the disparity in the recording of trophy exports by Parties (as recorded on the UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database). Some are recorded as "tusks" using the purpose code "P" or "H" while some are exported as "trophies", again using purpose code "P" or "H".

Between 2006 and 2011, the UNEP-WCMC CITES trade database records that the main importing countries for 'trophies' were the USA (1,512), Spain (410), South Africa (275) and France (232).

Between 2006 and 2011, there were 9,367 exports described as "hair" or "hair products". The primary exporters were South Africa and Zimbabwe, while Morocco and the USA were the main importers. Additionally, from 2006 and 2011, 4,598 leather products from wild elephants were exported. There is some difficulty in analysing the total numbers of skin and skin pieces exported due to the difference in reporting (in either square feet, square meters, or where no unit is recorded). However, in 2010 alone, 1,577 sq meters of elephant skin and skin pieces, and 2,595 skins and skin pieces were exported. Major importers of skin and skin pieces are Japan, the Republic of Korea, Mexico and the USA.

6.3 Parts and derivatives in trade

See 6.2 above: ivory (raw tusks and worked), skin, leather, hair, meat, parts and live specimens are all traded.

6.4 Illegal trade

According to SC62 Doc 46.1, three of the five years in which ETIS records show the greatest volumes of ivory seized, were 2009, 2010 and 2011. SC62 Doc 46.1 goes on to indicate that the ETIS data "…stand as a very worrying indication that illegal trade in elephant ivory continues to surge in an unabated manner".

Since CoP15, in March 2010, at least 47 tonnes of ivory has been seized. SC61 Doc 56.2 reported that from 2009 to 2011 nearly 20,000kg of ivory were seized in Vietnam alone. SC61 Doc 56.2 also indicated that between 2010 and 2011, 6.07 tonnes of ivory had been seized in Thailand. Other seizures include: 1,500kg of ivory seized in Sri Lanka in May 2012; 601kg of ivory seized in Kenya in June 2012; 1.895 tonnes of ivory (1041 pieces) in Tanzania in August 2011; 2.974 tonnes of ivory (405 pieces) in Malaysia in August 2011; 2 tonnes of ivory (695 pieces) in Malaysia in July 2011; 2.234 tonnes of ivory (707 pieces) in China in May 2011; 15 elephant tusks in Zimbabwe in April 2011; 2.033 tonnes of ivory (247 pieces) in Thailand in April 2011; 1.304 tons of ivory (115 pieces) in Kenya in March 2011; 1.026 tonnes of ivory (118 pieces) in Malaysia in February 2011.

Data from ETIS also indicate ongoing evidence of the involvement of organised criminal syndicats in illegal ivory trade. In 2011 alone, at least 14 seizures were over 800kg in size, and over 20 tonnes of ivory was seized en route to either Thailand or China (SC62 Doc 46.1).

Given that customs and enforcement officials estimate that between 10 - 15% of illegal products in trade are intercepted, the actual volume of illegal ivory in trade is likely to be considerably higher.

There is also a significant amount of ivory on sale in domestic markets in Africa and Asia. For example, in Egypt, one of Africa's largest known markets for illicit ivory, there is a legal requirement for permits to be issued for the sale of ivory. Despite none of these having ever been issued, a 2011 investigation found 9,261 ivory products on sale in 2 cities (TRAFFIC Bulletin, Vol 23).

6.5 Actual or potential trade impacts

Illegal killing of African elephants for ivory has had a profound and well-documented impact on African elephant populations – see above.

7. Legal instruments

7.1 National

African elephants are afforded varying degrees of legal protection in all range States.

7.2 International

All populations of African elephants are on CITES Appendix I except those of Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe, which are on Appendix II, subject to certain annotations.

8. Species management

8.1 Management measures

The African elephant range States have adopted a wide variety of different management measures with regard to their elephant populations, including transboundary approaches. In July 2011, for example, COMIFAC approved a plan for strengthening enforcement of national wildlife laws in the region, and in June 2011 the CMS West African Elephant Conservation Strategy was adopted. These activities will complement the prioritised Objectives contained in the African Elephant Action Plan.

8.2 Population monitoring

While some African elephant populations are monitored, a number of range States lack the institutional capacity, infrastructure, equipment and resources to undertake regular monitoring of their elephant populations. This is one of the significant challenges to be addressed by the range States as part of the African Elephant Action Plan.

While the MIKE program enables monitoring of certain populations, its site-specific nature means that it does not provide comprehensive national or regional monitoring coverage.

8.3 Control measures

8.3.1 International

The ability of range States to manage elephant populations, to regulate legal take, and to prevent poaching, varies greatly. Agencies working on international ivory trade issues, in addition to CITES, include the Lusaka Agreement Task Force (LATF), Interpol and the ASEAN Wildlife Enforcement Network.

MIKE: The programme for the Monitoring of Illegal Killing of Elephants was agreed by the CITES Parties in 1997 as a method for monitoring trends in elephant poaching. MIKE has an important role to play in providing technical and financial support to range States and developing their capacity for elephant monitoring. However, the long-term funding of MIKE continues to be an issue, calling into question the long-term sustainability of the programme. MIKE sites only cover a sample of the continental elephant range, and are, on the whole, heavily biased toward protected areas. This is despite the fact that 69% of elephant range is outside protected areas (AfESG 2007).

ETIS shares the same objectives as MIKE (set out in Resolution Conf. 10.10. (Rev. CoP14)) but aims to record and analyse levels and trends in illegal trade. It is run by TRAFFIC and based on an earlier database dating back to 1989.

8.3.2 Domestic

Trade control measures and law enforcement capacity vary greatly among the different range States. Many find the level of poaching and illegal trade an increasingly difficult challenge to tackle given limited resources and institutional capacity, and many require external support for such enforcement activities, especially those identified in the African Elephant Action Plan (see section 5).

8.4 Captive breeding and artificial propagation

Captive breeding presents no direct benefit to *in situ* conservation of African elephants (AfESG 2004) and is therefore not relevant to this proposal.

8.5　Habitat conservation

8.6　Safeguards

No emergency mechanisms exist to quickly identify, evaluate, report on and halt poaching pressure or a surge in illegal ivory trade once it is proven to have escalated or emerged in a particular area. The monitoring programmes MIKE and ETIS are unable to fulfil that role.

9. Information on similar species

Listed on Appendix I since 1976, the Asian elephant (*Elephas maximus*) has a long history of exploitation through poaching for ivory and illegal trade. Considered "Endangered" with a 'decreasing' population trend (IUCN, 2008), the fragmented populations of this species are skewed towards females due to selective poaching of male Asian elephants. Any increase in incentives and demand for ivory could have a severe impact on Asian elephant populations.

10. Consultations

In September 2012, the Proponents met with 23 African elephant range States from West, Central and East Africa regarding this Proposal, and they all expressed their support for the proposal. A consultation was sent to all range States on Wednesday 19 September 2012. Two countries, South Africa and Namibia, responded to this consultation and said they were opposed to the amendment.

11. Additional remarks

12. References

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