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Wildlife consumption and conservation awareness in China: a long way to go

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Abstract An attitudinal survey on wildlife consumption and conservation awareness was conducted in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Kunming and Nanning of China recently. Comparison with the results from a similar survey we did in 2004, after 8 years, the proportion of respondents who had consumed wildlife was dropped slightly from 31.3 % down to 29.6 %. It showed that the rates of wildlife consumed as food and as ingredients for traditional medicines in Guangzhou and Nanning ranked in the top. The consumptions in these two cities were mostly driven by utilitarian motivation, and mainly for food. Meanwhile, the rate of consumers taking wildlife as food was declining significantly in Beijing after 8 years. The results also showed that 52.7 % agreed that wildlife should not be consumed, which was significantly increased comparison with the survey result of 42.7 % in 2004. In addition, respondents agreed that wildlife could be used significantly decline from 42.8 to 34.8 %. It's indicated that wildlife conservation awareness was raised in China in the past years. We also founded that consumers with higher income and higher educational background were having higher wildlife consumption rate. It suggested that to strengthen the law enforcement and to promote the public awareness were keys to reduce wildlife consumption in China.

Keywords Wildlife consumption · Conservation awareness · Attitude changes · China

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Introduction

Throughout China's history, wildlife has been viewed as an important source of food and income. From a traditional Chinese perspective, as the same as many other countries, wildlife are a resource to be exploited, not something to be protected for its intrinsic value (Zhang et al. 2008). With the development of consumer economy, people's demand for wildlife products has grown substantially, and using wild animals as pets, medicine, health care and food has even become a fashionable lifestyle pursued by some people (Zhou 1997; Morgan 2000; Wang et al. 2001; Nooren and Claridge 2001). The robust market demand gives a huge drive to money-oriented smugglers. Wildlife trafficking, which involves excessive capturing and non-sustainable utilization of wild species, poses a severe threat to many endangered species. A large number of species are now on the verge of extinction as a result of commercial development (Li and Li 1997). As a conservative estimate, tens of millions of wild animals are shipped each year regionally and internationally destined to southern China for food or East and Southeast Asia for use in traditional medicine (World Wildlife Fund-United Kingdom 2001).

Wildlife trade in China is driven by a multitude of markets including: (1) Food, such as snake, turtle and tortoise, most of which can be found in the market as live animals or animal parts; (2) Medicine and tonic products, such as musk, tiger bone, bear bile, or deer antler, most of which can be found as animal parts in the drug store or supermarket; (3) Crafts and souvenirs, such as ivory and antelope skull, most of which can be found as animal parts in the craft store, gift shop or open market; (4) Garments and decoration, such as tiger skin, crocodile skin, and Tibetan antelope wool, most of which can be found as animal skins in the market or port; and (5) Pets, like turtles, lizards, and blue peacocks, most of which can be found as live animals in the market (Li and Zhang 2003; Zhang et al. 2008).

Over recent years, people's demand for wildlife has grown in most of China's developed cities, especially big cities in south China. Eating wildlife as food, purchasing ivory or big cats' pelt as crafts and souvenirs, and dressing animal furs have become a fashionable lifestyle and symbol of elite status. The rapid increasing of wildlife consumption and demands in country are key drives in declining wildlife population of endangered tiger, elephant, pangolins and other species threatened by poaching and trafficking (Gratwicke et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 2010; Burn et al. 2011).

The research used a questionnaire survey of the publics' present consumption situation and protection awareness of wildlife in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou (the capital city of Guangdong Province), Kunming (the capital city of Yunnan Province), and Nanning (the capital city of Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region) respectively, for the purpose of launching customized campaign of reducing wildlife consumption. The questionnaire and sampling methodology were the same to a survey we carried out in 2004 (Zhang et al. 2008). To compare the results from these two surveys could provide us the changes and trends of wildlife consumption and conservation awareness of general public in major cities in China, and we also expect that the research results could provide valuable reference to make decisions for government and non-government institutions, thereby, the disorderly consumer market could be well managed and the illegal wildlife trafficking could be punished.

