

**PATTERNS OF ANIMAL SIZE AND LANDSCAPE COMPLEXITY—  
CORRESPONDENCE WITHIN AND ACROSS SCALES**

By

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"The greatest four things  
which are useless at sea,  
rubber, oars,  
and the fear of going down"  
-Antonio Machado

Those whom love I share know  
but dedications are just fancy nonsense  
of what they already love in  
The work is dedicated to those  
who leave all the trappings of certainty behind,  
armor, weapons and the fear of no control,  
and who expect us to live  
in the midst of an ever-deepening question  
with a very sense of whimsy

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**FILTERING OF ANIMAL SIZE AND LANDSCAPE COMPLEXITY  
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Statistical patterns of animal morphology reflect interactions between animals and landscapes at a number of scales. Uni-modal distributions of morphology have been used as evidence that animals respond to continuous distributions of environmental variables. A new synthesis - animal body mass lump analysis - tests discontinuous patterns of animal size as evidence of causal interactions with discontinuous patterns of landscape structure. The objective of this thesis was to test both landscape and non-landscape based explanations for their power to predict the generality and consistency of discontinuous patterns of animal size distributions.

Lump analysis is a reliable method for linking discontinuities in animal size distributions. Lump pattern, a pattern of lumps separated by gaps

an animal community's body mass size distribution is robust to variance in body mass size estimates within species and to error in estimating species occurrence. These lump patterns are not artifacts of random sampling from continuous unimodal size distributions.

I discovered size distributions in bird and mammal communities in 100 ecosystems in 18 biomes found in a wide variety of climates and landscapes. Landscapes of similar landscape structural complexity consistently exhibited similar lump patterns with a high degree of correspondence in the locations of lumps and gaps. The degree to which lump pattern is constant to two communities or biomes varies as the difference in landscape structure increases. Lump structure predicts the scale and feature of landscape use by mammal species greater in those species within a body mass lump size similar features of landscape geometry.

I found that new landscape hypotheses also explain lump patterns, but at different levels than those explained by landscape-based hypotheses. Phylogeny appears to explain broad, coarse levels of lump pattern common to most mammal communities globally. Body size patterns evident at high taxonomic levels (Orders) correspond to those zones on the size axis where lumps are commonly found in mammal communities. Competition for resources within a single range of scale appears to explain fine levels of lump pattern, the size distributions within the lumps. Body sizes of species within lumps are more evenly dispersed than expected by chance.

CHAPTER 1  
ANIMAL INTERACTIONS WITH LANDSCAPES  
INTEGRATING ECOLOGY OVER MULTIPLE SCALES

*Ecological complexity is a function of how we choose to describe systems. Systems become complex when, in seeking understanding or prediction, we create levels of organization that are distinct in temporal/spatial scale or are characterized by entities of disparate types.* (Allen and Hoekstra 1992)

Introduction

Ecological theory evolves via a series of splits and re-integrations. New avenues of inquiry split the field and burgeon into separate disciplines. Splits are frequently bounded by theoretical and/or logistical constraints, and the gaps between these bounds often provide rich new avenues of inquiry which stimulate re-integration (Pickett et al., 1984). Ecology's emergence as a discipline 70 years ago can be viewed as building a bridge between organismal physiology and biogeography (Schlager 1983; Holmstead 1985). Since then, how numerous splits and re-integrations reflect efforts to expand the scope of ecological research to explain the ever-widening scales of environmental change or anthropogenic impact. Splits or re-integrations often mark the emergence of a sub-discipline to address questions at specific scales, such as populations, communities, ecosystems, and biomes.

Ecology is currently challenged to address problems of change at unprecedented global scales. Attempts to predict potential climate impacts expose a number of gaps in ecological understanding. One key gap has emerged between community and ecosystem ecology. Strictly relevant either

on the 'organismal focus' of community ecology or on the 'process focus' of ecosystem ecology has proven inadequate as a conceptual framework for testing ideas about change over a broad range of time and space scales. This gap offers an opportunity to integrate the latest advances of separate disciplines into a broad synthesis. Increasingly, both disciplines recognize the reciprocal nature of organisms and ecosystems as a critical 'frontier of integration' in ecology (Folgarait et al. 1994). If disciplinary protocols are relaxed such that neither organisms nor processes are assumed to be constant (Damuth 1987, Cole 1983), what phenomenon integrates the results of their interactions?

