

*-Forest Environment-*Wildlife Ecology

Adapted from the on-line Teachers Guide http://mff.dsisd.net



WILDLIFE ECOLOGY BASICS

Forest wildlife ecology, in many ways, is synonymous with forest ecology. The forest ecology basics can be reviewed in the Forest Ecology chapter. Wildlife are dependent upon the vegetation that supports them, so changes in vegetation significantly impact wildlife populations. "*Succession*" (see Forest Ecology) is a key principle in wildlife ecology and should be remembered with considering wildlife populations. With each change, there are "winners" and "losers". Humans often equate "good" management and "bad" management to the species of wildlife they "like" or "don't like". Natural resource management increasingly tends to take a landscape perspective to ensure a balance of habitats for all species of wildlife. However, this does not always happen as well as it could because both public and private natural resource policy is not always driven by science! More commonly, it is driven by public opinion as expressed and interpreted by legislators and other decision-makers.



Sections include:

What is Wildlife? Habitat Population Dynamics Cycles Winter Adaptations Species Lists

Various aspects of wildlife ecology can be applied to many fundamental curriculum concepts.			
Geometry Geography Biology Location Place Movement Region	History Change Timelines Charts & Graphs Economics Civic Involvement Ecology	Vocabulary Definition Critical Thinking Compare/Contrast Math Functions Relationships Non-linear Thinking	
There's much more to wildlife ecology than romance and cute little animals!			

What is Wildlife?

The word "wildlife" is almost a uniquely North American term. Equivalents in other languages are hard to find, but the concept has spread to other countries. Concern about wildlife in America began in earnest in the last half of the 1800s, although the scientific roots can probably be traced to game management of the royal ownerships in Europe. Widespread and uncontrolled logging occurred throughout most of the eastern forests over the course of a century. The rise of conservation included both wildlife and timber resources.

The definition of "wildlife" often includes only vertebrates, particularly popular species such as those that are hunted, trapped, cause problems, or are endangered. Vertebrates are animals with backbones, including birds, mammals, fishes, amphibians, and reptiles. A more expansive definition of wildlife would include all animal lifeforms in an ecosystem, in this case, a forest system. For the most part, this Teacher Guide will view wildlife in terms of vertebrate species.

The term "game species" refers to an animal that is either hunted or trapped. Michigan lists 115 animals as game species. "Non-game species" are all the other animals. "Endangered and threatened species" are a special group of non-game species whose populations are low in either Michigan or the United States. In Michigan, there are ten endangered or threatened forest wildlife species. There is a "Michigan List" and a "Federal List", both contain many more than ten species, but they include species typical of non-forest habitats. The Michigan Natural Features Inventory [http://web4.msue.msu.edu/mnfi] keeps track of all these species and designations. An "extinct" species is one that can no longer be found anywhere in the world. An "extirpated" species is one that no longer occurs in a place (such as a state or region) where it once used to.

Michigan Forest Vertebrates That Are Threatened or Endangered Osprey Bald Eagle Red-Shouldered Hawk Merlin Long-Eared Owl Yellow-Throated Warbler Kirtland's Warbler Gray Wolf Marten Northern Copperbelly Snake

Michigan has about **575** species of vertebrates (see tables at chapter end). Each has a unique set of habitat preferences and requirements. These habitat preferences and requirements change during the life cycle of most species, and many change with the season. Computing all the variables would result in an almost limitless number of habitat combinations. Managing for every species in every conceivable situation is an impossible task, even assuming we knew all the variables, which we do not. For the most part, wildlife are managed by communities. Single species are not usually the primary focus of a management plan in an area or region. Notable exceptions include species such as white-tailed deer, Canada geese, ruffed grouse, bald eagles, and Kirtland's warblers. Populations of many game species are directly managed through hunting and trapping regulations. Habitat for some endangered and threatened

species is sometimes managed exclusively for that species. In other cases, restrictions on activities are prescribed by law, such as the prohibition of certain practices during a certain time period (usually breeding season), within a stated distance or area.

Rather than direct management of a species population, *habitat* is managed for as much diversity as possible, with the explicit assumption that by providing as many alternatives as possible, each species of wildlife will find what it needs to maintain a viable population. Because habitat management is largely a matter vegetation management, forest management is also wildlife management. Actions by foresters, farmers, and other folks have affected

Numbers of Michigan Wildlife by Taxonomic Group			
Birds	306		
Fish	146		
Mammals	68		
Reptiles	30		
Amphibians	25		
Total Vertebrates	575		
Insects	15,000-20,000		
Snails	195		
Mollusks	79		
Other Taxa	????		
Forest Species	224		

wildlife populations more than professional wildlife managers. However, wildlife biologists now co-manage many public and private lands. This is one of the primary reasons why habitat considerations, at both the stand level and landscape level, are so important in forest management.

Does this "habitat diversity" management technique work? Probably. Since forest management became common in Michigan (perhaps within the last 50 years), no wildlife species has been lost from Michigan's forests . . . that we know of.

<u>Habitat</u>

Many schools introduce	Number of Michi	gan Forest Vert	ebrate Species	by Genera	l Habitats
the idea of " habitat " at the fourth or fifth grade level. Habitat features can be	Topographical Position	Deciduous (Hardwoods)	Conifers (Softwoods)	Mixed Forest	All Forest
expressed in five categories.	Upland Lowland	155 108	116 101	157 66	200 158
Site Quality	Total Species	182	146	171	224
Space and Home In Michigan, there are about 224 forest vertebrates.					
Range	There are about 10 endangered or threatened forest vertebrates.				
 Food & Water 	Note: Columns and rows do not add up to the "totals" because many		2		
Shelter	species frequent multiple habitat types. Totals refer to the number"				
 Variability 	of different species in each category. Source: Michigan DNR				

"*Site quality*" incorporates factors such as soil, topography, climate extremes, precipitation, and drought frequency. Each of these factors are fairly easy to measure and evaluation. Productivity of a given site will vary according the specific combination

of site factors. Sites that produce high amounts of biomass, will generally support more wildlife species and larger populations than poor quality sites.

Every species has a minimum **"space"** requirement. Space is needed to obtain life's necessities. A large predator, such a wolf, needs more space in which to meet it's needs than a field mouse. **"Home range"** is the area within which an animal will feel comfortable, and is some cases, actively defend. The amount of space and the size of a home range of a particular species will vary with the season and sometimes by gender. This particular true during the breeding season and during winter vs. summer months. Many species acquire basic necessities from multiple forest and vegetation types. The relative proximity of these different types is an important habitat feature.

"Food and water" are obvious needs of every living thing. During the course of a year, availability and quality of food and water can change dramatically. Wildlife, not just birds, will often migrate to avoid lean times. Others might hibernate or undergo other metabolic changes. White-tailed deer have different sets of digestive enzymes to accommodate the changes in browse. Frogs may spend the winter buried in pond muck. During frozen months, locating liquid water can be a challenge.

"Shelter" is needed for a variety of purposes. The first to come to mind is protection against adverse weather. Shelter is also needed to escape predators. Young grouse and beaver are expelled from their parents home range in the fall when food begins to grow scarce. The young animals must find new suitable habitat. This search usually makes them much more vulnerable to predation and severe weather. Shelter or specific habitat conditions are also needed for courtship displays, nesting, rearing young, and roosting or loafing. Male woodcock have fairly specific requirements for their dancing grounds and performing their sky dance.

"Variability" of habitat quality and habitat needs makes management difficult, as discussed above. Wildlife needs vary with the season and life stage of a species. Additionally, all species have preferred habitat and minimum habitat conditions. For example, a population may do best in a collection of aspen types, but if adequate amounts of aspen are unavailable, the species will use alternatives and get by, until some environmental extreme occurs, such as a very cold winter. A species that is flexible in its habitat adaptability is sometimes called a "generalist". A species with a rather narrow and specific range of requirements may experience severe population fluctuations with changes in the environment. These species are referred to as "specialists". Species that are very sensitive to certain environmental changes are sometimes used as "indicator species". These species clue wildlife managers into subtle environmental conditions and changes that would otherwise be difficult to measure or assess. For instance, the presence and abundance of stonefly and caddisfly larvae in streams will tell us much about the conditions in that stream and the adjacent upland habitat.