Methods

The study used a structured questionnaire and face-to-face interviews in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Nanning and Kunming with at least 200 successful samples from each city.

Sampling

Adopt multi-stage random sampling to perform door-to-door interview (Coleman 1958). Choose qualified interviewees strictly according to a selecting order of “city–district–community–neighborhood committee–family–interviewee.” Interviewees (or respondents) must be 18 years old or above. Interviewees have not participated in any kind of survey within the last 6 months. Interviewees, family members, or close friends should not be working or have worked for a conservation group, a market research institute, a market research department of a corporation, or an advertisement design company, so that we could secure the respondents from the survey can present general public’s opinion without additional influences by certain group of expertise. The total sample size of the interview was 1,065 individuals, including Beijing ($N = 205$), Shanghai ($N = 211$), Guangzhou ($N = 215$), Kunming ($N = 222$) and Nanning ($N = 212$).

Interview method

Face-to-face questionnaire. Horizon China (<http://www.horizon-china.com/cn/index.html>), a professional survey company was contracted to conduct in-home interviews in this project. Trained and experienced research interviewers read out the questionnaires to the interviewees and filled out the answers to the questionnaires. Small gifts were distributed to respondents for their participation in this survey research.

In the survey, four types of consumer behavior among Chinese urban residents were addressed in the questionnaire: (1) Using wild animals as food, (2) Using medicine or tonic products containing wildlife ingredients, (3) Wearing ornaments and garments made from wildlife, and (4) Keeping wildlife as pets. Considering the frequency of these four types of wildlife consumption might not be identical, we chose the past 12 months period to track activities of consuming wildlife as food and medicine. We tracked back ornaments and garments consumption, as well as keeping wildlife as pets in the past 24 months. Wildlife we defined in this survey referred to those species listed in See Appendix Table 2. Meanwhile, consumption motivation, consumption venue, consumed species, consumption frequency, as well as the characteristics of consumer groups were also studied.

Zhang et al. (2008) defined “Pure Protection” (PP), “Conditional Utilization” (CU), “Pure Utilization” (PU) and “Vague” to assess the general attitudes towards wildlife consumption in China through the questions such as “Should wildlife consumption be allowed?” and “What kind of wildlife can be used for consumption?” in their survey in 2004. We also use these four categories in this survey to measure people’s attitudinal changes after 8 years.

Data analysis

We used Crosstable Analysis, Pearson Chi square test ($DF = 1$, Fisher’s exact test, two-tailed), to compare the difference of percentages that respondents’ attitude toward the four wildlife consumption categories between 2004 and 2012. The date weighted with valid respondent numbers from different cities in each survey. Kruskal–Wallis test was used to test the difference of the data among five cities, and Chi Square test was used to analyze the difference of the consumption attitudes between respondent groups. The software IBM SPSS 16.0 (IBM SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used to conduct the analysis.

Results

Chinese urban residents' wildlife consumption attitude

According to all 1,065 respondents from this survey, 561 people (52.7 %) agreed that wildlife should not be consumed. The percentage was significantly increased comparison with the survey result (42.7 %) in 2004 (Pearson Chi square test, $\chi^2 = 27.171$, Fisher's exact two tailed $P = 0.000$; see Table 1 for details). 371 people (34.8 %) agreed that wildlife could be used with some certain conditions. The result showed significantly decline with that from the survey (42.8 %) in 2004. The percentage of people with vague idea on wildlife consumption or refuse to answer question were significant reduced from 6.6 to 4.2 % (Table 1).

After 8 years, people from different cities showed different changes of their attitude toward wildlife consumption. In Beijing, the percentage of respondents in the PP group increased significantly from 48.6 % in 2004 to 88.3 % in 2012; the percentage of CU declined significantly from 42.6 to 13.7 %; and the percentage of PU dropped significantly from 4.3 to 0.5 %. In Shanghai and Kunming, both PP group increased significantly from 47.4 and 42.2 % in 2004, to 59.7 and 56.8 % in 2012; PU dropped from 5.7 and 3.7 % in 2004 to 0.5 and 0.5 % in 2012, but there were no significant difference. Although PP percentage slightly increase from 22.7 to 30.2 % after 8 years, there were no significant changes in all four cognition types of people's consumption attitude in Guangzhou, where had highest rate of CU (54.9 %) and PU (11.4 %), but lowest PP (22.7 %) among other cities in this survey (See details in Table 1). Nanning was added in research as a major wildlife trade path between Southeast Asian states and mainland China but it was absent in the survey in 2004, so its data was not included in this analysis.

