

# **The Scope of the Wildlife Trade in the United States**

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*Abstract:* The United States is an important producer nation of wildlife and is one of the world's largest consumers of wildlife. The United States wildlife trade is briefly reviewed, primarily live birds, mammals, fish, reptiles, amphibians, and their products. This multi-million dollar business is growing larger each year causing greater demand for native wildlife and creating the need for each state to more closely monitor these commercial activities.

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## **The Wildlife Trade**

Marketing and trading in wildlife is as old as man himself. Prehistoric man often used furs, skins, ivory, shells and bone in various forms and shapes as a medium of exchange. As civilization developed, trade in all forms of commodities expanded beyond local, regional, and even national boundaries. A logical extension of this commerce involved the trade in wildlife and wildlife products. Such trade between nations involves the import and export of wildlife.

To understand the importation of wildlife into the United States, one must have a basic knowledge of the international wildlife trade. Essentially, there are 2 types of nations involved in the wildlife trade: producer nations and consumer nations. Producer nations are those which produce or export more wildlife than they import. Generally, these are developing nations that

need some commodity to use as a source of foreign exchange. Wildlife which can be harvested commercially fulfills this need and provides developing nations with a source of much needed income. Most of the nations of northern South America, central Africa, and southeast Asia are classed as producer nations. Wildlife consumer nations, on the other hand, are usually affluent nations such as the United States and the countries of western Europe. These societies create a market for the wildlife and wildlife products of the producer nations. Many nations are both producer nations for some forms of wildlife and wildlife products, and consumer nations for other forms. The result is a highly complex system of international trade throughout the world in wildlife and its products.

Prior to 1900, the United States was primarily a wildlife-producing nation exporting furs, hides and feather products for use in millinery and clothing. Subsequent to 1900, as the United States moved into the Industrial Age, this country became primarily a wildlife consumer. However, the United States still exports large volumes of fur and other animals into the international wildlife market.

In the early years of United States development, trade in wild meats and wildlife products was increasingly widespread. Many states began to outlaw the sale of native game species. Interstate activity and smuggling of wildlife taken illegally prompted passage of the Lacey Act in 1900 to more effectively protect wildlife in interstate traffic. This was followed by passage of the Black Bass Act which essentially provided the same type of protection for fish. This era also saw passage of the Wilson Tariff Act to deal with importation of wild bird plumes for commercial purposes and passage of the Migratory Bird Treaty Act to provide protection for migratory birds. The Lacey Act and Wilson Tariff Act were later amended to prohibit the importation of all wildlife killed, captured, or exported illegally from their country of origin. Years later the United States Endangered Species Act of 1969 banned imports of species listed as endangered except under special permit. It was followed by passage of the Endangered Species Act of 1973 which implements the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of wild fauna and flora (CITES).

CITES is an international agreement among participating nations to prevent the trade in wildlife and plants from endangering the valuable resource with extinction. It bans all commerce in endangered species and makes assurances that trade will not become so great as to endanger certain other species. Regulations regarding threatened species vary from no trade to limited trade depending on the species in question.

According to United States Fish and Wildlife Service statistics, wildlife imported into the United States from 1 October 1979 to 30 September 1980 included: 610,000 live birds, 706,000 live reptiles and amphibians, 100 mil-

lion live tropical fish, 57,000 game trophies, 31 million raw wildlife items, and 46 million manufactured wildlife items. The wholesale value of these imports was over 330 million dollars and the retail value about 1 billion dollars. In 1981 the wholesale value of United States wildlife imports increased to 335 million dollars (World Wildlife Fund, US 1982). In addition to these imports, the United States Justice Department estimates the illegal wildlife imported annually to the United States to be approximately 10% of the total, valued at approximately 100 million dollars. Wildlife importation into the United States is only a part of a multi-million dollar international business. This wildlife may pass through many different dealers, brokers and processors in many nations prior to reaching United States wholesale and retail outlets.

Wildlife products include manufactured items and all finished products made in whole or in part from wildlife (leather products such as purses, shoes, jewelry, fur coats, trinkets, novelty items, carvings, etc.). There have been huge increases in the importation of manufactured items in the last several years (Bavin 1977). There are currently 9 ports of entry designated for commercial wildlife importation: New York, Miami, New Orleans, Chicago, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Seattle, Dallas/Fort Worth, and Honolulu. New York, Los Angeles, and Miami handle the largest volume of imports (World Wildlife Fund, US 1981).