In forest management, wildlife habitat ranks high on the list of desired objectives. However, the area of some of the most endangered forest habitats, young early successional forests, is declining. These habitats also harbor some of the rarest forest wildlife species. Keep in perspective, of course, that most threatened and endangered species are from non-forest habitats. Many people tend to place emphasis on older forests with big trees . . . usually later stages of succession. The decline of young early successional forests (not just forests of young trees) with its complement of shrubs, understory flora, and small early successional tree species have begun to catch the eye of researchers and ecologists. These tend to be "waste places" and not regarded as valuable habitat by many viewers. However, these kinds of forests are becoming increasingly important refugia for a number of special species. Because research has yet to yield much of the habitat requirements for all wildlife, forest managers tend to think in landscape terms and provide as much diversity in composition and structure as possible. Beauty is often in the eye of beholder and, unfortunately, some valuable habitat types rank low on the visual scales of many forest visitors.

Population Dynamics

A wildlife population is a group of individuals of the same species that have some basis of commonality. We can talk about the population of white-tailed deer in a geographic region; or the population of sticklebacks in a particular stream. Populations can be linked to a feature in the landscape, to other populations, a time period, or other criteria. Wildlife populations have inherent qualities that help in defining the welfare of various species.

Age Structure Lifespan Sex Ratio Natality & Mortality	Interspecific Dynamics Intraspecific Dynamics Territoriality & Home Range Migrations Carrying Capacity
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Age Structure: The proportional amounts of young and old age classes reveal much about a population. There should be some kind of balance among the classes and the "proper" balance will vary by species and season. Generally, the age structure can be depicted by a triangle, with the numerous young on the bottom and the very few oldsters at the top. "Age" might be measured in years, weeks, or days, depending upon the species considered. At the end of the food-rich season, the youngest age classes are usually swollen. The winter will kill many individuals, but the usually the young and very old experience the highest mortality rates. Humans sometimes have a strong impact on the age structure of a population. White-tailed deer have few animals beyond 4.5 or 5.5 years largely because of hunting pressure, although an individual is capable of living a decade or more. A heavily fished lake may reduce the number of sizable (aka older) adults to the point where breeding might be reduced.

Lifespan: Obviously, different species have different lifespans. Most insects complete their life cycles during the warm season. Some have multiple generations during that time. Other species live for years and individuals must have adaptations and adequate habitat to survive regular periods of food-shortages and inclement weather. Species toward the end of food chains are usually much longer-lived that those in the beginning. Long-lived species have strategies that favor the survival of fewer individuals. Shorter-lived species generally utilize the opposite strategy. The combination of lifespan and age structure reveal much about the general health of a population, either a wildlife population or a stand of trees.

Sex Ratio: Each species has an "ideal" sex ratio. Usually this is somewhere around 50:50, but not necessarily. Honeybees, for example, have almost no males. A particular sex ratio will help maximize **"fecundity"**, or the ability of a species to produce new individuals. Males of some species will mate with as many females as possible. Other species, such as swans and geese, tend to be more monogamous.

Natality and Mortality: Natality is the inherent ability of a population to increase in numbers. Mortality deals with the level of death within a population. These terms are usually expressed as *rates* that reflect pressures to increase and decrease population size. The size of a population is impacted by many factors, which vary over time. At a particular point in time, natality factors or mortality factors may dominate, causing a population to increase or decrease. Some factors are fairly predictable, such as the average clutch/litter size or the onset of winter. Other factors, such as extreme weather events or disease epidemics, can have great impacts but are not predictable.

Interspecific Dynamics: These are relationships *among* or *between* species. The **predator-prey** relationship is a well-known example of an *inter*specific dynamic. Interspecific dynamics can be antagonistic or beneficial. Lichens are two species (an algae and a fungus) working in concert to the benefit of both. This is called a *"mutualistic"* relationship. A *"commensal"* relationship is where one species requires another, but the host is relatively unaffected. Another kind of interspecific relationship would be *parasitic*. Mosquitoes draw blood essential to the completion of their life cycle, at the expense of another species. Species that *require* something from another species are termed *"obligate"*. When the relationship is beneficial but not *required*, it is termed *"facultative"*.

Intraspecific Dynamics: There are relationships among individuals of a population. Competition for food, shelter, and other requirements are common examples. Mating and establishing territories are other examples. A species might be colonial in nature or live primarily as individuals. There are many life strategies.

<u>Territoriality and Home Range</u>: An individual or population of a species may actively mark and/or defend a particular area. The male robin that challenges anything resembling another male robin is expressing *"territoriality"*. A *"home range"* is the amount of space an animal needs acquire the resources to meet its needs. A predator such as a wolf may have a home range of many square miles, while an earthworm has

almost none. The *amount* of area for either a territory or home range is not necessarily constant. It often varies with the season. After the breeding season, male robins resume a gregarious nature. Ruffed grouse will "expel" their young before the onset of winter because winter home ranges are larger than summer home ranges. The young animals must seek their own new habitat.

<u>Migration</u>: Winters and dry seasons result in less available food and water. Animals have a wide range of strategies to accommodate these seasonal fluctuations. Migration is one such strategy. Autumn bird migration is the most familiar. Many species of birds fly south more because of food shortages, rather than cold temperatures. Bald eagles, which normally migrate, will remain a winter resident if a food source is available. Other animals, besides birds, will migrate. Deer and other "ungulates" move between winter and summer ranges. Many fish species will seek out different waters with the season. Monarch butterflies move to Mexico. Not all migrators leave Michigan for better climates. Some actually come *to* Michigan! Chickadees, snow buntings, and great gray owls regularly arrive from more northern latitudes to become winter residents in our state.

Carrying Capacity: The physical and biological resources of an area, varying with the season, will support only so many individuals. This maximum amount called the *"carrying capacity"*. When most species approach their particular carrying capacity, mortality factors overtake natality factors and the population growth declines. For some species, this ecological balancing-act is fairly regulated without great fluctuations. With other species, there is a normal "boom and bust" cycle. Ruffed grouse and snowshoe hare populations are good examples. There are a few species that can maintain high population densities long enough to actually damage their habitat and substantially reduce the carrying capacity. Deer and moose are classic examples of species than can damage their habitat. Humans may very well fall into this category, as well.

Cycles

The size of wildlife populations sometimes display cycles of highs and lows over time. There are four basic cycles to consider.

1. The Theoretical Growth Curve

All populations have a tendency to increase. Continued increases are checked by environmental limiting factors. Many populations, especially small animals such as insects or rodents, increase exponentially. Population size will then reach a plateau or crash. The numbers of bacteria in a petri dish will increase slowly at first, then expand very rapidly until the food is gone or toxins produced reach lethal levels. This curve is often referred to the **"S-curve"**.



2. Annual Cycles

Most species will experience annual population highs and lows based on the seasons. The winter season or dry season are when food and water become most limiting. The end of the breeding season is when populations tend to peak.



3. Short and Long Term Cycles

For a complex of reasons, sometimes not understood, populations display regular cycles over a number years. Ruffed grouse are wellknow for their ten-year cycles. Trapping records suggest that Canada lynx and snowshoe hare have parallel ten-year cycles, although some biologists have questioned the data analysis. Lemmings are famous for their four-year cycles with such large numbers during peaks that farms and towns become invaded. Every 10-12 years forest tent caterpillars will defoliate large expanses of hardwood forests in Michigan. On longer cycle, roughly 30-40 years, the same relationship is found between spruce budworm and balsam fir.

4. Irregular or Irruptive Cycles

These are major changes in the populations level of a species that occur without any particular pattern. Strong weather or climate events, such as a hurricane or drought, may cause a crash. In other cases, the causes cannot be known for certain. Why did



Canadian raccoons populations reach peak at six times their normal, steady-state level in 1867? Why did a South American rodent population inexplicable crash, upsetting the ecology of large region? Why did the mule deer population of the Kaibab Plateau in Arizona go through the roof around 1920, emaciate the habitat, reduce the carrying capacity of the land, then crash? Even more peculiar, why did mule deer populations near the Kaibob *not* experience such an event?

Winter Adaptations

In the north, winter is period of lean resources and a challenging environment. Animals survive by employing one or more adaptive strategies; 1) migration & movement, 2) dormancy, or 3) toughing it out. The complexity and variation of adaptations is tremendous. A more thorough study of how animals respond to their environment is an incredible journey into chemistry, morphology, physiology, and many other fields of study.

