

POST-MORTEM PROTOCOL



Minimally, it is vital that frozen liver, kidney, fat, skeletal muscle, heart and spleen be saved after death. Frozen gut contents should be saved in cases of suspected toxicosis. If a death is anticipated, veterinary coordinators and researchers should be contacted for updated tissue requests. (See inside the back cover for the names and addresses of pathology coordinators.)

RESTRAINT AND ANESTHESIA



Evan Blumer, VMD

Intensive management of rhinos in captivity necessitates occasional procedures that require restraint of the animal for physical examination, sample collection or medical treatment. The unique anatomy, physiology and temperament of rhinos present many challenges to physical or chemical restraint. However, a number of techniques and facilities have been developed that provide safe options for handling these species. Following is a summary of approaches used by managers both in captivity and in the field. It should be noted that significant variation exists among individual rhinos with respect to the methods outlined below. The following should be used as a guideline only.

PHYSICAL RESTRAINT

A number of approaches to the physical restraint of rhinos have been attempted in recent years.

BOX STALL/FREE STALL

A basic box stall is the simplest and often the most effective method for minor restraint of rhinos. Visual inspections and minor physical procedures can be performed with animals in these facilities, and certain individuals can be conditioned to accept more manipulative procedures, such as reproductive examinations and blood sampling. Many institutions have incorporated a box stall within a transfer alley by adding additional gates (at the head and tail) to complete the stall. Several institutions have incorporated a box stall in the corner of a holding pen. The animals are regularly fed inside the stall, and a rear gate can be closed if and when it is considered necessary.

Several principles should be applied in the construction of a box stall. These principles should also be considered when constructing any of the other types of physical restraint devices discussed below.

- The height at the front of the stall should be great enough that the rhinoceros cannot place its chin over the top. If the chin can be placed over the top, the animal may attempt to climb out the front of the stall using its chin for leverage. Additionally, horizontal bars should be avoided in the construction of the front of the stall, as they may provide a step for the animal, which facilitates attempts to climb out the front of the stall and may increase the animal's likelihood of breaking a horn. For these reasons, this author recommends that either smooth surfaces or vertical structures (e.g., steel pipe) be used in the construction of the front portions of a box stall.
- If reproductive examinations and/or rectal palpation procedures will be conducted



A free-stall chute that is incorporated into an enclosure can be particularly effective for relatively non-invasive procedures. Note how the angled entry and safety pipes allow a veterinarian or researcher access to the rear of the animal without the possibility of the animal's backing straight out. (Photo: Fossil Kin Wildlife Center)

in the stall, close attention should be paid to the construction of the rear portion of the box stall. Most managers believe that a series of removable vertical structures provide both adequate safety and access to the animal.

- Regardless of the specific design or placement of a rhinoceros restraint device, the most critical factor in the success of physical restraint procedures is conditioning of the animals to a restraint. Whenever possible, placement of a restraint device should be such that it can be incorporated into the daily routine of the animals.

Several other basic designs have been developed for more complete physical restraint of rhinos.

HEAD/SHOULDER GATES

Several institutions have attempted the development of a head/shoulder gate system that further restricts the movement of the animal. This approach consists of an elongated box stall with the addition of a mechanism to restrict forward motion. These mechanisms generally consist of vertical bars that are moved in from the sides or a "yoke" that is lowered from above and fits along the side of the neck in front of the shoulders. Difficulties with this approach generally include problems with the placement of the head/shoulder restraint with animals of varying sizes and a tendency of some individuals to "fight" the head/shoulder restraint.