The United States Fish and Wildlife Service and the Florida Game and Fresh Water Fish Commission are the primary inspectors for imported wildlife in Florida. The Port of Miami receives hundreds of boxes of fish and wildlife each week and it is estimated that less than 5% are physically inspected due to limited funds and manpower.

Customs agents are the first to screen imports, and all wildlife shipments are then directed to the United States Fish and Wildlife Service Inspectors who are employed at each of the designated ports. These inspectors are knowledgeable in wildlife laws and trained to identify endangered animals and plants, as well as their parts and products. Each shipment is accompanied by a Declaration of Import Permit submitted by the importer upon entering the United States. The permit includes the name and address of the consignor and consignee, the number and species of wildlife, the country of origin, and the declared value. In addition to the import permit, all necessary foreign export and health permits must accompany the shipment. The wildlife inspectors check and collect the documents and may inspect the contents of the shipment before releasing it. An official United States Fish and Wildlife Service stamp must be placed on the documents before the shipment can clear Customs. All wildlife shipments must carry the same information contained on the import permit clearly visible on the exterior of each carton or crate. When wildlife shipments arrive without adequate documentation, the

cargo is placed in the custody of Customs or released to the importer under bond, pending the receipt of the required documents.

Companies sometimes attempt to evade wildlife regulations by falsely declaring that wildlife items were imported from other countries. These attempts to obscure the true country of origin are sometimes successful. Frequent transshipments take place to evade legal restrictions on wildlife imports.

Sometimes during the interval between inspections and loading the shipments onto the common carrier, dealers are able to open crates and substitute prohibited species for legal ones already checked by wildlife officers. Many illegal shipments are intentionally timed to depart late at night or on holidays when the inspection staff is shorthanded or absent. The intentional misidentification of a species on an export permit is another practice sometimes used when true identification is difficult and the chance of being caught falsifying the permit is minimal.

It is difficult to regulate wildlife imported by tourists as personal baggage. The identification of wildlife and inspection of passengers is time-consuming and requires qualified personnel who are in short supply. Extensive knowledge of worldwide wildlife regulations is essential to effectively monitor the tourist aspect of importation.

Another method of illegal importation for commercial purposes is outright smuggling. There will always be new ideas and methods to conceal shipments from wildlife officers. Sometimes importers simply mix protected species with unprotected species in the hope that they will go undetected and mask the violation.

## **Mammals**

Most of the mammals involved in the United States wildlife trade are imported hides and skins or are live primates used in biomedical research (Mack 1980). Zoos today receive very few primates from the wild.

The United States is the world's largest importer of primates. Of the approximately 100,000 mammals imported annually into the United States between 85% and 90% are primates. Most of these primates are used in biomedical research in the United States but many are re-exported for use outside the United States.

The demand for primates today exceeds the supply for several species, including rhesus macaques, owl monkeys, green monkeys, and squirrel monkeys. Therefore, it is becoming more necessary to increase the number of captive breeding colonies to supply the needs of biomedical research.

Many primates involved in international trade are protected in their native countries and are illegally taken and smuggled into the international

market. Demand worldwide is affecting the available supply of primates to the United States.

In 1976 the United States Public Health Service imposed a ban on importation of live primates for sale as pets in an effort to eliminate disease that may affect humans. The importation of primates for the pet trade prior to this ban accounted for the majority of primates imported into the United States.

Most trade in native mammals concentrates on species such as raccoons, opossums, skunks, flying squirrels, weasels, prairie dogs, chipmunks, etc. The volume of trade in native animals is estimated to be less than 10% of the total mammal trade.

Other products that are obtained from mammals include raw and manufactured ivory produced from whale teeth, walrus tusks and elephant tusks; deer tails, dew claws, antlers, etc., used in the Indian trade; and cat and bear claws used for jewelry.

The United States import value for raw and dressed furs for 1981 was 186.9 million dollars with an additional 23.6 million dollars worth of fur apparel and articles imported during the same period (World Wildlife Fund, US 1982). This 210.5 million dollars does not include any locally caught furbearers, only those imported. Although reliable figures are not available for furbearers caught in the United States, the quantity is substantial and comprises an additional several million dollars in value.