One promising synthesis gives a more flexible frame of reference for ecological interactions. It considers organism-process interactions as part of the functional dynamics of 'complex adaptive systems' (Brown 1995, Levin 1992, Kauffman 1995, Holling 1986, 1992). In systems models components may interact over different, distinct temporal and spatial scales. This view departs from research traditions which rigidly frame the space/time scales at which information is measured or collected. For example, Kanwisher (1988) notes that roughly 80 percent of all manipulative ecological field experiments were performed at the scale of one mean quadrat. Since interactions are not studied exclusively at one scale-specific reference (stress, population, community) analysis may consider any appropriate range of scale. This perspective can incorporate both interactions which operate over distinct scale stages and those which cross scales, such as the ontogenic processes of fire or pest outbreaks.

A key theme within this synthesis is that statistical patterns of spatial behavior and morphology can be used as indices of important interactions at a number of scales. The shapes and bounds of statistical distributions of

such animal size indices are patterns which reflect either "intrinsic, evolutionary or extrinsic, environmental constraints on variation" (Brown 1975). The test of whether intrinsic or extrinsic processes are the primary influences on animal size indices is the subject of this dissertation. I shall first discuss the synthesis of this theory in terms of the development of theory that links patterns of organism size and behavior to those of processes and landscape structure. I shall examine the questions which have emerged during this synthesis and shall conclude by describing the tools I shall use to probe these questions.

### Six. Patterns of Organisms Evolving in a Non-Bounded World

The organism is a common node in many "traditional ecological world models and is widely used as a point of departure to integrate ecological theory (Hurler et al. 1988). This focus is evident in studies relating morphology (body size) to a wide variety of processes including physiology (Kleiber 1961), developmental and reproductive strategies (Pianka 1976, Kohn 1984), longevity (Stearns 1981), social organization (Janson 1978, Eisenberg 1981), home range (McNab 1963, Harestad and Bonnell 1979), and community structure (Pianka 1974, Diamond 1981, Robinson and Redford 1986). How ecological theory is integrated depends on the scale at which processes and related organism size distributions are studied. For example, population ecologists look at intraspecific variability of individual size and size population size distributions as surrogates for age distributions in population dynamics studies (Sibly 1978, Huggan and Cornell 1987). Small scale population processes (growth rates and mortality) have been compared across different environmental types as potential causes of bi-modality in population size distributions (Huston and DeAngelis 1985).

The focus shifts from intra- to inter-specific size variability when community ecologists define patterns of community organization. Lawton (1970) quantified relationships between population density, species diversity and mean body size. Most such studies have examined community organization rules for terrestrial insects (Preston and Whelanberg 1985, Dennoth 1987, Gaston and Lawton 1988, Maurer and Brown 1988, Blackburn et al. 1992). Patterns of mammal community structure have been correlated with body size, diet, population biomass, and rate of reproduction (Eisenberg 1981, Eisenberg, O'Connell, and August 1979, Rowland and Eisenberg 1988, Robinson and Redford 1986 a, b).

Brown (1985) proposed "macroecology" to explore overarching patterns of larger scales (biome to global scales in space and decadal to millennial in time) in order to bridge gaps in understanding concerning processes defined at smaller scales by population and community ecologists. By forging synthetic links between ecology, biogeography, paleobiology and macroevolution, the new initiative of macroecology aims to establish a more informed context for smaller scale questions of abundance, distribution and diversity of species as affected by interactions between organisms (inter-specific) and their environment.

### Macroecological Patterns of Animal Morphometrics

Some general trends do relate animal morphometric patterns to large scale evolutionary, ecological and climatic patterns. Mammal body size correlates strongly with seasonality; the amplitude of seasonal climatic variation (Lambertini and Boyer 1994). For evolutionary lineages the general trend for body size to increase (Cope's Law) now appears to apply only to the upper size range over many species through its size over evolutionary time.



(Laliberté 2017). Regional (intra-continental) trends show that population density scales negatively with body size (Peters 1983). For both temperate and tropical latitudes herbivorous and carnivorous mammal body size decline with increasing density. A weak trend (low correlation coefficient) is also evident for birds (Peters 1983).