Winter is the most stressful time of year in the north for most forms of life. The key hardships are a lack of food and cold temperatures. However, don't let a reduction in activity appear as if there is nothing going on in the woods!

A lack of food occurs for at least two reasons, both related to low temperatures. The first reason has to do with a reduction in active plant life. Plants, of course, are the sources of nearly all food chains. The second reason has to do with availability. For many animals, food sources are buried under snow or ice. Deep snow is not a problem for all creatures. To field mice, it is a protective layer against most predators. To predators, deep snow means a time of going hungry.

Specialized adaptation to winter involves exploring chemistry, physics, and animal behavior. Managing an energy budget is the key to survival. There are many ways to manage this budget, primarily through combinations of physical attributes (morphology, habitat, and behavior) and physiological capabilities (body chemistry and metabolic controls).

How Do Animals Respond to Cold Winters?

There are three main strategies to surviving inclement conditions, migration, dormancy, and toughing it out. Each species is suited to a particular variant of one strategy or the other, or a combination of strategic elements.



1. Migration and Movement. Many species migrate between seasons. Some, such as the arctic tern, travel 10,000 miles between winter and summer habitats. It's difficult to ignore the migration of geese, cranes, and ducks . . . and difficult to believe that monarch butterflies actually migrate to Mexico. How in the world do tiny hummingbirds fly all the way across the Gulf of Mexico? The return of the colorful and vociferous warblers becomes obvious in the Spring, but their departure in the Fall is generally missed. The first Spring bluebird is noted by many . . . but few can mark their departure date.

Migration is not always a dramatic, long-distance affair. Other species, such as whitetailed deer, move to areas that are more survivable. Deer pretty much vacate the Lake Superior watershed during the deep snow season. Biologists have been able to track some of these migration patterns in the U.P. Reptiles and amphibians move to protected places underground or under water to avoid freezing temperatures. Fishes will move to different waters. More recently, most of us noted the indoor migration of the Asian ladybird beetle!

For those people who prefer to be indoors most of the winter, the outdoors may appear to be uniformly cold and uncomfortable. However, there are many microclimates where winter stress is significantly lower. Logs, caves, holes, dead trees, spruce and cedar stands, under snow, and human structures are examples of places that provide shelter from winter extremes. These are critical places for wildlife.

Not all migrators leave Michigan, either. Some actually migrate *TO Michigan* for the winter or on a cyclical basis! Chickadees and great gray owls are two good examples. The playful, curious, and nearly fearless whisky-jack makes its presence well-known at camps and many winter feeders. During lows in the snowshoe hare population cycles, Canada lynx may roam into the U.P. in search of food. We need to remember that our winters are not as severe as we sometimes boast about. There is a large land mass to our north where winters are considerably longer and colder!



2. Dormancy. There are several forms of dormancy as the taxonomic groups are surveyed. Definitions are difficult due to the many variations of dormancy. There has been a lot of research into how animals cope with inclement weather, winter in this case.

Torpidity is a controlled reduction of body metabolism, evidenced by low oxygen consumption rates and lower body temperatures. A key part of the definition is accurate metabolic <u>control</u>. It is a phenomenon restricted to warm-blooded animals. Cold-blooded animals experience different physiology in response to adverse conditions. Some animals will undergo daily states of torpidity as a response to a lack of food and in combination with other environmental conditions. Other species undergo seasonal torpidity. In the north, **hibernation** is the most dramatic form. Torpidity is not restricted to northern species and can be found in the tropics, too. **Estivation** is a kind of torpidity in very hot and dry conditions.

Many northern species undergo metabolic changes that allow them to "sleep" through the winter. Sleep, of course, is not what they do, but torpor can superficially appear that way. The most advanced form of torpor is hibernation. Hibernation is quite complex and fascinating. Although definitions are evasive, hibernation is a *controlled* significant drop in metabolism to a selected level, although the term hibernation is sometimes used for cold-blooded animals and any form of winter dormancy. Chipmunks, certain mice, ground squirrels, and groundhogs are examples of true hibernators. Their body temperatures are maintained a few degrees above their ambient environment, which is usually in a place protected from weather extremes. Hibernators are usually small animals because small animals have high rates of metabolism to begin with. Increases in these already high rates of metabolism in order to maintain body temperature comes at a metabolic cost that is just too high for some species.

True hibernators cannot be easily "woken up". They are largely unresponsive to external stimuli. Generally they maintain only a sufficient amount of specialized fat reserves to carry them through the winter season and arouse them during the late winter or early spring. Arousal is a very expensive metabolic process that they can usually afford to do only a few times, sometimes only once. Bears do not hibernate, although this continues to be argued. Their body temperatures drop only a few degrees and metabolism is reduced to only moderate rates. Female bears give birth during the winter, something that would not be possible for a true hibernator. Lastly, bears can easily be aroused in the winter and then drop back into a state of torpidity. Don't be fooled by a "hibernating" bear in its den!

Dormancy in cold-blooded animals is a reduced state of metabolic activity largely controlled by environmental conditions. Cold-blooded animals must become dormant during the winter because they lack the internal control over their metabolism. Many seek sheltered places and undergo chemical changes to prevent their tissues from freezing. Others can tolerate certain levels of ice between cells, commonly in tandem with chemical changes. Spring peepers, chorus frogs, gray tree frogs, and wood frogs tolerate and regulate a frozen state. Good snow cover is essential to survival, as they overwinter under leaf litter on the forest floor. These frogs thaw out in the spring, which is why we hear them sing so early in the season on those increasingly warm evenings.

Insects overwinter as eggs, pupae, or adults. Dormancy is often coupled with specialized chemical adaptations to help survive the winter season. Some have the ability to resist freezing, others can tolerate freezing to certain degrees. There are also insects that can employ either strategy. Chemicals associated with dormancy are sugars and certain alcohols such as glycerol, sorbitol, mannitol, and ethylene glycol.

Plants also experience dormancy but cannot relocate to sheltered places, other than reverting to seeds on the ground and roots under the ground. Tree adaptations are covered in the Tree Physiology chapter.



3. Toughing It Out. Winter remains an active time of the year because many species have adapted to active lifestyles during the winter. Cold-blooded animals (amphibian, reptiles, and insects) must find sheltered places where they can ride out the winter without freezing and being eaten by predators. Fish continue to be active (as ice-fishers know!) but often at a reduced rate. For some species, the winter energy equation is

always negative, meaning they cannot consume or conserve enough energy to survive the winter. While consumption and conservation are critical, these species must rely on fat reserves and their margin for survival is often slim. This is part of the reason why long and severe winters can take a heavy toll on wildlife populations whose northern range occurs in Michigan.

There is a wide array of morphological, physiological, and behavioral adaptations for winter survival. A few examples are provided below, but investigations into the lives of active winter animals will reveal many combinations of survival strategies.

- Bergmann's Rule states that northern species of a particular genus or similar class of birds or mammals tend to be larger in size, although this is not always true. Larger body size means a higher body mass-to-surface area ratio. It's easier to retain heat. Polar bears are larger than tropical bears. White-tailed deer in Michigan dress out at higher weights than their counterparts in Texas or Florida.
- Body appendages tend to get smaller in the north, as a heat conservation measure. Snowshoe hares have smaller ears that cottontail rabbits. Mammalian legs and snouts are frequently shorter and stouter.
- Specialized fat, called brown fat, is produced during the food-rich seasons and expended during cold seasons. This is also the kind of fat that most hibernators use for arousal and many migrators use for fuel.
- Various "heat exchange" mechanisms can be found in animal circulatory systems that reduce heat loss to body extremities.
- Certain fish and herptiles produce chemicals within and between cell walls that can lower their freezing temperature a few degrees. In sheltered environmental niches, these few degrees can mean the difference between life and death.
- Some mammals, such as flying squirrels and small rodents, will occupy collective dens to conserve body heat, even though some species are non-colonial during the warm season. This is part of the reason that some species of snakes will do the same thing.
- Food preferences change with the season. Some browsers, such as white-tailed deer, have changes in digestive enzymes to cope with the different food sources. This is one of the reasons why biologists argue against winter deer feeding. If not done correctly, a deer can starve to death with a belly full of corn.
- Ruffed grouse "snow roost" during periods of extreme cold. Snow provides a very effective barrier against severe cold. They will rest under the snow until the severe weather passes. Folks who snowshoe or cross-country ski too close to these snow roosts are often caught off-guard when a grouse explodes out of the snow. Large piles of grouse droppings are spring-time indicators of how severe the winter was.
- Aquatic mammals, such as otter and mink, grow thick layers of insulating fat and have specialized fur. Similarly, ducks, geese, and swans have feathers and oil glands that keep water away from the skin. Some have efficient circulatory heat exchangers between the body and the feet. It's usually not the cold that causes waterfowl to migrate. It's more a matter of food shortages.