The waste involved in the wild fur and hide trade is surprisingly large. It is estimated that 30% to 50% of raw wild furs and hides from tropical countries are lost from improper preservation prior to importation (King 1978).

Based on the latest United States import statistics, the fur industry appears to be prospering. Fur imports for 1982 show an increase of over 2 million furs compared to 1980. In addition, the value of these imports rose by more than 26 million dollars (World Wildlife Fund, US 1982).

In Florida the fur trade is stable. Calculations based on fur buyers' reports show that in the 1981-82 season, 1,500 licensed trappers sold the pelts of at least 44,265 furbearers representing 7 species (Spratt and Brady 1982). Many additional pelts were exported out of state. Raccoons topped the State fur harvest with 38,076 reported. Others in order of total fur value included otter, bobcat, opossum, beaver, and mink.

## **Reptiles and Amphibians**

Live reptile imports into the United States average around 400,000 specimens a year. Reptile skins imported in 1981 numbered just under 1

million with a value of over 7 million dollars (World Wildlife Fund, US 1982).

Many reptiles are sold to amateur herpetologists in the United States who have converted a spare bedroom or garage into a herpetarium housing many species of both native and foreign reptiles. The more dangerous or exotic, the more highly prized and, therefore, the more valuable a creature is.

Crocodylian hides and products comprise one of the major areas of both legal and illegal trade in wildlife products. Illegal hides are often smuggled out of the country, taken to a second country which issues export permits to "legalize" or "launder" these hides. This practice of laundering illegal wildlife occurs throughout the spectrum of the international wildlife trade and affects both live wildlife as well as wildlife products. Many times it is impossible to determine the true source or to establish the illegality of the smuggled reptiles.

A problem in dealing with crocodylian importations is the difficulty of identifying small products or composite products made from small pieces of possibly several different species. Unless the crocodylian leather is found in sufficiently large pieces, accurate identification is often impossible, particularly when certain species are protected by United States or foreign law and other species are unprotected.

The trade in native reptiles is large with approximately 30% to 50% of the trade in imported exotics. A few protected species are expensively priced.

The United States is a major producer of live freshwater turtles, mainly for the pet trade and biomedical research. Native red-eared turtles bred in captivity comprise the vast majority of freshwater turtles commercially available.

Species such as leopard frogs, green frogs and bullfrogs make up the bulk of native amphibians involved in the wildlife trade. In addition to these, millions are collected from the wild and imported for sale primarily for biomedical research and scientific educational purposes, or to restaurants and seafood markets as frog legs.

## **Birds**

Millions of birds are taken from the wild each year, yielding a world trade in wild birds estimated to be in excess of 7.5 million birds annually. The value of annual wild bird sales is estimated to be 1 billion dollars (Nilsson 1981).

Early bird importation records (1901-1942) for the United States show approximately 71% canaries, whereas later records (1968-1972) show approximately 75% imported wild birds and only 13% canaries (Banks 1976).

Bird importation into the United States was reduced substantially in 1973 due to a United States Department of Agriculture ban to prevent the spread of Exotic Newcastles disease. Since the ban was lifted, a steady increase of imports has been noted. Most of these imports were cage birds, canaries, parrots, etc., for the pet trade. In a single year, 1977-78, the retail sales of birds increased 23.7% with retail sales totalling 101 million dollars (Nilsson 1981). The United States Department of Commerce reported 693,667 cage birds imported in calendar year 1981 with a declared value of over 11.7 million dollars.

Bird imports today are allowed only through approved quarantine stations. The United States Department of Agriculture Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service supervises the operation of these bird quarantine stations. The United States Department of Agriculture reported 647,172 birds commercially imported for fiscal year 1981. Of these, 25,171 (4%) were dead on arrival, 83,778 (13%) died in quarantine, and 21,182 (3%) were euthanized following exposure to disease. This is a 20% loss before they leave the quarantine station.

Some dealers resist restrictions and sometimes attempt to use illegal means to earn added profits. Smuggling methods are implemented as quickly as conservation laws are adopted and involve a network of land, sea, and air operations yielding enormous profits, with some birds bringing thousands of dollars each. Attempts at smuggling birds involve taping beaks, wrapping birds in mesh wire or newspaper, transporting in engine compartments and door panels or under automobile seats and boats. False names and false statements on import documents are occasionally used to gain entry into the country.