RESTRAINT CHUTES

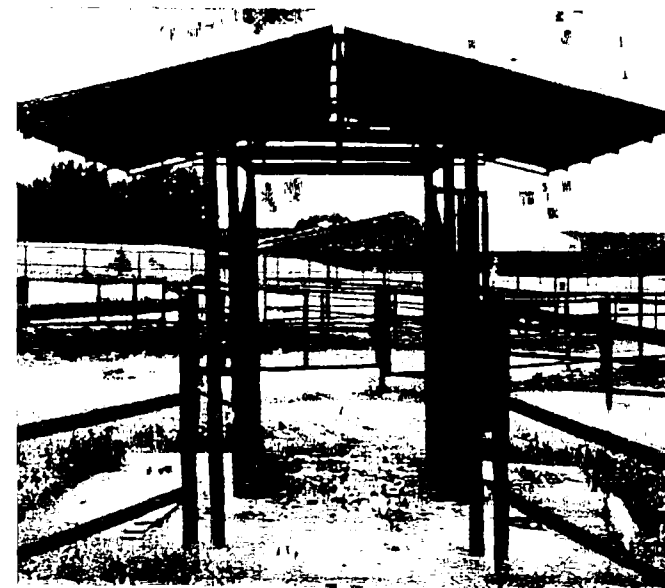
A number of institutions have developed mechanical "squeeze chutes" to further the physical restraint of rhinos. In this design, one or more of the walls are mobile and can be moved to further restrict the area in which the rhino is held. The basic differences between the designs are whether the chutes are adjustable laterally, longitudinally or both and whether the drive mechanism is manual, pneumatic/hydraulic or motor driven. From this author's experiences, the most successful approach to "squeezing" a rhinoceros is to provide a narrow area to prevent lateral movement and to "squeeze" the animal longitudinally from the rear. Methods of powering the drive mechanism are primarily a matter of personal or institutional choice; however, it should be noted that the "squeeze mechanism" should function to restrict the motion of the rhinoceros as opposed to forcibly restraining it.

CHEMICAL RESTRAINT

In situations in which the physical restraint of rhinos is not possible or practical, a number of options exist for their restraint through chemical means. Many of the drug regimens outlined below may be used for varying levels of tranquilization (from mild sedation to full anesthesia). Specific decisions as to which regimen is most appropriate must be based on clinical experience, drug availability and the specifics of the case.

Several principles should be followed to increase the safety of chemical restraint procedures for both the animals and personnel:

- When applicable, antagonists to the restraint drugs should be prepared prior to the initiation of the procedure and should be available for rapid administration.
- Careful monitoring of the patient (auscultation, ECG, pulse-oximetry, etc.) will help to rapidly identify problems should they develop and allow early intervention.
- The large size of an adult rhinoceros may result in further complications during anesthetic procedures. Efforts should be made to maintain the animal in sternal



A closed-stall chute is effective with animals that have not been conditioned, although acclimating the animal to the chute is recommended. Both back and front gates in a closed-chute design can restrict the rhino's movement by sliding forward. (Photo: Fossil Rim Wildlife Center)

recumbency when possible to minimize respiratory complications, and if the procedure is to last more than 30 min, efforts should be made to "pad" the area under the animal (with mattresses, inflated innertubes, straw/hay bedding, etc.) to minimize the effects of pressure on the limbs.

ETORPHINE

Etorphine (M-99) remains the "drug of choice" for a wide range of restraint procedures with rhinos. The particular sensitivity of rhinos to narcotics results in the ability to induce effects ranging from mild sedation and "standing restraint" to surgical anesthesia. Recently, etorphine has not been available for purchase in North America; however, a new manufacturer is awaiting Food and Drug Administration approval and expects to have a product available for shipment soon.

The particular effect of etorphine varies with the dose, and a desired level of restraint can often be achieved by carefully titrating the dose. Table 19 lists dose ranges for etorphine for the three most common rhinoceros species.

Several additional drugs are often used in conjunction with etorphine to moderate its pharmacological effects. Xylazine or detomidine is often used to improve muscular relaxation during anesthesia (See below), and hyaluronidase has been used to increase the rate of absorption of the drug following intramuscular injection.