- Birds and mammals undergo seasonal changes in feathers and pelage. Trappers know that winter pelts are the highest quality because they are thicker and have different kinds of hair.
- Muskrats and beaver construct shelters, partly for protection from severe weather. A number of animals dig burrows, such as groundhogs, foxes, chipmunks, and moles.
- Many species of birds can adjust their internal body temperature downward to reduce the temperature gradient with environmental temperatures, thus reducing heat loss. They also tend to shiver a lot to maintain body temperatures.

GREAT CLASSROOM REFERENCES

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LISTS, LISTS, and MORE LISTS

The following lists were derived from a number of sources, including published resources, and observations by biologists and natural resource managers. They are not necessarily complete and alternative sources may have different listings. That's the reason the exact number of species will vary from source to source. The purpose of these lists is to make the point that there are MANY vertebrate species in Michigan, most of which we have probably not even heard of before. Furthermore, vertebrates comprise only a few of the many taxonomic groups!

Michigan is host to thousands or tens of thousands of species of animals. Each species has a set of habitat requirements. A diversity of habitat will benefit the most number of species, although we need to remember that some species benefit from less diverse landscapes. For every rule, there is nearly always a few exceptions.

The majority of these vertebrate species are dependent upon the forest in one way or another, even if indirectly. Indirect use would include most of our inland fish species, for example, as water quality is influenced by forest cover. Another example of occasional use would be a belted kingfisher, which uses shoreline and riverbank branches to perch upon; or an otter or mink which can often be seen in woodland settings. Below are individual tables for five groups of vertebrates; Birds, Fishes, Mammals, Reptiles, and Amphibians.

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Gaviidae	RED-THROATED LOON	Gavia	stellata
	COMMON LOON	Gavia	immer
Podicipediformes	PIED-BILLED GREBE	Podilymbus	podiceps
	HORNED GREBE	Podiceps	auritus
	RED-NECKED GREBE	Podiceps	grisegena
Podicipedidae	EARED GREBE	Podiceps	nigricollis
Pelicanidae	WHITE PELICAN	Pelecanus	erythrorhyncos
Phalacrocoracidae	DOUBLE-CRESTED CORMORANT	Phalacrocorax	auritus
Ardeidae	AMERICAN BITTERN	Botaurus	lentiginosus
	LEAST BITTERN	Ixobrychus	exilis
	GREAT-BLUE HERON	Ardea	herodias
	GREAT EGRET	Ardea	alba
	SNOWY EGRET	Egretta	thula
	LITTLE BLUE HERON	Egretta	caerulea
	CATTLE EGRET	Bubulcus	ibis
	GREEN HERON	Butorides	virescens
	BLACK-CROWNED NIGHT HERON	Nycticorax	nycticorax
Anatidae	GREATER WHITE-FRONTED GOOSE	Anser	albifrons
	SNOW GOOSE	Chen	caerulescens
	CANADA GOOSE	Branta	canadensis
	MUTE SWAN	Cygnus	olor
	TRUMPETER SWAN	Cygnus	buccinator
	TUNDRA SWAN	Cygnus	columbianus
	WOOD DUCK	Aix	sponsa
	GADWALL	Anas	strepera
	AMERICAN WIDGEON	Anas	americana
	AMERICAN BLACK DUCK	Anas	rubripes
	MALLARD	Anas	platyrhyncos
	BLUE-WING TEAL	Anas	discors
	NORTHERN SHOVELER	Anas	clypeata
	NORTHERN PINTAIL	Anas	acuta
	GREEN-WING TEAL	Anas	crecca
	CANVASBACK	Aythya	valisineria
	REDHEAD	Aythya	americana
	RING-NECKED DUCK	Aythya	collaris
	GREATER SCAUP	Aythya	marila
	LESSER SCAUP	Aythya	affinis
	HARLEQUIN DUCK	Histrionicus	histrionicus
	SURF SCOTER	Melanitta	perspicillata
	WHITE-WINGED SCOTER	Melanitta	fusca
	BLACK SCOTER	Melanitta	nigra
	OLD SQAUW	Clangula	hyemalis

BIRDS-306 Species (part 1 of 6)

Birds, continued (table 2 of 7)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Anatidae	BUFFLEHEAD	Bucephala	albeola
	COMMON GOLDENEYE	Bucephala	clangula
	HOODED MERGANSER	Lophodytes	cucullatus
	COMMON MERGANSER	Mergus	merganser
	RED-BREASTED MERGANSER	Mergus	serrator
	RUDDY DUCK	Oxyura	jamaicensis
Cathartidae	TURKEY VULTURE	Cathartes	aura
Accipitridae	OSPREY	Pandion	haliaetus
Accipititude	BALD EAGLE	Haliaeetus	leucocephalus
	NORTHERN HARRIER	Circus	cyaneus
	SHARP-SHINNED HAWK	Accipiter	striatus
	COOPER'S HAWK		
		Accipiter	cooperii
	NORTHERN GOSHAWK	Accipiter	gentilis
	RED-SHOLDERED HAWK	Buteo	lineatus
	BROAD WING HAWK	Buteo	platypterus
	SWAINSON'S HAWK	Buteo	swainsoni
	RED-TAILED HAWK	Buteo	jamaicensis
	ROUGH-LEGGED HAWK	Buteo	lagopus
	GOLDEN EAGLE	Aquila	chrysaetos
Falconidae	AMERICAN KESTREL	Falco	sparverius
	MERLIN	Falco	columbarius
	GYRFALCON	Falco	rusticolus
	PEREGRINE FALCON	Falco	peregrinus
Phasianidae	RING-NECKED PHEASANT	Phasianus	colchicus
	SPRUCE GROUSE	Falcipennis	canadensis
	RUFFED GROUSE	Bonasa	umbellus
	SHARP-TAILED GROUSE	Tympanuchus	phasianellus
	WILD TURKEY	Meleagris	gallopavo
	NORTHERN BOBWHITE	Colinus	virginianus
Rallidae	KING RAIL	Rallus	elegans
Raillude	VIRGINIA RAIL	Rallus	limicola
			carolina
	SORA	Porzana	
	YELLOW RAIL	Coturnicops	noveboracensis
	COMMON MOORHEN	Gallinula	chloropus
- ···	AMERICAN COOT	Fulica	americana
Gruidae	SANDHILL CRANE	Grus	canadensis
Charadriidae	BLACK-BELLIED PLOVER	Pluvialis	squatarola
	SEMI-PALMATED PLOVER	Charadrius	semipalmatus
	PIPING PLOVER	Charadrius	melodus
	GOLDEN PLOVER	Pluvialis	dominica
	KILLDEER	Charadrius	vociferus
Recurvirostridae	AMERICAN AVOCET	Recurvirostra	americana
Scolopacidae	GREATER YELLOWLEGS	Tringa	melanoleuca
I	LESSER YELLOWLEGS	Tringa	flavipes
	SPOTTED SANDPIPER	Actitus	macularia
	SOLITARY SANDPIPER	Tringa	solitaria
	UPLAND SANDPIPER	Bartramia	longicauda
	WILLET	Catoptrophorus	semipalmatus
	WHIMBREL	Numenius	
			phaeopus
		Limosa	haemastica
	MARBLED GODWIT	Limosa	fedoa