Numerous regional scale studies of animal body size distributions (Van Valen 1973, May 1978, 1986, 1993, Sarnoff 1988, Dal and Marshall 1998, Mertz, Stock and Lawton 1988, Lawton 1990, Brown and Nicoletti 1991, Mazon, Brown and Rankin 1992) find the same body size pattern irrespective of the kind of animal (insects, trees, fishes, mammals and mammals). The regional size pattern is highly modal with a pronounced right skew (see bottom of Figure 1-3) indicating the predominance of small over large organisms. This trend appears related to the greater incidence of small species (May 1988, Lawton 1990) and to the higher densities attained by small organisms (Peters and Wissinger 1990, Brown and Mazon 1988, Donath 2007, Lawton 2007).

Hutchinson and MacArthur (1959) suggested that the greater capacity of small animals to access resources explains their greater abundance. A similar prediction is made if the world's structure is viewed as fractal (May 1986, 1994; Mazon, Stock and Lawton 1988, Lawton 1990): if environments are self-similar at structure at all scales, then most resources will be available at the top scales where they can be most densely packed. However, fractal geometry is not universal; many structures are self-similar only over certain ranges of scales (Holling 1992). Furthermore, the regional size pattern for animals (May 1988) does not display the highest abundances at the smallest sizes. Abundance increases to a modal size (around 100 grams for terrestrial

mammals, around 50 grams for land birds (Brown, Marquet and Taper 1999) and then declines with increasing size.

Brown and Nilsson (1992) found that for mammals the regional unimodal size pattern flattens with decreasing spatial scale. Community size distributions are tailless, and those for fishes are unimodal. They explain the flattening of body size frequencies at local scales as a result of processes at several scales which amplify the frequencies of the large and small size extremes. At small scales the physiological limitations of small animals require their consumption of high energy resources whose patchy distribution is at scales smaller than most sampling units, resulting in their presence at most sites. Large animals are found at most sites due to their broad home ranges. At all scales local competition excludes similar sized animals.

Macroecology searches over broad scales for patterns which reveal processes which regulate species abundance, distribution and diversity (Brown 1995). However, few such broad scale studies of animal macroecology discuss process interactions within the framework of complex adaptive systems, wherein components interact non-linearly and at diverse, different space-temporal scales. Most such studies use an implicit 'Gimenez' world model; they see the world as a multi-axis space of overlapping environmental gradients. Processes are inferentially "scale invariant" in that their impacts are seen to overlap in space and time (Figure 1-3) such that their effects are simply averaged over the entire range of scales. The degree of overlap implicit in this 'continuous' world view is such that the aggregate distribution of impacts is viewed as unimodal density function which spans all scales. Unimodal size distributions are likely products of

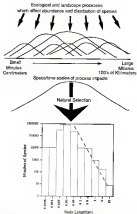


Figure 1-4. Continuous World Model: scale invariant operation of ecological processes selects for a continuous distribution of animal sizes (graph after May 1984)

universal models of process output distributions. It instead follows that the world size for any animal group (e.g. mammals) is considered 'optimal' at all scales for a habitat or ecosystem (Brown 1995, Brown and Nicolson 1991)

### **Suggestants of a Discontinuous World**

Several lines of evidence from paleoecology and computer simulation of ecosystem behavior can contrast to a "continuous" world view. The clustering of time series data for macro-scale abiotic processes such as insect outbreaks (Clark et al., 1979, McNamee et al. 1981, Holling 1980, 1982), fires (Clark 1982), and floods (M & P Fleming 1982) into small sets of repetitive cycles or periodicities does not appear a likely product of processes randomly overlapping over broad scales. Some degree of aggregation of the time behavior of processes is suggested by sharp peaks in time series spectra. Similarly, computer simulation models provide little support for the view of ecosystem behavior as a product of many variables interacting randomly at all scales. Mathematical models of systems as different as African savannas and Canadian boreal forests (McNamee et al., 1981, Holling 1980, Holling 1982, Walker et al., 1984, Steele 1983) suggest that the essentials of ecosystem behavior appear in the dynamics of relatively few variables (Holling, 1982). The differences in variatic speeds (cycling times) are about an order of magnitude, again suggesting qualitatively different temporal behavior domains for the key variables driving an ecosystem.