Antagonism of the effects of etorphine can be accomplished through the use of diprenorphine (2 to 3X etorphine dose), naloxone (100X etorphine dose) or naltrexone (50 to 100X etorphine dose). It should be noted that rhinos seem to be particularly sensitive to recycling or "renarcotization" following etorphine anesthesia and antagonism with diprenorphine. This problem seems less likely to occur if naltrexone is used as the antagonist.

NALORPHINE

Nalorphine, an additional narcotic antagonist, has been used extensively in both Africa and Europe to moderate the effects of narcotic anesthesia in rhinos. In many cases, especially when elevated narcotic dosages are used to achieve rapid restraint (as in field-capture operations), respiratory suppression may be pronounced. Administration of nalorphine results in an increase in the rate and depth of respiration, increased blood pressure and, depending on the dose, an elevation of the plane of anesthesia. Recent work (Allen & Kock, pers. comm.) has demonstrated that administration of small amounts (10.0 to 15.0 mg IV) of nalorphine leads to a dramatic increase in the rate of oxygen saturation (PO_2) in anesthetized rhinos without significant arousal.

CARFENTANIL

With the recent unavailability of etorphine, several institutions have begun to experiment with carfentanil as an alternative anesthetic agent. Successful anesthesia has been achieved in black rhinos using 0.9 to 1.2 mg (total dose/adult animal), and in white rhinos using 1.0 to 1.5 mg (total dose/adult animal). As of the time of this writing, carfentanil has not been used to anesthetize a greater one-horned rhinoceros. Most experienced veterinarians believe that carfentanil should be effective in this species at dosages similar to those for white rhinos.

Very few attempts have been made to use carfentanil for standing restraint in rhinos. Although it should be effective for this purpose, the rapid induction seen with carfentanil

TABLE 19. Dose ranges for etorphine anesthesia

Species	Standing Restraint	Full Recumbancy
White rhino	0.5 - 1.0 mg total dose	2.0 - 4.0 mg total dose
Black rhino	0.25 - 0.75 mg total dose	1.0 - 3.0 mg total dose
Greater one-horned rhino	0.5 - 1.0 mg total dose	2.0 - 4.0 mg total dose

Dose ranges listed above are for adult animals in a captive situation. Exact dosage should be determined based on the size of the individual and the conditions in which the procedure is performed.

(when compared to etorphine) may limit the "window" before the animal may become recumbent. At this time, the best dosage recommendation for standing restraint is 25% of the dose used to achieve full recumbency.

Antagonism of the effects of carfentanil can best be achieved with naltrexone at a dosage rate of 100 to 200X the carfentanil dose.

XYLAZINE AND DETOMIDINE

Xylazine (Rompun) and detomidine (Dormosedan) have been used frequently as additions to etorphine and carfentanil anesthetic protocols and independently for more minor chemical restraint. As an addition to narcotic anesthetics, they improve muscle relaxation and may have a synergistic effect that reduces the induction time. Typically, 100 to 150 mg of xylazine or 10 to 15 mg of detomidine is administered per adult rhino either as a pre-medication (15 to 20 min prior to narcotic administration) or mixed as a "cocktail" with the narcotic of choice. Additionally, these drugs may be used alone to achieve mild to moderate sedation or to relieve pain. Dosages of these drugs when used independently must be based on clinical assessment but generally are 2 to 3X those listed above for use with narcotic anesthetics.

Both xylazine and detomidine have depressant effects on heart rate, respiratory rate and blood pressure, and careful monitoring is essential to ensure patient safety. The antagonist yohimbine may be administered (0.1 mg/kg) to counteract the effects of xylazine; however, yohimbine is only marginally effective as an antagonist to detomidine. Although it is not yet widely available in the United States, the antagonist atipamazole is effective with both xylazine and detomidine.