315 respondents (29.6 % of total 1,065) claimed they involved in at least one of the four types of wildlife consumption in the past. It was slightly dropped compared to what we got in 2004 (31.3 % of total 1,352), but there was no significant difference (Pearson Chi square test, $\chi^2 = 0.821$, Fisher's exact two tailed $P = 0.374$).

Wildlife consumed as food

Twenty-three species, including nine species listed in the "National List of Wildlife Under Special Protection", were listed in our survey questionnaire as wildlife consumed for food (See Appendix Table 2). The results showed that 286 of 1,065 respondents (26.9 %) had previously consumed wildlife of given species; including 4.2 % of interviewees had eaten the protected animal species. And 83.3 % of respondents in Guangzhou had eaten wildlife in the past year that was significantly higher than those from the other four cities (Kruskall–Wallis test, $\chi^2 = 116.87$, $df = 4$, $P = 0.00$), followed by Nanning (53.3 %), Kunming (21.6 %), Shanghai (14.2 %) and Beijing (4.9 %). The rate of consuming wildlife as food in Beijing declined significantly from 19.1 % in 2004 to 4.9 % in 2012 (Pearson $\chi^2 = 22.297$, Fisher's exact $P = 0.000$). But the rate was increased in Guangzhou from 44.2 % to the current 83.3 % (Pearson $\chi^2 = 73.106$, Fisher's exact $P = 0.000$). There were no significant changes in Shanghai (Pearson $\chi^2 = 0.072$, Fisher's exact $P = 0.818$) and Kunming after 8 years (Pearson $\chi^2 = 0.811$, Fisher's exact $P = 0.436$). Of the species listed in See Appendix Table 2, wild quails (10.2 % of respondents) and snakes (10.0 %) were most commonly consumed as food, followed by sparrows (6.3 %), frogs (5.9 %) and ducks (5.2 %).

Table 1 Analysis of Chinese urban residents' attitude toward wildlife consumption in different cities

| Cognition type | Year | | Beijing | | Shanghai | | Guangzhou | | Kunming | | Total | |
|--|------|------|-----------------------|------|-----------------------|------|-----------------------|-----|-----------------------|-----|-----------------------|---|
| | 2004 | 2012 | Number of respondents | % | Number of respondents | % | Number of respondents | % | Number of respondents | % | Number of respondents | % |
| Pure Protection | 2004 | 191 | 48.6 | 237 | 47.4 | 53 | 22.7 | 34 | 42.2 | 577 | 42.7 | |
| Pearson Chi square test (Fisher's exact) | 2012 | 181 | 88.3 | 126 | 59.7 | 65 | 30.2 | 126 | 56.8 | 561 | 52.7 | |
| Conditional Utilization | 2004 | 167 | *** | 42.6 | 196 | 39.3 | 128 | ns | * | 578 | 42.8 | |
| Pearson Chi Square test (Fisher's exact) | 2012 | 28 | 13.7 | 68 | 32.2 | 118 | 54.9 | 78 | 35.1 | 371 | 34.8 | |
| Pure utilization | 2004 | 17 | *** | 4.3 | 28 | 5.7 | 27 | ns | * | 92 | 6.9 | |
| Pearson Chi square test (Fisher's exact) | 2012 | 1 | 0.5 | 1 | 0.5 | 20 | 9.3 | 1 | 0.5 | 62 | 5.8 | |
| Vague | 2004 | 17 | ** | 4.3 | 38 | 7.7 | 26 | ns | ns | 88 | 6.6 | |
| Pearson Chi square test (Fisher's exact) | 2012 | 3 | 1.5 | 5 | 2.4 | 19 | 8.8 | 11 | 5.0 | 45 | 4.2 | |
| Total | 2004 | 393 | ns | 500 | 233 | 79 | 1,335 | 222 | 1,039 | | | |
| | 2012 | 205 | | 211 | 215 | | | | | | | |