Mortality of birds concealed in cramped quarters is usually high either due to shock, overcrowding, temperature or inadequate care. The danger of disease introduction by smuggled birds is obvious.

Some agents with the United States Fish and Wildlife Service estimate 50,000 birds, representing a street value of 10 million dollars, are smuggled each year from Mexico alone (Nilsson 1981).

Controlling the introduction of exotic birds is often difficult or impossible due to the lack of public support in many instances. These exotic birds become popular among the public mainly due to their vivid colors and overall beauty. The majority of exotic birds now established in the United States are members of the parrot family. Escaped parrots and parakeets have been seen in many parts of the United States and the monk parakeet is very common in many eastern states.

Often these exotic introductions compete with native species for nesting sites and food; therefore, most states prohibit the release of exotics without authorization. For example, California prohibits the entry of several birds

which could be injurious to agriculture or compete with their native species.

Due to its geographical location, Florida has its share of established exotics. These consist of at least 14 mammals, 20 reptiles, 3 amphibians, 23 fishes, and 22 bird species (Hill 1975). With the continued high numbers of birds imported into the United States and the lack of adequate control measures, it is anticipated that problems associated with exotic birds will accelerate in coming years.

## Fish

### Ornamental Fish

The wholesale international trade in tropical fish alone amounts to 600 million dollars annually (UNCTAD/GATT 1979). The volume of the trade is overwhelming. Lachner et al. (1970) indicates the number of freshwater fish of interest to the aquarist to be in excess of 6,000 species. One expert estimates that only two-thirds of the freshwater species in the world have even been discovered, and that many previously unidentified species are continually found and sold internationally (Courtenay 1978).

The United States is the largest importer of tropical fish with Canada the major importer from the United States (Conroy 1975). Import statistics show the demand for tropical fish increasing, and it is expected to continue to increase. There is also a steady increase in the number of transshippers, who import fish from one country and export them to another country. Importation of live fish is the largest single category of United States wildlife importations. There is no current duty imposed on ornamental fish imported into the United States. The 1981 Department of Commerce figures show 19.4 million dollars worth of live fish imported. The majority of these are freshwater aquarium fish originating in South America.

Prior to 1945, the limited demand for tropical fish was met by wholesalers importing via ship and by domestic breeding of tropical fish. As aviation progressed, so did the trade in aquarium fish. The jet aircraft today reduces travel time and supplies more fish with reduced mortality. The United States Fish and Wildlife Service, Law Enforcement Division, estimates 260 million tropical fish imported into the United States in just 1 year, with 70% to 75% of these imports reaching the country via Florida.

Rising production costs for domestically raised fish and demand for more varied species prompted wholesalers to supplement products by importing larger quantities and different species. Overall expenses of domestic production still remain high enough that importation of ornamental fish in the juvenile state and growing them to marketable size is desirable.

The estimated mortality of imported fish is 50% to 70% between cap-



ture and their final destination. Therefore, at least twice as many fish must be captured to fill the desired order.

Ornamental tropical fish for the pet trade are bred commercially in large numbers in south Florida. Eighty-five percent of the ornamental aquarium fish marketed involve no more than 25 species, and the majority of sales involve only a few species, although hundreds of other species may be occasionally imported. Most freshwater fish sold in pet stores in the United States originate from these commercial fish farms in Florida or from foreign countries. In Florida alone there were over 450 licensed exotic fish dealers during 1981. Occasionally these dealers even develop new hybrid fish.

The commercial raising of freshwater aquarium fish began on the east coast of Florida (Miami) in 1926, and on the west coast (Tampa) in 1931. Because of the nature of the soil, large concrete vats are used in the "Miami style" of fish farming. However, in the Tampa-Lakeland-Bradenton area, a high water table and suitable soil permit the use of small earthen ponds for fish farming. Freshwater fish farming may prove to be a viable alternative to the extensive capture of fish from their native habitats.

Annual wholesale demand for aquarium fish in the United States is estimated to be 325 million dollars with domestic production supplying 20% to 25% of this total (UNCTAD/GATT 1979). One expert estimates that more than 95% of the freshwater aquarium fish raised in the United States are raised in Florida (Ross Socolof, pers. commun.). An average of 5,000 to 6,000 boxes of live fish are shipped from Florida weekly with an average of 175 specimens per box. This is 45.5 to 54.6 million fish annually shipped from Florida (UNCTAD/GATT 1979).