Explorations of complex systems behavior (Kauffman 1981, 1983, Perry 1982) using computers suggests that a continuous world is an unlikely context for the evolution of complicated entities such as organisms or ecosystems. Evolution appears possible only when the behavior of system variables is confined to a small set of relatively stable cycles (attractors). Stability results

from hierarchical structure with strict constraints on the number of interactions which are significant to any variable (Dunham et al. 1998, Allen and Barry 1992, Allen 1992). In the continuous world the operation of ecological processes at all scales implies a multitude of potential interactions, many of which are significant. Chaotic collapse occurs in simulated systems with such a liberal density of significant connections (Kauffman 1991, 1993). Structuring process (low, local) periodicities suggest the same kind of temporal clustering of attraction which appear in simulated systems in which evolution is possible. Aided by increasing sophistication of computer simulation and remote sensing, larger scale ecological research has added evidence of clustering of behavior in aspects in space.

Evidence for scale-specific ranges of impact for ecological processes continues to accumulate. Processes important at one scale range may appear insignificant at another. Variance in litter decomposition rates measured at local scales correspond well with more-scale patterns of the litter and decomposer communities. However, more-scale climatic patterns explain variance at regional scales (Steinberger 1978, Steinberger 1984).

These lines of evidence suggested to Holling (1982) that small sets of plant, animal or abiotic processes act in a manner analogous to keystone species (Paine 1966) to regulate the spatial distribution and patch size of species in terrestrial ecosystems. Holling's (1982) "Extended Keystone Hypothesis" summarized these suggestions by positing that processes "form interacting chains of relationships, each of which determines the temporal and spatial structure over a constrained range of scales." A landscape's spatial heterogeneity is a nesting of smaller structures within larger and larger aggregates. Hierarchical structuring results from the coincidence of processes cycling with different periodicities in spatially nested sets. These local areas

operating at fast speeds are nested within more slowly cycling regions. The specific space/time scale ranges of these sets of structuring processes define the dimensions of landscape units or "lumps" within the hierarchy. Measuring the dimensions of these lumps and linking them to the forces which exploit them could establish the parameters for a new model of interactions between organisms and the environment.

### *Five Facets of Organisms Evolving in a Hierarchical World*

Efforts to define landscape structure and examine its influence on ecological processes coalesced into a discipline within the last four decades (Wiens 1984). Quantitative landscape ecology examines structure (spatial geometry) and functional relations at scales of hectares to square kilometers (Turner 1989). Landscape structure is defined as the spatial distribution of materials, species and energy as they relate to size, shape and number (Turner 1989). Landscape function consists of the interactions between spatial elements. This avenue of inquiry expanded the notion of ecological processes structuring the landscape with evidence that structure in turn influences processes. Turner (1989) demonstrated links between spatial structure (patch size and the distribution of patch sizes) and process rates. For example, critical thresholds in patch density may determine whether the spread of disturbances is related to disturbance intensity (high density) or disturbance frequency (low density) (Turner et al. 1989). The effects of landscape structure (patches) on organizational processes has been studied at the levels of population and metapopulation structure (Ripley 1967, Simonsen et al. 1991, Gilpin and Harshbarger 1991) and community and ecosystem dynamics (Folgarit and White 1983, Caswell and Cohen 1991). If process pseudoholism extends other variables such as vegetation (structure) and animals, then a model of

interactions in a discontinuous world is enriched by feedbacks between structure and processes.

Attempts to define landscape structure which is linked to animal behavior and community organization continue more fully. Arthur's (1995a) studies of vertical vegetation complexity and relative abundances of bird species. The question of defining landscape structure at multiple scales in a discontinuous world is more complicated in that it demands that all forms of structure, vegetational and otherwise, be accounted for.

### Defining Landscape Structure

Hierarchical definitions of system structure can be construed as an arbitrarily imposed human organizational bias to filter ecosystem complexity. Human bias can influence the measure of both structure and function. For instance, the linear scale adopted for a map determines patch number, size and shape (Cadenese et al. 1987). The measure of functional flows between patches are also affected by the spatio-temporal bias of the observer (Turner 1989).