(1) The valid sample for this questionnaire was 1,039 (the total survey sample was 1,065 in this study); (2) Nanning was not in the survey in 2004 but added in this survey as a major wildlife trade path between Southeast Asian states and mainland China, so the data was not included in this comparison. (3) Cross Table Pearson Chi square test (Fisher's exact) was used to compare data from the two surveys in 2004 and 2012, $df = 1$

ns no significance
 *** $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 0.01$, * $P < 0.05$ (two-tailed)

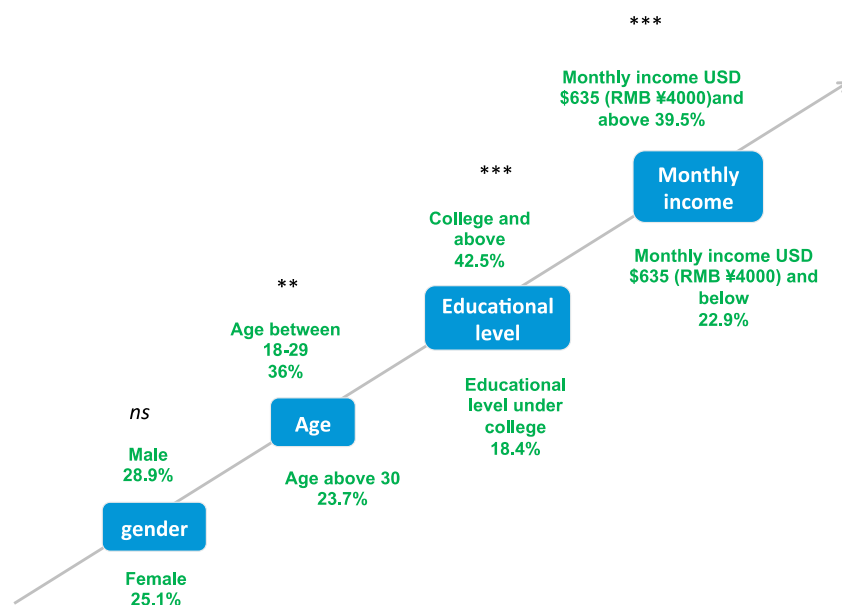


Fig. 1 A comparison of the percentage of wildlife consumers’ gender, age, educational level, and income reveals that being young, with higher education and higher income were prominent characteristics of wildlife consumers, Chi square test, $df = 1$, two-tailed, $***P < 0.001$, $**P < 0.01$, $*P < 0.05$ (two-tailed), *ns* no significance ($N = 315$)

A comparison of gender, age, educational level, and income reveals that being young (18–29 year-old, 36 %), higher educated (college and above, 42.5 %) and white-collar (monthly salary above \$650 USD, 39.5 %) were prominent characteristics of wildlife consumers from five China cities in this survey (Fig. 1).

Average frequency of eating wildlife among five cities’ respondents was 2.7 times per year. 51.3 % of respondents consumed wildlife as food for 1–2 times per year, 38.1 % of respondents ate 3–5 times each year. On average, the ratio of respondents eating wild animals in Beijing was low, but those consumers’ consumption frequency was high. 62.5 % of consumers in Beijing consumed wild animals for 3–5 times each year. Consumption frequencies in Shanghai and Kunming were relatively low. Most consumers in Shanghai, Kunming, and Guangzhou consumed wild animals 1–2 times each year; 48.8 % of consumer respondents in Nanning ate wild animals more than five times each year. Good taste (45.7 %), “for fun” (38.6 %) and better nutrition (34.7 %) were the top three reasons for consumers eating wildlife. 26.3 % of wild animal eaters were passive consumers consuming wildlife as food at social occasions but no for their taste or nutrition.

Wildlife consumed as ingredients for traditional medicines

This survey listed 18 species of wild animals and 4 species of wild plants. 9.6 % of interviewees admitted they had previously consumed listed animals and plants as medicine or health products at least once. Ratio of respondents who had never taken traditional medicines or health products containing wild plants and wild animal parts was 90.4 %.