BUTORPHANOL + DETOMIDINE

In recent months, due to the continued unavailability of etorphine, several institutions have begun to use a combination of butorphanol and detomidine to achieve standing restraint in several rhinoceros species. Although a relatively small number of these procedures have been performed, Table 20 lists dosages recommended as "starting points."

NEUROLEPTICS

Several neuroleptic drugs have been used to reduce anxiety and stress during transport and handling procedures. These drugs have the advantage of calming the animal without significant sedation. Azaperone has been used frequently, but dosages vary widely. Use of haloperidol has been reported for only one individual. In that case severe excitation was noted; however, the individual was later diagnosed with a serious neurological disease (encephalomalacia), and the deleterious effects appear to have been unrelated to the administration of haloperidol. Based on its efficacy and safety in a wide range of other species and the successful use of related compounds in rhinos, further investigation into the use of haloperidol for rhinos is warranted.

LONG-ACTING NEUROLEPTICS (LANs)

Several LANs have been used extensively on rhinos in Africa and Europe. Zuclopenthixol acetate (Clopixol - Acuphase) is effective for 2 to 3 days, and perphenazine enanthate (Trilafon) is effective for 5 to 7 days. Unfortunately, these compounds are not readily available in the United States at this time.

TABLE 20. Dose range for combination butorphanol and detomidine anesthesia

Type	Drugs	Comments
Standing sedation	150 mcg/kg butorphanol + 30 mcg/kg detomidine	Sufficient for blood collection, physical exam and minor manipulations.
Full recumbancy	300 mcg/kg butorphanol + 60 mcg/kg detomidine	Produces bradycardia and hypoxemia. Treat hypoxemia with 100% oxygen via nasal catheter. Bradycardia has not proven to be clinically significant.
Antagonism	500 mcg/kg naltrexone + 300 mcg/kg yohimbine	Administer IV; effects abolished in 1 to 2 min

Note: Drugs 1 and 2 are given in combination. Further information on this anesthetic protocol may be obtained from Dr. Pat Morris, Associate Veterinarian, San Diego Zoo.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

For additional information, please refer to the following references: Kock & Morkel, 1993; Kock & Garnier, 1991; and Rogers, 1993.

Literature Cited

Allen, J. & Kock, M.D. (1994). San Diego Wild Animal Park, San Diego, California, and Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management, Zimbabwe.

Asakura, S., Nakagawa, S., & Masui, M. (1960). On the leptospirosis of the black rhinoceros. J. Jap. Assoc. Zool. Gard. Aq., 2, 35-37.

Barbiers, R. (1994). Personal communication. Detroit Zoological Park, Detroit, Michigan.

Basson, P., & Hofmeyr, J. (1973). Mortalities associated with wildlife capture operations. P. 159 in Young, E. (Ed.) The capture and care of wild animals. Human and Rousseau, Capetown.

Bigalke, R. (1946). The regeneration of the anterior horn of the black rhinoceros, *Diceros bicornis*. Linn. Proc. Zool. Soc. London 115, 323-326.

Blumer, E. (1992). Dystocia in a white rhinoceros (*Ceratotherium simum simum*). Pers. comm. Fossil Rim Wildlife Center, Glen Rose, Texas, USA.

Cook, R. (1994). Personal communication. NYZS/The Wildlife Society, Bronx, New York.

Dalvosio, J. R., Stetter, M., & Wells Mikota, S.K. (in press, 1992). Rhinoceros rhinorrhea: cause of an air borne *Mycobacterium bovis* outbreak in zoo keepers. (TB in *Ceratotherium simum*). Cl. Inf. Dis.

DeVos, V. (1975). Volvulus in a white rhinoceros (*Ceratotherium simum*). J.S. Afr. Vet. Med. Assoc. 46, 374.

Douglass, E.M., Plue, R.E., & Kord, C.E. (1980). Hemolytic suggestive of leptospirosis in black rhinoceros. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc., 117, 921-923.