Freshwater fish are more popular than saltwater fish. They are easier to keep, cost less, have more variety, are longer lived, and breed readily. It is estimated that 90% of the fish trade is freshwater species and 10% saltwater species (UNCTAD/GATT 1979). Most saltwater fish enter the United States at Honolulu or Los Angeles and are transshipped to eastern states. Farms produce 50% to 60% of the freshwater fish sold, whereas over 99% of saltwater fish are wild caught (World Wildlife Fund, US 1980). There is much more difficulty involved in farming saltwater fish due to factors such as health, nutrition, and the chemical and physical environment.

Maintaining tropical ornamental fish is the third most popular hobby in the United States, with hobbyists accounting for 95% of the total market. Six percent of the households in the United States have an active aquarium and 7% more are considering getting an aquarium. Each year approximately 60 million fish die in United States aquariums from natural mortality (Unpubl. rep., Burke Marketing Res., 1981).

Little information is available on exotic populations of fish and their relationships with other organisms, including their possible effect on the aquatic

environment if accidentally or purposefully introduced. Native species are placed at risk by uncontrolled imports of exotic species which may be released or escape to establish themselves in the new environment. When exotic species introductions (biological pollution) occur and the species become established, their eradication is often difficult or impossible.

In Florida, the walking catfish (*Clarias batrachus*) may be the most harmful introduced species due to its highly competitive habits, prolific reproduction and rapid growth. The candiru (*Vandellia cirrhosa*) of South American origin, is attracted to urine and can penetrate the urethral opening of swimmers. If released in Florida, it could become a human health hazard. Many cichlids are efficient egg predators and could be harmful to native sunfish and bass populations should they become established in Florida waters.

### Food Fish and Fish Products

Commercial landings of food fish in the United States for 1980 were in excess of 6.48 billion pounds valued at 2.24 billion dollars. Of these landings 3.65 billion pounds were for human food valued at 2.09 billion dollars, and 2.83 billion pounds were for industrial products valued at 145 million dollars. Aquaculture production added at least 160.2 million pounds valued at 143.2 million dollars (U.S. Department of Commerce 1981).

The United States also imported over 2.1 billion pounds of edible fishery products valued at over 2.68 billion dollars and 965.8 million dollars worth of non-edible fishery products.

Processed fishery products were valued at 4.69 billion dollars in 1980. Also during that same year, the United States exported over 1 billion dollars worth of fishery products.

In 1978, fish and shellfish landings at Florida ports were 158.2 million pounds valued at just over 99 million dollars dockside. During the same year Florida firms packaged and processed seafood valued at 264 million dollars.

Landings of Florida freshwater species in 1978 comprised 14.8 million pounds valued at over 6.2 million dollars. Included were 10 million pounds of freshwater catfish valued at 3.3 million dollars; 800,000 pounds of tilapia valued at 128,000 dollars; and 4 million pounds of native scale fish valued at 2.8 million dollars (National Marine Fisheries Service 1978).

### Recommendations

Although the volume and net worth of the commercial wildlife trade is staggering, the southeastern states and the nation have been somewhat slow in developing effective regulatory programs to cope with these commercial activities. Most state conservation officers, while comfortable in dealing with sportsmen, are not so confident when required to deal with the regulation of

big business. This means that when inspections of wildlife businesses are conducted by the average conservation officer, he/she is often ill at ease, and record checks, when conducted, are cursory at best.

I believe each state should begin developing specialized programs, specialized officers, and specialized training to enable wildlife enforcement personnel to deal intelligently and effectively with the myriad of business/user levels in the wildlife trade. Florida's wildlife inspections program, initiated over a decade ago, is such a specialized project. In this non-consumptive user program, funded entirely from general revenue, degree-holding zoologists are trained as full-time wildlife law enforcement officers. They are charged with regulating Florida's vast wildlife trade including wildlife and fish importers, exporters, pet shops, fish farms, wildlife attractions, game farms, hunting preserves, taxidermists, fur dealers, and a host of other businesses. Specialized training enables them to work effectively with wildlife businessmen engaged in the sale of exotic and native wildlife and fish and their products. This program works well in Florida because it serves as a support function to the Florida wildlife officer.