31.2 % of respondents in Guangzhou had used traditional medicines and health products containing wild plants and animals as ingredients in the past year. This rate/proportion reached 23.6 % in Nanning, and it was 12.5 % in Kunming. Consumption rate in Beijing was 1.5 % and Shanghai was 2.8 %.

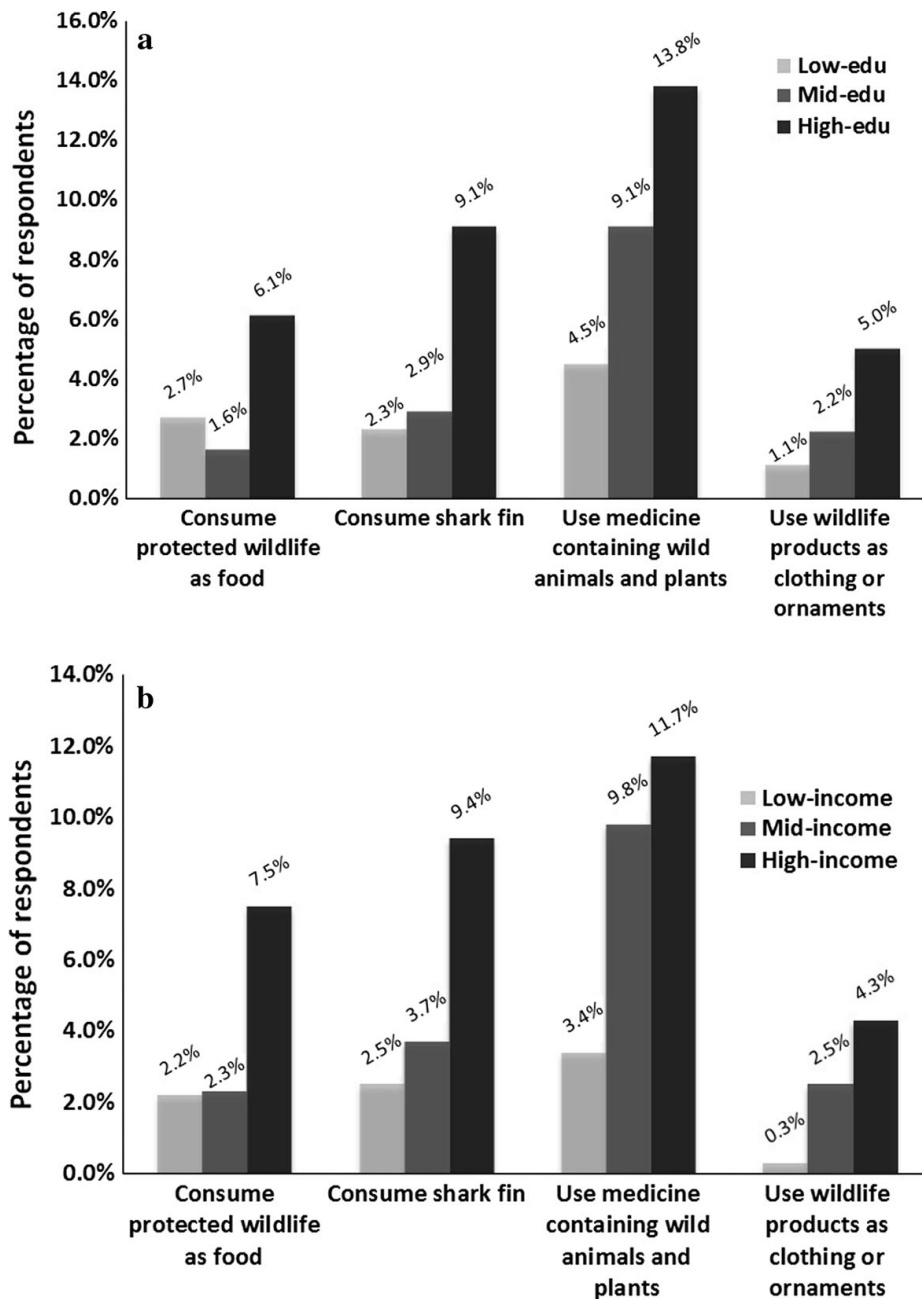


Fig. 2 High percentage of wildlife consumers were those with higher education and higher income groups