Two approaches are commonly used to avoid scale bias in defining landscape structural patterns. The first (Korvasil et al. 1987, Miles 1988) searches for patterns by consciously avoiding a human reference scale in measuring patterns. The measure of ecological patterns is influenced both by how data is bounded and resolved and how spatial and temporal relationships are calculated. The space and time dimensions of data must be explicitly defined because of the current lack of widely accepted sets of spatial scales to define or measure ecological processes or patterns (Holling 1992). Calculation methods are another source of bias in finding spatial and temporal ecological patterns. Bias is minimized by using objective (scale invariant)

algorithms at many different scales to derive a cross-scale measure of pattern complexity (Mandelbrot 1982, Gunderman 1992). Fractal geometry is one such attempt to derive objective landscape structure (Ruessink et al. 1992, Miller 1988, O'Neill et al. 1988, Turner and Faucher 1988).

Animals linked to landscapes by scale-dependent patterns of resource perception and utilization.

Another approach avoids human bias in seeking an "organism-oriented view" of the environment (Whittaker 1975, Turner 1989). The assumption is that animal survival is linked to its perception of structure at scales which reveal patterns critical to its survival (Turner 1988). This approach follows the intuition of MacArthur that the physical structure of the environment regulates biotic communities and the morphology and behavior of associated animal species (MacArthur and MacArthur 1962, MacArthur et al. 1966a). MacArthur's tree-rotting example related vertical stratification of vegetation to species diversity.

Some attributes of animal perception and response correlate with animal morphology. Mammalian auditory perception scales with body size (Eisenberg 1980). The frequency range of sound production is lower for large bodied mammals (Caldar 1984), and scales of frequency perception covaries negatively with body size (Dooling, 1980). If these perceptual faculties which mediate animal interaction with landscape scale with size, then size indexes landscape structure.

The study of animal movement patterns has neither the theoretical nor the empirical basis to establish a "mechanistic basis" for landscape ecology that links perception to structure (Jain 1992). However, broader inferences have been drawn from patterns of animal mobility and vegetation structure. Patterns of species distribution, community structure and habitat use are



clearly associated with vegetation structure and habitat configuration or "physiognomy". Larger more homogeneous forests have higher avian species diversity and more host plants (Jensenack and Marston 1990). Additionally, body size scales with the size and texture of landscape objects. Many frugivores such as gnatcatchers discriminate and respond to specific micro-habit structures, for example they seldom use habitat within 100 meters of a highway, whether the road is in use or not (Turner 1989). Gilbert (2007) demonstrated that antbird(ry) size correlated with the structure of the undergrowth they exploited as it to minimize resistance from vegetation. Demonstrations that landscape elements such as patch size, shape and diversity influence resource use suggest that animal interactions with landscape structure organize communities (Piegorsch 1987). However, can organizing roles suggested by studies of community components (single species or guilds) be extrapolated to the whole community?

### **Evolutionary Patterns, Large Scale Community Stability**

Darlington (1937) proposed that extreme factors will cause biotic communities to be "complementary" in their organization. According to the "Principle of Complementarity" similar spatial distributions of environmental components, such as soils and climate, will influence natural selection such that the same niches will be filled irrespective of the initial phylogenetic stock. Paleontological evidence suggests that vegetation structure (for example, cover) is another environmental factor which organizes communities, making them "complementary" in a fashion analogous to Darlington's principle (Shawley 1990). For example, even when continuous assemblages become extant, their replacements were remarkably similar in body size and form (Marlin 1990). Is this example

replacement of secondary consumers produces similar body size patterns when communities remain similar in vegetation cover, primary consumer and primary productivity.

Wiens (1984) suggested that the composition of animal communities is so dynamic that such 'snapshot' phenomena are not reliable indices of any rules of ecological organization. Extreme fluctuations in year-to-year species abundances for birds (Wiens and Rotenberry 1981) and mammals (Brown 1975) suggest that there is no 'community balance' from which to predict the community's future. If an animal community does not represent some stable equilibrium, how could any association between mammals and environmental factors last long enough to influence evolution or even the community's long term organization? If communities are non-equilibrium and reflect fluctuating mixtures of fast and slow variables, then a static definition of the community, such as a statistical size distribution, is arbitrary. However, evidence of macro-scale "complementarity", measured across biomes (Darlington 1957) or zones (Marlin 1990), suggests that larger scale associations of structure and animal community organization exist in relative equilibrium. Similarly, broad community patterns such as species composition are much more stable than fluctuating abundances.