Birds, continued (table 3 of 7)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Scolopacidae	RUDDY TURNSTONE	Arenaria	interpres
	RED KNOT	Calidris	canutus
	SANDERLING	Calidris	alba
	SEMI-PALMATED SANDPIPER	Calidris	pusilla
	WESTERN SANDPIPER	Calidris	mauri
	PECTORAL SANDPIPER	Calidris	melanotos
	WHITE-RUMPED SANDPIPER	Calidris	fuscicollis
	BAIRD'S SANDPIPER	Calidris	bairdii
	LEAST SANDPIPER	Calidris	minutilla
	PURPLE SANDPIPER	Calidris	maritima
	DUNLIN	Calidris	alpina
	STILT SANDPIPER	Calidris	himantopus
	BUFF-BREASTED SANDPIPER	Tryngites	subruficollis
	SHORT-BILLED DOWITCHER	Limnodromus	griseus
	LONG-BILLED DOWITCHER	Limnodromus	scolopaceus
	COMMON SNIPE	Gallinago	gallinago
	AMERICAN WOODCOCK	Scolopax	minor
	WILSON'S PHALAROPE	Phalaropus	tricolor
	RED-NECKED PHALAROPE	Phalaropus	lobatus
	RED PHALAROPE	Phalaropus	fulicaria
Laridae	POMARINE JAEGER	Stercorarius	pomarinus
Lanuae	POMARINE JAEGER	Stercorarius	
			parasiticus atricilla
	LAUGHING GULL	Larus	
	FRANKLIN'S GULL	Larus	pipixcan
	LITTLE GULL	Larus	minutus
	RING-BILLED GULL	Larus	delawarensis
	HERRING GULL	Larus	argentatus
	BONAPARTE'S GULL	Larus	philadelphia
	THAYER'S GULL	Larus	thayeri
	ICELAND GULL	Larus	glaucoides
	LESSER BLACK-BACKED BULL	Larus	fuscus
	GLAUCOUS GULL	Larus	hyperboreus
	GREAT BLACK-BACKED GULL	Larus	marinus
	SABINE'S GULL	Xema	sabini
	BLACK-BACKED KITTWAKE	Rissa	tridactyla
	CASPIAN TERN	Sterna	caspia
	COMMON TERN	Sterna	hirundo
	FORSTER'S TERN	Sterna	forsteri
	BLACK TERN	Chlidonias	niger
Columbidae	ROCK DOVE	Columba	livia
	MORNING DOVE	Zenaida	macroura
Cuculidae	BLACK-BILLED CUCKOO	Coccyzus	erythropthalmus
	YELLOW-BILLED CUCKOO	Coccyzus	americanus
Tytonidae	BARN OWL	Tyto	alba
Strigidae	EASTERN SCREECH-OWL	Otus	asio
.,	GREAT HORNED OWL	Bubo	virginianus
	BARRED OWL	Strix	varia
	LONG-EARED OWL	Asio	otus
	SHORT-EARED OWL	Asio	flammeus
	SNOWY OWL	Nyctea	scandiaca
	NORTHERN HAWK OWL	Surnia	ulula
		Junia	ululu

Birds, continued	(table 4 of 7)
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Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Strigidae	BOREAL OWL	Aegolius	funereus
	GREAT-GREY OWL	Strix	nebulosa
	NORTHERN SAW-WHET OWL	Aegolius	acadicus
Caprimulgidae	COMMON NIGHTHAWK	Chordeiles	minor
	WHIP-POOR-WILL	Caprimulgus	vociferus
Apodidae	CHIMNEY SWIFT	Chaetura	pelagica
Trochilidae	RUBY-THROATED HUMMINGBIRD	Archilochus	colubris
Alcedinidae	BELTED KINGFISHER	Ceryle	alcyon
Picidae	RED-HEADED WOODPECKER	Melanerpes	erythrocephalus
	RED-BELLIED WOODPECKER	Melanerpes	carolinus
	YELLOW-BELLIED SAPSUCKER	Sphyrapicus	varius
	DOWNY WOODPECKER	Picoides	pubescens
	HAIRY WOODPECKER	Picoides	villosus
	BLACK-BACKED WOODPECKER	Picoides	arcticus
	NORTHERN FLICKER	Colaptes	auratus
	PILEATED WOODPECKER	Dryocopus	pileatus
Tyrannidae	OLIVE-SIDED FLYCATCHER	Contopus	cooperi
	EASTERN WOOD PEWEE	Contopus	virens
	YELLOW-BELLIED FLYCATCHER	Empidonax	flaviventris
	ACADIAN FLYCATCHER	Empidonax	virescens
	ALDER FLYCATCHER	Empidonax	alnorum
	WILLOW FLYCATHER	Empidonax	traillii
	LEAST FLYCATCHER	Empidonax	minimus
	EASTERN PHOEBE	Sayornis	phoebe
	GREAT CRESTED FLYCATCHER	Myiarchus	crinitus
	WESTERN KINGBIRD	Tyrannus	verticalis
	EASTERN KINGBIRD	Tyrannus	tyrannus
Laniidae	LOGGERHEAD SHRIKE	Lanius	ludovicianus
Lamuae	NORTHERN SHRIKE	Lanius	excubitor
Vireonidae	WHITE-EYED VIREO	Vireo	griseus
VIICUIIUAC	BLUE-HEADED VIREO (solitary)	Vireo	solitarius
	YELLOW-THROATED VIREO	Vireo	flavifrons
	WARBLING VIREO	Vireo	gilvus
	PHILADELPHIA VIREO	Vireo	philadelphicus
		Vireo	
Corvidae	RED-EYED VIREO GRAY JAY	Perisoreus	olivaceus canadensis
COIVIDAE			
		Cyanocitta Corvus	cristata brachyrhynchas
		Corvus	brachyrhynchos
Aloudidoo	COMMON RAVEN		COFAX
Alaudidae	HORNED LARK PURPLE MARTIN	Eremophila	alpestris
Hirundinidae		Progne	subis
	TREE SWALLOW	Tachycineta Stolaidentor w	bicolor
	ROUGH-WINGED SWALLOW	Stelgidopteryx	serripennis
	BANK SWALLOW	<i>Riparia</i>	riparia
	CLIFF SWALLOW	Petrochelidon	pyrrhonota
Derider	BARN SWALLOW	Hirundo	rustica
Paridae	BLACK-CAPPED CHICKADEE	Poecile	atricapillus
	BOREAL CHICKADEE	Poecile	hudsonicus
0 1 1 1	TUFTED TITMOUSE	Baeolophus	bicolor
Sittidae	RED-BREASTED NUTHATCH	Sitta	canadensis
	WHITE-BREASTED NUTHATCH	Sitta	carolinensis
Certhriidae	BROWN CREEPER	Certhia	americana

Birds, continued (table 5 of 7)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Troglodytidae	CAROLINA WREN	Thryothorus	ludovicianus
5 ,	HOUSE WREN	Troglodytes	aedon
	WINTER WREN	Troglodytes	troglodytes
	SEDGE WREN	Cistothorus	platensis
	MARSH WREN	Cistothorus	palustris
Regulidae	GOLDEN-CROWNED KINGLET	Regulus	satrapa
rogunado	RUBY-CROWNED KINGLET	Regulus	calendula
Sylviidae	BLUE-GRAY GNATCATCHER	Polioptila	caerulea
Turdidae	EASTERN BLUEBIRD	Sialia	sialis
	VEERY	Catharus	fuscescens
	SWAINSON'S THRUSH	Catharus	ustulatus
	HERMIT THRUSH	Catharus	guttatus
	WOOD THRUSH	Hylocichla	mustelina
	AMERICAN ROBIN	Turdus	migratorius
	TOWNSEND'S SOLITAIRE	Myadestes	townsendi
			minimus
	GRAY-CHEEKED THRUSH	Catharus	
Minstellere	VARIED THRUSH	Ixoreus	naevius
Mimidae	GRAY CATBIRD	Dumetella	carolinensis
	NORTHERN MOCKINGBIRD	Mimus	polyglottos
	BROWN THRASHER	Toxostoma	rufum
Sturnidae	EUROPEAN STARLING	Sturnus	vulgaris
Motacillidae	AMERICAN PIPIT	Anthus	rubescens
Bombycillidae	CEDAR WAXWING	Bombycilla	cedrorum
	BOHEMIAN WAXWING	Bombycilla	garrulus
Parulidae	ORANGE-CROWNED WARBLER	Vermivora	celata
	BLUE-WINGED WARBLER	Vermivora	pinus
	GOLDEN-WINGED WARBLER	Vermivora	chrysoptera
	TENNESEE WARBLER	Vermivora	peregrina
	NASHVILLE WARBLER	Vermivora	ruficapilla
	NORTHERN PARULA	Parula	americana
	YELLOW WARBLER	Dendroica	petechia
	CHESTNUT-SIDED WARBLER	Dendroica	pensylvanica
	MAGNOLIA WARBLER	Dendroica	magnolia
	CAPE MAY WARBLER	Dendroica	tigrina
	BLK-THROATED BLUE WARBLER	Dendroica	caerulescens
	YELLOW-RUMPED WARBLER	Dendroica	coronata
	BLK-THROATED GREEN WARBLER	Dendroica	virens fusca
	BLACKBURNIAN WARBLER	<i>Dendroica</i>	
	YELLOW-THROATED WARBLER	Dendroica	dominica
	PINE WARBLER	Dendroica	pinus
	KIRTLAND'S WARBLER	Dendroica	kirtlandii
	PRAIRIE WARBLER	Dendroica	discolor
	PALM WARBLER	Dendroica	palmarun
	BAY-BREASTED WARBLER	Dendroica	castanea
	CERULEAN WARBLER	Dendroica	cerulea
	BLACK & WHITE WARBLER	Mniotilta	varia
	BLACKPOLL	Dendroica	striata
	AMERICAN REDSTART	Setophaga	ruticilla
	PROTHONOTARY WARBLER	Protonotaria	citrea
	WORM-EATING WARBLER	Helmitheros	vermivorus
	OVENBIRD	Seiurus	aurocapillus
		o o lui uo	aarooapiiras