Ensley, P.K., & Bush, M. (1976). Rectal mucosal prolapse in an Indian rhinoceros (*Rhinoceros unicornis*). J. Zoo An. Med., 7, 22-25.

Gillespie, D., Burton, M., Kohn, C., Gosselin, S., & Munson, L. (1990). An unusual case of ulcerative stomatitis and prolonged pregnancy in a black rhinoceros. 1990 Proc. Am. Assoc. Zoo Vet., 319-321.

Griffith, A.S. (1928). Tuberculosis in captive wild animals. J. Hygiene (Cambridge), 28, 198-218.

Haigh, J.C. (1975). Case of a constipated rhino. Vet. Rec., 97, 282.

Hanerton, A.E. (1942). Reports on deaths occurring in the society's gardens during the year 1941 (Tuberculosis in a rhinoceros). Proc. Zool. Soc. London, 112(B), 120-135.

Haykey, C.M. (1975). Comparative mammalian haematology. Wm. Heinemann Medical Books Ltd, London, 154-155.

Hofmeyr, J.M., Ebedes, H., Fryer, R.E.M., & de Bruine, J.R. (1975). The capture and translocation of the black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis* Linn.) in South West Africa. Madoqua, 42.

International Species Information System (1989). Apple Valley, Minnesota.

Jacobi, E.E. (1957). Recuperative power of the horn of the black rhinoceros (*Rhinoceros bicornis* L.). Zoologischer Garten, 23, 227-233.

Janssen, D. (1992). Fatal colonic volvulus in a female Sumatran rhinoceros (*Diceros sumatrensis*). Pers. Comm., San Diego Zoo, USA.

Jarofke, D., & Klos, H.G. (1979). Diseases of African rhinoceroses in captivity. Proc. Int. Symp. Zoo Animals, 287-290.

Jayasinghe, J.B., & Silva, V. (1972). Electrocardiographic study on the African black rhinoceros. Br. Vet. J., 128, 1xix-1xx.

Jessup, D.A., Miller, R.E., Bolin, C.A., Kock, M.D., & Morkel, P. (in press, 1992). Evaluation for *Leptospira interrogans* in wild caught and captive black rhinoceroses (*Diceros bicornis*) by microscopic agglutination titers and fluorescent antibody testing. J. Zoo Wildl. Med.

Jones, D.M. (1979). The husbandry and veterinary care of captive rhinoceroses. Int. Zoo Yrbk., 19, 239-252.

Kinney, D. (1993). Personal communication. Denver Zoological Gardens, Denver, Colorado.

Kloppel, G. (1956). Über einen fall von volvulus jejuni bei einem nashorn (Unsuccessful treatment of a jejunal volvulus in a rhinoceros). Zoologischer Garten, 21, 245-249.

Kock, M.D., du Toit, R., Morton, D., Kock, N., & Paul, B. (1990). Baseline biological data collected from chemically immobilized free-ranging black rhinoceroses (*Diceros bicornis*) in Zimbabwe. J. Zoo Wildl. Med., 21, 283-291.

Kock, M.D., & Morkel, P. (1993). Capture and translocation of the free-ranging black rhinoceros - medical and management and problems. In Fowler, M.E. (Ed.) Zoo and wild animal medicine (pp. 466-475) Philadelphia: WB Saunders Co.

Kock, N., Foggin, C., Kock, M., & Kock, R. (in press, 1992). Hemosiderosis in the black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*) in Zimbabwe: a comparison between captive, semi-captive and free-ranging animals. J. Zoo Wildl. Med., 24.

Kock, N., & Kock, M.D. (1990). Skin lesions in free-ranging black rhinoceroses (*Diceros bicornis*) in Zimbabwe. J. Zoo Wildl. Med., 21, 447-452.

Kock, N., Kock, M.D., & Young, K.B. (1994). Hepatopathy in two black rhinoceroses (*Diceros bicornis*) in Zimbabwe - creosote toxicosis? J. Zoo Wildl. Med., 25, 270-273.