Heterogeneity (Wiens 1984), appears scale dependent. The composition of the local ground foraging bird guild may fluctuate dramatically and show little relation with small scale floristic. But bird composition correlates well with landscape structure when defined at larger scales of aggregation such as "western mesic prairie", "west shortgrass prairie", and "western shrubsteppe habitat". The question remains, however, at what scales are animal communities stable enough to justify their characterization by a static index, such as a size distribution?

### Summary Model of a Lumpy Environment

The sort of data on process cycles, spatial pattern, and organism perception and use of landscapes provides evidence sufficient to complete a testable model of a discontinuous world. In the continuous model animals interact with ecological processes whose impacts are continuously distributed over all scales. The discontinuous model constrains the scales of animal interactions to limited ranges. Two possible scenarios achieve this. The first narrows the space/time scales of process impacts such that they do not overlap (Fig. 1-2). A nested temporal hierarchy of process periodicities entrains variables into aggregates or "lumps" each operating at its own space/time scale. This coupling of process cycling to behavior of ecological variables, such as vegetation, also structures the environment. Entrainment of vegetation and terrain variables by the periodicities of structuring processes produces vegetative and substrate structure unique to the scale range of each lump. For example, dramatic differences in spatial resolution distinguish lawns (micro-scale) from forest stands (meso-scale) from forest valleys (macro-scale).

Lumpiness is not exclusively tied to a bimodal distribution of contiguous driving forces. The same lumpy world could emerge even if the space/time impacts of process operation were continuously distributed across all scales. In the second scenario lumpiness occurs as an emergent property of system self-organization. Systems which persist and evolve tend to exhibit periodicities (limit cycles) in the behaviors of variables (Korffman, 1981, 1983; Every, 1988), and these can act as attractors which entrain the geometries of structural variables and the morphologies of animals which exploit those

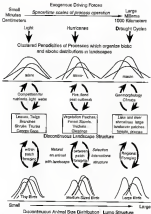


Figure 1-3. Discontinuous World Model driven by self-organization of lumpy landscape structures and animal morphologies.

structures. However, opportunities to feed, breed and hide are not simple functions of spatial geometry... The interaction of temporal discontinuities (process periodicities) with spatial heterogeneity is a self-organizing process which generates a humpy world. Qualitative structural discontinuities between humps could spatially reallocate opportunities presented by the temporally discontinuous hierarchy of choices for animals. For example, seasonal temperature oscillations parallel the trajectories of canopy volume in high latitude deciduous forests. The humpy model posits that animals interact with an environmental hierarchy which is a discontinuous space/time distribution of process cycling speeds, impacts and physical structures. The combined interaction of animal behavioral choices, landscape structure and atmosphere is shown as a space/time model of the humpy world (Figure 1-11)

In the study I propose to compare the relative influences of intrinsic and extrinsic factors on animal size as a test of two world views. Intrinsic influences on animal size variation can be quantified as the animal community's composition in terms of trophic level, food niche, or taxonomic category. Testing extrinsic influences requires quantification of landscape structure. That task begins with the description and ranking of the spatial dimensions of objects in a hierarchical model of animal-landscape interactions.

#### Defining spatial dimensions of ecological objects.

Terms describing environmental features (vegetation, land cover) and hierarchical levels of animal association (organism, deme, population) need to be related by a scale standard reference frame of spatial dimensions. Currently no such reference frame is commonly accepted by the various ecological disciplines. Community ecologists define community according to the scale dictated by the question at hand (P. Forman, pers. comm.)

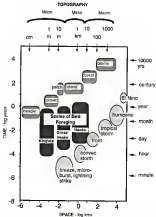


Figure 1-3 Model of discontinuous distribution of space/time dimensions for operations of atmospheric processes, forest structures and fuel foraging scales.

and ecosystem ecologists use a similar sliding scale to define "ecosystems." In the bacteria in an abandoned classroom can be considered as a "community" as may all weed populations over 1000 square kilometers. The history of double use of such terms as "community" or "ecosystem" makes it desirable to avoid an exact definition for each term, for that fardoesness discourages all other efforts to study animal-landscape interactions. However, to avoid confusion, I shall try to follow the spatial scales delineated in Figure 1-6. The dimensions and examples associated with these terms are arbitrary, but they form a clear and objective basis for discussion.