For the consumer groups, compared with respondents with medium or low income and educational degrees, people with high income and educational degrees had higher consumption rate of wild animals and plants (Fig. 2). Consumers in elder age groups were less likely to consume medicines and health products containing wild animals and plants as ingredients, (22.1 % above 40 year-old, 35.2 % between 18 and 40 year-old).

Wildlife used for ornaments or clothing

20 kinds of ornaments and clothing were listed in the questionnaire (See Appendix Table 2). Only 31 people (2.9 % of all respondents) admitted that they had used at least one kind of the products during the past 2 years. Consumption rate for people with high

educational level was higher than consumption rates for people with middle and low educational levels. Similarly, the consumption rate tended to be higher for consumers with high income (Fig. 2).

Among the 20 categories of animal ornaments and clothing, products made of coral, seal pelt, ivory and otter skin were the top four categories most frequently consumed. Categories of products tended to be more diversified for consumers with mid to high levels of education and income. In addition, the average amount of wildlife products consumed as ornament or clothing in the past 2 years was 2.05 times per person among those 31 consumer respondents; 73.9 % of them purchased wildlife ornament or clothing once to twice per year, 21.5 % consumed 3–5 times a year, and 2.3 % consumed more than five times a year.

Wildlife kept as pets

3.9 % of respondents had kept wild animals among the 28 listed group species as pets in past 2 years. People who never kept wildlife as pet took up the percentage of 96.1 %. Chelonians were the most popular pet. Chelonians and skilled birds were pet species popular in Beijing and Shanghai, while people in Guangdong, Nanning and Kunming kept more species as pet. Wild birds were particularly favorable in Kunming. The rate of raising wild animals in Nanning (12.3 %) was prominently higher than those of other 4 cities (4.2 % on average).

On average, each pet keeper had 1.95 pets in the past 2 years. 80.2 % of those pet keepers raised 1–2 pets at home, and 2.1 % of them raised more than five wildlife pets. For residents who kept wild animals in the past 2 years, pet market (51.8 %) was the primary resource to get a pet, followed by gifts or adoption (30.9 %). The third most popular approach was purchasing from less regulated mobile stalls (21.7 %).

Raising wild animals could bring fun and joy to one's life was the major reason that consumers kept wildlife as pets (56.2 %); the next reason was to admire the animals' special features (41.1 %); and 11.2 % of wild animal keepers considered raising them as a symbol of fashion.

Consumption frequency

We referred to people directly involved in eating, using, wearing, or raising wild animals as “actual consumers.” 315 respondents of the survey, or 29.6 % of the total respondents, were involved in at least one of the mentioned consumption behaviors/means. We used “frequency of consumption” as guideline to classify consumers into degrees of consumption. In this survey, there were 303 out of 315 interviewees who provided valid answers to the question of consumption frequency.

We classified each kind of wildlife consumption behavior (into different categories) and assigned them with numeric values. Consumption of once to twice a year received one point, three to five times a year earned two points, over five times a year got three points, so that the total numeric value of an actual consumer reflected his or her consumption behavior. Consumers ended up with a score ranging from 1 to 12. We classified 303 valid samples into the following categories: (A) respondents with 1–2 points were light consumers; (B) 3–4 points were mild consumers; and (C) five points and above were heavy consumers. Among the 303 actual consumers, about 60 % (63.7 %) were light consumers, followed by 27.5 % mild consumers and 8.8 % heavy consumers.

For those respondents refused to consume wild animal mainly for their wildlife protection awareness (46.6 %). Health and infectious disease concerns (29.0 %), and lack of access (13.9 %) were also significant factors that lead people did not consume wildlife products.