Kock, R.A., & Garnier, J. (1991). Veterinary management of three species of rhinoceros in zoological collections. In Ryder, O.A. (Ed.) Proceedings of an international conference on rhinoceros biology and conservation (pp. 325-345) San Diego: Zoological Society of San Diego.

Lewandowski, A. (1987). Cecal torsion in a black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*) at the Detroit Zoo. Pers. comm. Cleveland Zoological Park, Cleveland, Ohio, USA.

Mann, P.C., Bush, M., Janssen, D.C., Frank, E.S., & Montali, R.J. (1981). Clinico-pathologic correlations of tuberculosis in large zoo mammals. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc., 179, 1123-1129.

McCulloch, B., & Achard, P.L. (1969). Mortalities associated with capture, trade, translocation and exhibition of black rhinoceroses. Int. Zoo Yrbk., 9, 184-195.

Mikulica, V. (1986). Zur leptospirose der exotischen Tiere in den zoologischen gärten (Leptospirosis in exotic animals in a zoological garden). Vychodiska Zoologicke Zahrady, 41, 571-76.

Miller, R.E. (1992). Veterinary bibliography for rhinoceroses. St. Louis Zoological Park, St. Louis, Missouri, 63110, USA.

Miller, R.E. (1993). Hemolytic anemia in the black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*). In M. E. Fowler (Ed.) *Zoo and Wild Animal Medicine*, 3rd ed. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: WB Saunders Co.

Miller, R.E. (1994). Diseases of black rhinoceroses in captivity. In B.L. Penzhorn & N.P.J. Kriek (Eds.) *Rhinos as game ranch animals* (pp. 180-185). Onderstepoort, South Africa: Wildlife Group of the South African Veterinary Association.

Miller, R.E., & Boever, W.J. (1982). Fatal hemolytic anemia in the black rhinoceros: case report and survey. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.*, 181, 1228-1231.

Miller, R.E., & Bolin, C.A. (1988). Evaluation of leptospirosis in black rhinoceroses (*Diceros bicornis*) by microscopic agglutination and fluorescent antibody testing. *1988 Proc. Am. Assoc. Zoo Vet.*, 161-163.

Miller, R.E., Cambre, R.C., de la Huenta, A., Brannian, R.E., Spraker, T.R., Johnson, C., & Boever, W.J. (1990). Encephalomalacia in three black rhinoceroses (*Diceros bicornis*). *J. Zoo Wildl. Med.*, 21, 192-199.

Miller, R.E., McClure, R.C., Constantinescu, G.M., & Boever, W.J. (1989). A clinical note on the vascular anatomy of the black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*) forelimb. *J. Zoo Zool. Med.*, 20, 228-230.

Mitra, S.C. (1983). The management of animals in the Calcutta Zoological Gardens (a report of tetanus in a black rhinoceros). *J. Bombay Nat. Hist. Soc.*, 13, 254-272.

Montali, R.J. (in press, 1992). Pathological findings in captive rhinoceroses. *Proc. Int. Rhinoceros Symp. (1991)*, San Diego, California, USA: Zoological Society of San Diego.

Muckherjee, S.C., Das, R.K., Arora, B.M., & Mehrotra, M.L. (1984). A case of rabies in a captive rhinoceros (*Rhinoceros unicornis*). *Ind. Comp. Microbiol., Immunol. and Inf. Dis.*, 5, 32.

Munson, L. (in press, 1992). Pathological findings in oral and skin ulcers in black rhinoceroses. *Proc. Int. Rhinoceros Conf.*, San Diego, California, USA: Zoological Society of San Diego.

Nouvel, J., & Pasquier, M.A. (1946). Corps etranzers gastrointestinaux des animaux sauvages en captivite (Gastrointestinal foreign bodies in captive wild animals - sand accumulation in the cecum of a black rhinoceros). *Rev. Pathologie Comparee et d'Hygiene Generale*, 46, 41-45.