Birds, continued (part 6 of 7)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Parulidae	NORTHERN WATERTHRUSH	Seiurus	noveboracensis
	LOUISIANA WATERTHRUSH	Seiurus	motacilla
	KENTUCKY WARBLER	Oporornis	formosus
	CONNECTICUT WARBLER	Oporornis	agilis
	MOURNING WARBLER	Oporornis	philadelphia
	COMMON YELLOWTHROAT	Geothlypis	trichas
	HOODED WARBLER	Wilsonia	citrina
	WILSON'S WARBLER	Wilsonia	pusilla
	CANADA WARBLER	Wilsonia	canadensis
	YELLOW-BREASTED CHAT	Icteria	virens
Thraupidae	SCARLET TANAGER	Piranga	olivacea
maupluae	SUMMER TANAGER	Piranga	rubra
Emberizidae		Pipilo	
ETTIDETIZIUAE	EASTERN TOWHEE (rufous-sided) CHIPPING SPARROW	Spizella	erythrophthalmus
	CLAY-COLORED SPARROW		passerina
		Spizella Spizella	pallida
	FIELD SPARROW	Spizella	pusilla
	VESPER SPARROW	Pooecetes	gramineus
		Chondestes	grammacus
	SAVANNAH SPARROW	Passerculus	sandwichensis
	GRASSHOPPER SPARROW	Ammodramus	savannarum
	HENSLOW'S SPARROW	Ammodramus	henslowii
	LECONTE'S SPARROW	Ammodramus	leconteii
	SONG SPARROW	Melospiza	melodia
	LINCOLN'S SPARROW	Melospiza	lincolnii
	SWAMP SPARROW	Melospiza	georgiana
	WHITE-THROATED SPARROW	Zonotrichia	albicollis
	HARRIS' SPARROW	Zonotrichia	querula
	AMERICAN TREE SPARROW	Spizella	arborea
	WHITE-CROWNED SPARROW	Zonotrichia	leucophrys
	FOX SPARROW	Passerella	Illaca
	LAPLAND LONGSPUR	Calcarius	lapponicus
	DARK-EYED JUNCO	Junco	hyemalis
	SNOW BUNTING	Plectrophenax	nivalis
Cardinalidae	NORTHERN CARDINAL	Cardinalis	cardinalis
	ROSE-BREASTED GROSBEAK	Pheucticus	ludovicianus
	INDIGO BUNTING	Passerina	cyanea
	DICKCISSEL	Spiza	americana
Icteridae	BOBOLINK	Dolichonyx	oryzivorus
	RED-WINGED BLACKBIRD	Agelaius	phoeniceus
	EASTERN MEADOWLARK	Sturnella	magna
	WESTERN MEADOWLARK	Sturnella	neglecta
	YELLOW-HEADED BLACKBIRD	Xanthocephalus	xanthocephalus
	RUSTY BLACKBIRD	Euphagus	carolinus
	BREWER'S BLACKBIRD	Euphagus	cyanocephalus
	COMMON GRACKLE	Quiscalus	quiscula
	BROWN-HEADED COWBIRD	Molothrus	ater
	ORCHARD ORIOLE	Icterus	spurius
	NORTHERN ORIOLE	Icterus	galbula
Fringillidao	PURPLE FINCH		•
Fringillidae		Carpodacus	purpureus
		Carpodacus	mexicanus
	PINE GROSBEAK	Pinicola	enucleator

Birds, continued	(part 7 of 7)
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Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Fringillidae	RED CROSSBILL	Loxia	curvirostra
, and the second s	WHITE-WINGED CROSSBILL	Loxia	leucoptera
	PINE SISKIN	Carduelis	pinus
	AMERICAN GOLDFINCH	Carduelis	tristis
	EVENING GROSBEAK	Coccothraustes	vespertinus
	COMMON REDPOLL	Carduelis	flammea
	HOARY REDPOLL	Carduelis	hornemanni
Passeridae	HOUSE SPARROW	Passer	domesticus
Source: Michigan Bird I	Records Committee, consistent with the chec	klist from the Americ	can Ornithologists
Union (excluding casuals			0

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Petromuyzontidae	LAMPREY, CHESTNUT	Ichthyomyzon	castaneus
	LAMPREY, NORTHERN BROOK	Ichthyomyzon	fossor
	LAMPREY, SILVER	Ichthyomyzon	unicuspis
	LAMPREY, AMERICAN BROOK	Lampetra	appendix
	LAMPREY, SEA	Petromyzon	marinus
Acipenseridae	STURGEON, LAKE	Acipenser	fulvescens
Lepisosteidae	GAR, SPOTTED (gar-pike)	Lipisosteus	oculatus
	GAR, LONGNOSE (gar-pike)	Lipisosteus	osseus
Amiidae	BOWFIN	Amia	calva
Hiodontidae	MOONEYE	Hiodon	tergisus
Anguillidae	EEL, AMERICAN	Anguilla	rostrata
Clupeidae	ALEWIFE	Alosa	pseudoharengus
	SHAD, GIZZARD (hickory shad)	Dorosoma	cepedianum
Cyprinidae	CENTRAL STONEROLLER	Campostoma	anomalum
	GOLDFISH	Carassius	auratus
	DACE, REDSIDE	Clinostomus	elongatus
	CHUB, LAKE	Couesius	plumbeus
	SHINER, SPOTFIN	Cyprinella	spiloptera
	CARP, COMMON (German carp)	Cyprinella	carpio
	MINNOW, BRASSY	Hybognathus	hankinsoni
	SHINER, STRIPED	Luxilus	chrysocephalus
	SHINER, COMMON	Luxilus	cornutus
	SHINER, REDFIIN	Lythrurus	umbratilis
	CHUB, SILVER	Macrhybopsis	storeriana
	DACE, PEARL	Margariscus	margarita
	CHUB, HORNYHEAD	Nocomis	biguttatus
	CHUB, RIVER (horned dace)	Nocomis	micropogon
	SHINER, GOLDEN	Notemigonus	crysoleucas
	CHUB, BIGEYE	Notropis	amblops
	SHINER, PUGNOSE	Notropis	anogenus
			-