Discussion

Over recent years, people's demand for wildlife had grown in most of China's developed cities, especially big cities in south China. Eating wildlife as food, purchasing ivory or big cats' pelt as crafts and souvenirs, and dressing animal furs had become a fashionable lifestyle and symbol of elite status. The rapid increasing of wildlife consumption and demands in country, which became the key driver to the declining of wildlife population of endangered Asian big cats (Dinerstein et al. 2007; Gratwicke et al. 2008), African elephants (Burn et al. 2011; Maisels et al. 2013), pangolins (Srikosamatara et al. 1992; Zhang et al. 2010) and other species threatened by illegal killing and trafficking.

In our previous research conducted in 2004, the percentage of respondents who had consumed wildlife was 31.1 % (Zhang et al. 2008). Now after 8 years, the proportion declined to 29.6 %, but there was no significant reduction of wildlife consumption in the country (Pearson Chi square test, $\chi^2 = 0.067$, $df = 1$, Fisher's exact $P = 0.796$). This result indicated that the size of wildlife consumption group was not yet under control, and the problem of wildlife consumption in China was still worrying.

The consumption rate of Guangzhou ranked on the top among five cities in this survey. In addition, the species consumed were being diversified and consumption of wildlife was becoming more common in Guangzhou and Nanning. The two cities' consumption was driven mostly by utilitarian motivation, and the main consumption was eating wildlife as food.

Wildlife consumers tended to be younger in age. Consumers with higher income and higher educational background had higher wildlife consumption rates, and formed the main consumer group of wild animals. They preferred "selective protection", "protecting according to the law" and "protection of only purely wild animals" in terms of their consumption attitude.

Compared to the situation in 2004, the rate of consumers consuming wildlife as food in Beijing and Shanghai was conspicuously declining. Beijing's wildlife consumption rated in all four means of consumption was the lowest among the five cities. Residents of Beijing and Shanghai showed significantly stronger support to wildlife protection through "protecting all wildlife" (or "complete protection of wildlife") and refraining from eating, using, or keeping wildlife as pets (Table 1). These encouraging findings could be due to the successful and continuous public awareness education campaigns led by various governmental agencies and civil society during the Beijing Olympics in 2008 and the Shanghai World Expo in 2010.

Although "protection of all wildlife" was still agreed on by the majority, the rate of people agreeing with "selective protection" was rising and becoming the top protection ideology of the actual wildlife consumer group. "Protection according to law" was agreed upon among types of selective protection. However, the actual consumers had very limited knowledge of related laws, so consumption of legally protected wildlife still existed. The gap between protection attitude and actual consumption behavior needed to be solved/diminished by spreading legal knowledge.

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Appendix

See Table 2.

Table 2 Species listed in the questionnaire to question the consumption of wildlife products as food, traditional medicines, ornaments or clothing, and kept as pets