Ott, J.E., McDonald, S.E., Robinson, P.T., & Wright, F.W. (1982). Ulcerative stomatitis in a black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*). *1982 Proc. Am. Assoc. Zoo Vet.*, 68-71.

Paglia, D.E., & Miller, R.E. (in press, 1992). Erythrocyte metabolism and susceptibility to oxidant-stressed hemolysis in the black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*): an update (abstract). *1992 Proc. Am. Assoc. Zoo Vets.*

Paras, A. (1989). Spirochetemia in a black rhinoceros with hemolytic anemia. Pers. comm. Chapultepec Park Zoo, Mexico City, Mexico.

Pearson, H., Gibbs, C., & Wright, A.I. (1967). Surgical treatment of a case of rectal prolapse in a young African rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*). *Vet. Rec.*, 80, 519.

Pospisil, J., Kase, F., & Vahala, J. (1986). Time dependent influence of some sedating agents on basic haematological values in various artio- and perissodactylids. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol.*, 85A, 305-308.

Ramsay, E.C., & Zainuddin, Z.Z. (1993). Infectious diseases of the rhinoceros and tapir. In Fowler, M.E. (Ed.) *Zoo and wild animal medicine* (pp. 458-466). Philadelphia: WB Saunders Co.

Rogers, P. S. (1993). Chemical capture, transportation, care and hand-raising of black rhinoceroses. In McKenzie, A.A. (Ed.) *The capture and care manual* (pp. 553-562). Pretoria, South Africa: Wildlife Decision Support Services and the South African Veterinary Foundation.

Seal, U.S., Barton, R., Mather, L., & Gray, C.W. (1976). Baseline laboratory data for the white rhinoceros (*Ceratotherium simum*). *J. Zoo An. Med.*, 7, 11-16.

Silberman, M.S., & Fulton, R.B. (1979). Medical problems of captive and wild rhinoceros - a review of the literature and personal experience. *J. Zoo An. Med.*, 10, 6-16.

Simmons, L.G., & Jenke, B. (1977). Impaction in a great Indian rhinoceros. *1977 Proc. Am. Assoc. Zoo Vet.*, 125-135.

Takagi, S., Kondo, M., Noda, S., & Hironao, T. (1964). Tuberculosis in a rhinoceros. *Bull. Univ. Osaka. Pref.*, 15, 125-130.

Thomson, J.K., & Priestly, F.W. (1949). Enteritis of a white rhinoceros associated with *Pseudomonas pyocyanea* infection. *Vet. Rec.*, 61, 341.

Van Heerden, J., Kefen, R.H., Dauth, J., & Dreyer, M.J. (1985). Blood chemical parameters in free-living white rhinoceros *Ceratotherium simum*. *S. Afr. Vet. Assoc.*, 56, 187-189.

Wallach, J.D., & Boever, W.J. (1983). Perissodactyla, Proboscidae, and Hippotamidae. In J.D. Wallach & W.J. Boever (Eds.) *Diseases of exotic animals* (pp. 761-829). Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: W.B. Saunders Co.

Williamson, W.M., Tildern, E., & Getty, R.E. (1973). Enteric infections occurring during an 8-year period at the Chicago Zoological Park, Brookfield (Salmonellosis in a young rhinoceros). *Bijdr. Dierk.*, 33, 87-88.

Windsor, R.S., & Ashford, W.A. (1972). Salmonella infection in the African elephant and the black rhinoceros. *Trop. An. Health Probl.*, 4, 214-219.

Zainal-Zahari, Z., Abdullah, M.T., & Mohd Suri, M.S. (1990). The husbandry and veterinary care of captive Sumatran rhinoceros at Zoo Melaka, Malaysia. *Malayan Nat. J.*, 44, 1-19.



(Photo: Knoxville Zoological Gardens)