The southeastern states should establish a cooperative effort to cope with the wildlife trade and to monitor its effect on wildlife and the consuming public. The combined expertise and experience of various state representatives can provide the foresight to predict which native species are receiving undue pressure from a particular aspect of the wildlife trade and properly regulate that consumption. The unified southeastern states would have a great influencing effect on federal regulations regarding this aspect of wildlife regulation, as well as a sound basis for requesting federal funding.

A uniform statistical procedure could be established for information exchange regarding all aspects of wildlife commercialization. Today there are many different methods of record keeping providing information with varying degrees of accuracy. A uniform system needs to be developed in order to adequately monitor the harvest and trade in wildlife. Reporting procedures need to encompass all aspects of the wildlife harvest with methods to check for accuracy.

Many dealers, fishermen and trappers operate on a cash only basis with no written records to divulge how much money they are really making. Based on first-hand, on-the-job experience, the figures provided in this report are bare minimum at best and the total volume of wildlife marketed today far exceeds that which is reported.

The establishment of a central coordinating point for exchange of information between the states regarding activities of various operations involving wildlife consumption and commercialization could be a valuable aid to law enforcement.

It would be most desirable for the southeastern states to be as nearly

uniform and consistent as is practical with their laws and regulations regarding the wildlife trade (importation, exportation, exhibition and sale). The development of uniform laws and regulations, easily understood by the public without technical confusing exceptions, is essential for improved court relations and receptiveness by prosecutors and judges. It is the tendency of today's courts to show leniency toward the defendant, particularly when laws are complicated with exceptions and difficult to understand. If we, as professionals, have difficulty recalling regulations that we deal with daily, how can we expect the general public to be knowledgeable and aware of those same regulations?

In Florida, a committee approach toward developing regulations that affect wildlife business has been successfully used in many cases. These regulations committees are partially composed of some of the business leaders who are to be regulated. When those who are to be regulated participate in the formulation of regulations, their quick support and acceptance of the regulations occur more readily than if they do not take part in the development of the regulations. They are also more knowledgeable and informed of the regulations and are better able to disseminate information to other key leaders. More consistent regulations among states would be a key factor in reasonable regulation of the vast commercial wildlife network in the United States.

Alteration of habitat is the most frequent cause of extinction of wildlife species and destruction of their populations, with commercial exploitation a surprisingly close second (King 1978). The states should develop environmental management plans by identifying habitat types and establishing enforcement priorities on those habitats supporting endangered, threatened, or other exploited species where alteration of that habitat would have an irreversible effect on those species. It is time now, not tomorrow, to stick our necks out and deal with alteration of the habitat through commercialization. Until we do this, we cannot effectively manage or protect the wildlife found there.

The consumption of wildlife in the form of products is often overlooked by enforcement personnel. We must not only identify the demand but must be able to predict shifts in demand for wildlife items in time to regulate it when necessary and also to deregulate as needed. For example, in the case of the American alligator, the demand increased for the product and we almost waited too long to effectively regulate it. Now we are deregulating to deal with increasing alligator populations. However, we did not foresee the shift to the sea turtles. Did we wait too long to effectively regulate them? What species is next?

We must avoid management or regulation by crisis. Regulation of one

species always causes demand to shift to another species. We must be able to predict this shift in demand if we are to effectively protect our native wildlife.

The "Urban Cowboy" exerted pressure on such items as snake skin hat bands, feathers for hats, and boots made from exotic skins. Look what happens to price as demand increases! There is a real need to identify the harvestable surplus of nongame wildlife that is exploited in the commercial trade. Without this knowledge, decimation of certain nongame native species may be inevitable.

How about reptile collectors taking native species? How many do they capture? What happens to them? What effect does indiscriminate release at various locations have on the species? Commercial demand by private collectors and the consuming general public must be identified. The landowner that kills every snake he sees is a consumer also—do not overlook him.

As regulatory agencies we must monitor not only the commercial exploitation of one species but its effect on all of the other species in the overall ecological scheme. This ecological scheme includes both plant life and invertebrate life which are both often overlooked. Educational programs to encourage planned awareness of wildlife habitats and potential problems with exotic species are also essential.

Reasonable regulation of commercial activities involving game and nongame wildlife and fish should be an enforcement priority in every state. Hopefully, this report has identified the need to take a closer look at the wildlife industry and its scope in each southeastern state.

Wildlife species that are abundant today may be in high demand tomorrow. In wildlife planning, as in weather forecasting, the important issue is not how much snow there is on the ground, but how fast it melts!

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