FISHES-146 Species (part 1 of 4)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Cyprinidae	SHINER, EMERALD	Notropis	atherinoides
51	MINNOW, SILVERJAW (shiner)	Notropis	buccatus
	SHINER, IRONCOLOR	Notropis	chalybaeus
	SHINER, BIGMOUTH	Notropis	dorsalis
	SHINER, BLACKCHIN	Notropis	heterodon
	SHINER, BLACKNOSE	Notropis	heterolepis
	SHINER, SPOTTAIL	Notropis	hudsonius
	SHINER, SILVER	Notropis	photogenis
	SHINER, ROSYFACE	Notropis	rubellus
	SHINER, SAND	Notropis	stramineus
	SHINER, WEED	Notropis	texanus
	SHINER, MIMIC	Notropis	volucellus
	MINNOW, PUGNOSE (shiner)	Opsopoeodus	emiliae
	MINNOW, SUCKERMOUTH	Phenacobius	mirabilis
	DACE, NORTHERN REDBELLY	Phoxinus	eos
	DACE, SOUTHERN REDBELLY	Phoxinus	erythrogaster
	DACE, FINESCALE	Phoxinus	neogaeus
	MINNOW, BLUNTNOSE	Pimephales	notatus
	MINNOW, FATHEAD	Pimephales	promelas
	DACE, BLACKNOSE	Rhinichthys	atratulus
	DACE, BLACKNOSE DACE, LONGNOSE	Rhinichthys	cataractae
Cabitidaa	CHUB, CREEK (horned dace) ORIENTAL WEATHERFISH	Semotilus	atromaculatus
Cobitidae		Misgurnus	anguillicaudatus
Catostomidae	QUILLBACK	carpiodes	cyprinus
	SUCKER, LONGNOSE (redside, sturgeon sucker)	Catostomus	catostomus
	SUCKER, WHITE (mullet)	Catostomus	commersoni
	CHUBSUCKER, CREEK	Erimyzon	oblongus
		Erimyzon	sucetta
	SUCKER, NORTHERN HOG (hogmolly)	Hypentelium	nigricans
	BUFFALO, BIGMOUTH	Ictiobus	cyprinellus
	BUFFALO, BLACK	Ictiobus	niger
	SUCKER, SPOTTED	Minytrema	melanops
	REDHORSE, SILVER	Moxostoma	anisurum
	REDHORSE, RIVER	Moxostoma	carinatum
	REDHORSE, BLACK	Moxostoma	duquesnei
	REDHORSE, GOLDEN	Moxostoma	erythrurum
	REDHORSE, SHORTHEAD	Moxostoma	macrolepidotum
	REDHORSE, GREATER	Moxostoma	valenciennesi
Ictaluridae	BULLHEAD, BLACK	Ameiurus	melas
	BULLHEAD, YELLOW	Ameiurus	natalis
	BULLHEAD, BROWN	Ameiurus	nebulosus
	CATFISH, CHANNEL	Ictalurus	punctatus
	STONECAT	Noturus	flavus
	MADTOM, TADPOLE	Noturus	gyrinus
	MADTOM, MARGINED	Noturus	insignis
	MADTOM, BRINDLED	Noturus	miurus
	CATFISH, FLATHEAD	Pylodictis	olivaris
Esocidae	PICKEREL, GRASS (mud pickerel)	Esox	americanus
	PIKE, NORTHERN	Esox	lucius
	MUSKELLUNGE	Esox	masquinongy
			1 35

Fishes, continued (part 2 of 4)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Umbridae	MUDMINNOW, CENTRAL	Umbra	limi
Osmeridae	SMELT, RAINBOW	Osmerus	mordax
Salmonidae	HERRING, LAKE (cisco)	Coregonus	artedi
Camonado	WHITEFISH, LAKE	Coregonus	clupeaformis
	BLOATER (chub)	Coregonus	hoyi
	CISCO, DEEPWATER (chub)	Coregonus	johannae
	KIYI (chub)	Coregonus	kiyi
	CISCO, BLACKFIN (chub)	Coregonus	nigripinnis
	CISCO, SHORTJAW (chub)	Coregonus	zenithicus
	SALMON, PINK (humpback)	Oncorhynchus	gorbuscha
	SALMON, PINK (Inihipback) SALMON, COHO (silver)	Oncorhynchus	kisutch
	TROUT, RAINBOW (steelhead, bow)	Oncorhynchus	
			mykiss
	SALMON, CHINOOK (king)	Oncorhynchus	tshawytscha
	WHITEFISH, PYGMY	Prosopium	coulteri
	WHITEFISH, ROUND (menominee)	Prosopium	cylindraceum
	SALMON, ATLANTIC	Salmo	salar
	TROUT, BROWN (brownie)	Salmo	trutta Ganting lin
	TROUT, BROOK (speckled trout)	Salvelinus	fontinalis
	TROUT, LAKE (mackinaw, siscowit)	Salvelinus	namaycush
Percopsidae	TROUT-PERCH	Percopsis	omiscomaycus
Aphredoderidae	PERCH, PIRATE	Aphredoderus	sayanus
Gadidae	BURBOT (lawyer, eelpout)	Lota	lota
Cyprinodontidae	BANDED KILLIFISH	Fundulus	diaphanus
	TOPMINNOW, STARHEAD	Fundulus	dispar
	TOPMINNOW, BLACKSTRIPE	Fundulus	notatus
Poeciliidae	MOSQUITOFISH, WESTERN (topminnow)	Gambusia	affinis
Atherinidae	BROOK SILVERSIDE (skipjack)	Labidesthes	sicculus
Gasterosteidae	STICKLEBACK, BROOK	Culaea	inconstans
	STICKLEBACK, THREESPIINE	Gasterosteus	aculeatus
	STICKLEBACK, NINESPINE	Pungitius	pungitius
Cottidae	SCULPIN, MOTTLED	Cottus	bairdi
	SCULPIN, SLIMY	Cottus	cognatus
	SCULPIN, SPOONHEAD	Cottus	ricei
	SCULPIN, DEEPWATER	Myoxocephalus	thompsoni
Percichthyidae	PERCH, WHITE	Morone	americana
	BASS, WHITE	Morone	chrysops
Centrarchidae	BASS, ROCK (goggle-eye)	Ambloplites	rupestris
	SUNFISH, GREEN	Lepomis	cyanellus
	PUMPKINSEED (sunfish)	Lepomis	gibbosus
	WARMOUTH (redeye, goggle-eye)	Lepomis	gulosus
	SUNFISH, ORANGE-SPOTTED (sunfish)	Lepomis	humilis
	BLUEGILL (sunfish)	Lepomis	macrochirus
	SUNFISH, LONGEAR (sunfish)	Lepomis	megalotis
	SUNFISH, REDEAR (shellcracker)	Lepomis	microlophus
	BASS, SMALLMOUTH (bronzeback)	Micropterus	dolomieu
	BASS, LARGEMOUTH	Micropterus	salmoides
	CRAPPIE, WHITE (croppie, speck)	Pomoxis	annularis
	CRAPPIE, BLACK (croppie, speck, strawberry bass)	Pomoxis	nigromaculatus
Percidae	DARTER, EASTERN SAND	Ammocrypta	pellucida
	DARTER, GREENSIDE	Etheostoma	blennioides

Fishes, continued (part 3 of 4)

Fishes, continued (part 4 of 4)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Percidae	DARTER, RAINBOW	Etheostoma	caeruleum
	DARTER, IOWA	Etheostoma	exile
	DARTER, FANTAIL	Etheostoma	flabellare
	DARTER, LEAST	Etheostoma	microperca
	DARTER, JOHNNY	Etheostoma	nigrum
	DARTER, ORANGETHROAT	Etheostoma	spectabile
	DARTER, BANDED	Etheostoma	zonale
	PERCH, YELLOW	Perca	flavescens
	LOGPERCH	Percina	caprodes
	DARTER, CHANNEL	Percina	copelandi
	DARTER, BLACKSIDE	Percina	maculata
	SAUGER (pickerel)	Stizostedion	canadense
	WALLEYE (pickerel, walleyed pike)	Stizostedion	vitreum
Sciaenidae	DRUM, FRESHWATER (sheepshead)	Aplodinotus	grunniens
Gobiidae	GOBY, ROUND	Neogobius	melanostomus
	GOBY, TUBENOSE	Proterorhinus	marmoratus
Source: Sea Grant and	MSU Extension lists. Includes Great Lakes fishes.		