| Consumed as food | Consumed as medicine | Consumed for ornaments or clothing | Kept as pets |
|--|---|--|--|
| Shark (general shark species) | Seahorse (all seahorse species in general) | Coral (Coral species in general) | Salamanders (species in common trade) |
| Chinese sturgeon (<i>Acipenser sinensis</i>) I | Toad venom (<i>Bufo gargarizans</i>) | Specimen of butterfly (species unknown) | Lizards (species in common trade) |
| Giant salamander (<i>Andrias davidianus</i>) II | Snake gall (wild snake species in general) | Specimen of peacock feather (<i>Pavo</i>) | Chelonian (species in common trade) I and II |
| Frogs (general frog species) | Snake oil (wild snake species in general) | Hawksbill (<i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i>) II | Red-billed leiothrix (<i>Leiothrix lutea</i>) |
| Snakes (general snake species) | Giant gecko (<i>Gekko gecko</i>) II | Python skin (<i>Python molurus</i>) I | Ornamental pigeons (<i>Columba</i>) |
| Chelonians (general turtle species) | shell (turtle species in general) | (species unknown) | Oriental Dollarbird (<i>Eurystomus orientalis</i>) |
| Yangtze alligator (<i>Aligator sinensis</i>) I | Rhino horn (<i>Dicerorhinus</i>) I | Ivory (<i>Ixodonta</i> or <i>Elephas maximus</i>) I | Asian Paradise Flycatcher (<i>Terpsiphone paradise</i>) |
| Monitor lizards (<i>Varanus</i>) I | Antelope horn (<i>Saiga tatarica</i>) I | Specimen of argali's head (<i>Ovis ammon</i>) II | Blue-and-white Flycatcher (<i>Cyanoptila cyanomelana</i>) |
| Wild duck (general duck species) | Musk (<i>Noschus</i>) I | Shahtoosh (<i>Pantholops hodgsoni</i>) I | Red-billed Blue Magpie (<i>Urocissa erythrorhyncha</i>) |
| Turtle dove (<i>Streptopelia turtur</i>) | Deer penis (<i>Cervus</i>) | Sika deer skin (<i>Cervus nippon</i>) I | Indian pitta (<i>Pitta brachyurum</i>) |
| Pheasant (<i>Phasianus colchicus</i>) | Deer blood (<i>Cervus</i>) | Muntjac skin (<i>Muntiacus</i>) | Japanese white-eye (<i>Zosterops japonicas</i>) |
| Common quail (<i>Coturnix coturnix</i>) | Pilose antler (<i>Cervus</i>) | Specimen of deer antler (species unknown) | Parrot (<i>Agapornis</i> , <i>Psittacula</i> , and <i>Cacatua</i>) |
| Ostrich (<i>Struthio camelus</i>) | Pangolin scales (<i>Manis</i>) II | Specimen of rhino horn (<i>Dicerorhinus</i>) I | Crested mynah (<i>Acridotheres cristatellus</i>) |
| Sparrows (<i>Passer</i> , <i>Emberiza</i>) | Bear gall (<i>Ursus</i>) II | Fur of seal (species unknown) | Hill mynah (<i>Gracula religiosa</i>) |
| Bamboo rat (<i>Rhizomys sinensis</i>) | Tiger bone (<i>Panthera tigris</i>) I | Fur of marten (<i>Martes</i>) | (<i>Psittacula alexandri</i>) II |
| Hare (<i>Lepus</i>) | bone (<i>Panthera</i>) I | Fur of fox (species unknown) | Japanese Grosbeak (<i>Eophona personata</i>) |
| Mongolian gazelle (<i>Procapra gutturosa</i>) II | Fur seal oil (<i>Arctocephalus</i>) | Fur of raccoon dog (<i>Nyctereutes procyonoides</i>) | Siberian Blue Robin (<i>Luscinia cyane</i>) |
| Wild boar (<i>Sus scrofa</i>) | Elephant skin (<i>Elephas maximus</i>) I | Otter skin (<i>Lutra</i> or <i>Aonyx</i>) II | White-rumped Munia (<i>Lonchura striata</i>) |
| Roe deer (<i>Capreolus pygargus</i>) II | Chinese yew (<i>Taxus chinensis</i>) I | Lynx skin (<i>Felis lynx</i>) II | Vinous-throated Parrotbill (<i>Paradoxornis webbianus</i>) |
| Sika deer (<i>Cervus nippon</i>) I | Lignum Santali Albi (<i>Santalum album</i>) | Tiger skin (<i>Panthera tigris</i>) I | <i>Leucodiotron</i> |
| Black Bear (<i>Ursus thibetanus</i>) | Caterpillar fungus (<i>Cordyceps sinensis</i>) II | | Goldfinch (<i>Carduelis carduelis</i>) |
| II Pangolin (<i>Manis</i>) II | Dendrobium (<i>Dendrobium</i>) I or II | | Pallas's Leaf Warbler (<i>Phylloscopus proregulus</i>) |
| Masked palm civet (<i>Paraguma larvata</i>) | | | Siberian Rubythroat (<i>Luscinia calliope</i>) |
| | | | <i>Alauda</i> |
| | | | <i>Cettia</i> spp. |
| | | | Hawks and owls (species in common trade) I or II |
| | | | (<i>Macaca</i>) II |
| | | | Loris (<i>Loris</i> or <i>Nycticebus</i>) I |

I first class protected species, II second class protected species (China Wildlife Protection Law)

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