MAMMALS- 68 Species (part 1 of 2)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Didelphidae	VIRGINIA OPOSSUM	Didelphis	virginiana
Soricidae	ARCTIC SHREW	Sorex	arcticus
	MASKED SHREW	Sorex	cinereus
	SMOKY SHREW	Sorex	fumeus
	PYGMY SHREW	Sorex	hoyi
	WATER SHREW	Sorex	palustris
	NORTHERN SHORT-TAILED SHREW	Blarina	brevicauda
Talpidae	LEAST SHREW	Cryptotis	parva
	EASTERN MOLE	Scalopus	aquaticus
Vespertilionidae	STAR-NOSED MOLE	Condylura	cristata
	NORTHERN MYOTIS (long-eared bat)	Myotis	septentrionalis
	EASTERN SMALL-FOOTED MYOTIS	Myotis	leibii
	LITTLE BROWN BAT	Myotis	lucifugus
	INDIANA BAT	Myotis	solalis
	SILVER-HAIRED BAT	Lasionycteris	noctivagans
	EASTERN PIPISTRELLE	Pipistrellus	sublfavus
	BIG BROWN BAT	Eptesicus	fuscus
	RED BAT	Lasiurus	borealis
	HOARY BAT	Lasiurus	cinereus
	EVENING BAT	Nycticeius	humeralis
Leporidae	EASTERN COTTONTAIL	Sylvilagus	floridanus
	SNOWSHOE HARE	Lepus	americanus
	EUROPEAN HARE	Lepus	europaeus

amily	SPECIES	Genus	Species
Sciuridae	EASTERN CHIPMUNK	Tamias	striatus
	LEAST CHIPMUNK	Tamias	minimus
	WOODCHUCK	Marmota	monax
	FRANKLIN'S GROUND SQUIRREL	Spermophilus	franklinii
	13-LINED GROUND SQUIRREL	Spermophilus	tridecemlineatus
	GRAY SQUIRREL	Sciurus	carolinensis
	FOX SQUIRREL	Sciurus	niger
	RED SQUIRREL	Tamiasciurus	hudsonicus
	NORTHERN FLYING SQUIRREL	Glaucomys	sabrinus
	SOUTHERN FLYING SQUIRREL	Glaucomys	volans
Castoridae	BEAVER	Castor	canadensis
	MEADOW JUMPING MOUSE		hudsonicus
Dipodidae		Zapus	
Qui a a ti al a a	WOODLAND JUMPING MOUSE	Napaeozapus	insignis
Cricetidae	WHITE-FOOTED MOUSE	Peromyscus	leucopus
	DEER MOUSE	Peromyscus	maniculatus
	SOUTHERN RED-BACKED VOLE	Clethrionomys	gapperi
	PRAIRIE VOLE	Microtus	ochrogaster
	MEADOW VOLE	Microtus	pennsylanicus
	WOODLAND VOLE	Microtus	pinetorum
	MUSKRAT	Ondatra	zibethicus
	SOUTHERN BOG LEMMING	Synaptomys	cooperi
Muridae	NORWAY RAT	Rattus	norvegicus
	HOUSE MOUSE	Mus	musculus
Erethizontidae	PORCUPINE	Erethizon	dorsatum
Canidae	COYOTE	Canis	latrans
	GRAY WOLF	Canis	lupus
	RED FOX	Vulpes	vulpes
	GRAY FOX	Urocyon	cinereoargenteu
Jrsidae	BLACK BEAR	Ursus	americanus
Procyonidae	RACCOON	Procyon	lotor
Nustelidae	MARTEN	Martes	americana
	FISHER	Martes	pennanti
	ERMINE	Mustela	erminea
	LONG-TAILED WEASEL	Mustela	frenata
	LEAST WEASEL	Mustela	nivalis
	MINK	Mustela	vison
	BADGER	Taxidea	taxus
	NORTHERN RIVER OTTER	Lutra	canadensis
Mephitidae	STRIPED SKUNK	Mephitis	mephitis
Felidae	BOBCAT		rufus
rellude		Lynx	
	LYNX (Canada Lynx)	Lynx	canadensis
Convidoo	COUGAR	Felis	concolor
Cervidae		Cervus	elaphus
	WHITE-TAILED DEER	Odocoileus	virginiana
	MOOSE	Alces	alces

Mammals, continued (part 2 of 2)

Source: Primarily from Baker, R.H. Michigan Mammals, 1993, updated taxonomy from Whitaker & Hamilton, 1998. *Notes:* Myotis keenii is now M. septentrionalis (Whitaker & Hamilton, 1998). European Hare; Lepus europaeus in Whitaker & Hamilton, L capensis in Baker. Least chipmunk is Tamias in Whitaker & Hamilton and Eutamias in Baker. Wolverine excluded in Whitaker & Hamilton. Baker uses 'Felis' for bobcat and lynx, Whitaker & Hamilton use 'Lynx'. Baker includes Woodland Caribou and Bison and Whitaker & Hamilton do not. Whitaker & Hamilton states extirpation dates for bison (~1800), caribou (~1915), and wolverine (~1860). Cougar has been included due to many unofficial sightings in the U.P.

REPTILES- 30 Species (part 1 of 1)

Family	SPECIES	Genus	Spacias
Family			Species
Chelydridae	SNAPPING TURTLE	<i>Chelydra</i>	serpentina
Kinosternidae	COMMON MUSK TURTLE	Sternotherus	odoratus
Emydidae	SPOTTED TURTLE	Clemmys	guttata
	WOOD TURTLE	Clemmys	insculpta "
	EASTERN BOX TURTLE	Terrapene	carolina
	BLANDING'S TURTLE	Emydoidea	blandingii
	COMMON MAP TURTLE	Graptemys	geographa
	PAINTED TURTLE	Chrysemys	picta
	RED-EARED SLIDER	Trachemys	scripta
Trionychidae	SPINY SOFTSHELL TURTLE	Apalone [Trionyx]	spninfera
Scincidae	FIVE-LINED SKINK	Eumeces	fasciatus
Teiidae	SIX-LINED RACERUNNER	Cnemidophorus	sexlineatus
Colubridae	NORTHERN WATER SNAKE	Nerodia	sipedon
	NORTHERN COPPERBELLY SNAKE	Nerodia	erythrogaster
	QUEEN SNAKE	Regina	septemvittata
	KIRTLAND'S SNAKE	Clonophis	kirtlandii
	EASTERN GARTER SNAKE	Thamnophis	sirtalis
	BUTLER'S GARTER SNAKE	Thamnophis	butleri
	NORTHERN RIBBON SNAKE	Thamnophis	sauritus
	BROWN SNAKE	Storeria	dekayi
	NORTHERN RED-BELLIED SNAKE	Storeria	occipitomaculata
	EASTERN SMOOTH GREEN SNAKE	Liochlorophis	vernalis
	BLUE RACER	Coluber	constrictor
	BLACK RAT SNAKE	Elaphe	obsoleta
	WESTERN FOX SNAKE	Elaphe	vulpina
	EASTERN FOX SNAKE	Elaphe	gloydi
	EASTERN MILK SNAKE	Lampropeltis	triangulum
	NORTHERN RINGNECK SNAKE	Diadophis	punctatus
	EASTERN HOGNOSE SNAKE	Heterodon	, platirhinos
V iperidae	EAST MASSASAUGA RATTLESNAKE	Sistrurus	catenatus
Source: MSU Exte	ension: Harding & Holman (1997). Holman, Hard	ling, Hensley, & Dudder	rar (1999).

AMPHIBIANS- 25 Species (part 1 of 1)

FamilySPECIESGenusSpeciesProteidaeMUDPUPPYNecturusmaculosusSirenidaeWESTERN LESSER SIRENSirenintermediaSalamandridaeCENTRAL NEWTNotophthalumusviridescensAmbystomatidaeSPOTTED NEWTNotophthalumusviridescensAmbystomatidaeSPOTTED SALAMANDERAmbystomalateraleBLUE-SPOTTED SALAMANDERAmbystomalateraleSMALL-MOUTHED SALAMANDERAmbystomatexanumMARBLED SALAMANDERAmbystomatexanumBufontidaeRED-BACKED SALAMANDERAmbystomatigrinumPlethodontidaeRED-BACKED SALAMANDERHemidactyliumscutatumBufonidaeAMERICAN TOADBufoamericanusFOWLER'S TOADBufowoodhousiirepitansHylidaeBLANCHARD'S CRICKET FROGAcriscrepitansWESTERN CHORUS FROGPseudacristriseriata
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FOWLER'S TOADBufowoodhousiiHylidaeBLANCHARD'S CRICKET FROGAcriscrepitans
Hylidae BLANCHARD'S CRICKET FROG Acris crepitans
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WESTERN CHORUS EROG Pseudacris trisoriata
BOREAL CHORUS FROG Pseudacris triseriata
NORTHERN SPRING PEEPER Pseudacris crucifer
GRAY TREEFROG Hyla versicolor
COPE'S GRAY TREEFROG Hyla chrysoscelis
RanidaeGREEN FROGRanaclamitans
BULLFROG Rana catesbeiana
NORTHERN LEOPARD FROG Rana pipens
PICKEREL FROG Rana palustris
MINK FROG Rana septentriona
WOOD FROGRanasylvatica
Source: MSU Extension: Harding & Holman (1999).



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