### Summary and Character of Chapter

In this chapter I have striven to establish the basis for the continuous and discontinuous world models. I have set the context for this study as an investigation of both models using patterns of animal size as indices of animal interaction with the environment. In the succeeding chapters I provide the conceptual and methodological bases for my tests. I test the relevance of my pattern detection methodologies and then apply them in a range of animal communities to look for informative differences and similarities of body size patterns. I shall test explanations based both on the continuous and discontinuous world views and then draw my findings into a summary synthesis. The details of each subsequent chapter are as follows.

In Chapter 2, I discuss the conceptual and methodological foundations for using animal body size to explore interactions between animals and landscape structure. I describe the advances made since the first attempts to test the existence of multiple modes in body size distributions. These advances establish the existence and generality of humpy body size

Examples of Landform Types  
at each scale  
Continental level Forest  
Temperate Deciduous

Continental level Forest	Examples of Landform Types at each scale Temperate Deciduous	Global Descriptors (Physical) Scale	Regional Scale	Physiography
Alpine Trees	Alpine top	5000	01	Physiography
Alpine forest	Low shrubs	600	01	Habitat
Black spruce bog w/ shrub patches	Sub tundra flats	01	1	Community
Likiepina forest lowlands	Shrub/Forest Gallery Stream Swales	01	50	Ecosystem
Spruce/Jackpine/ Lake Missouri	Great upland/ stream gullies	1	100	Landscape
Boreal Forest	Highgrass Prairie	10	100	Biome
Boreal	Temperate	100	100	Super-Biome
North America	North America	500	010	Continent
Northem	Northem	1000	1000	Hemisphere

Figure 1-4. Arbitrary quantitative scales of scales for spatial terminology with examples at each level of the landscape hierarchy from forest level and temperate grassland land cover.



distributions and demonstrates a compelling regularity of patterns that sets a favorable context for further research. This context is enriched by recent work which links patterns of landscape structure with those of lump structure. I then describe and discuss the various hypotheses which explain lump size distributions based either on a continuous or discontinuous world view. Finally, I describe some of the shortcomings of a variety of prior techniques for determining the number of modes in size distributions so as to highlight the advantages of the Gap Analysis (Batschelet, Korpik and Mäkipä 1997).

I test the robustness of Gap Analysis methodology for statistical analysis of size distributions before I use it to test landscape and non-landscape hypotheses on actual animal body mass data sets. Specifically I shall test the sensitivity of Gap Analysis to two sources of error. The error sources stem from two types of variability in the body size data sets. The first is related to sampling error due to techniques which inadequately assess the space/time dynamics of several populations. The second error source potentially arises from the size variability inherent within species populations. I strive to narrow the faculty between the posing of hypotheses (Chapter 2) and application of subsequent tests (Chapters 3- 5) by placing these qualifying probes of Gap Analysis in Appendix A.

In Chapter 3, I test lump body patterns across a wide variety of factors for internal consistency (commensality) when comparing animal communities landscapes of similar structure and for anagonesis (singularity) when comparing animal assemblages in different landscapes. I test whether such lump patterns are scale dependent by carrying out these comparisons at several spatial scales, the home and super-home levels. I test the robustness and generality of lump structure at several scales by examining whether

similarities and differences of lump structure reflect consequences and consequences, respectively, of landscape geometry.

In Chapter 4, I test evidence in environmental explanations of ecosystem-level lump structure. I examine whether lump structure reflects the complexity of landscape geometry at different scales (rooms, ecotones, habitat). For a wide variety of structurally distinct ecosystems I quantify and statistically correlate landscape geometry with lump structure (number of lumps). Finally, I test lump structure for its capacity to predict landscape structure use by mammals at the scales of ecotones and forests.

In Chapter 5, I examine at several levels explanations of ecosystem lump structure based on the continuous world view. I abstractly distinguish explanations of lumpy use patterns based on animal responses to external structure from those based on inter-organismal interactions as external vs. intrinsic.<sup>1</sup> At the level of entire animal communities I examine intrinsic explanations of lump structure as posited by the trophic, morphological and phylogenetic hypotheses. At two levels (animal community and animal size distributions within lumps) I test the prediction that competition-induced character displacement causes body masses to be more evenly spread along the size axis than expected by chance. At the level of entire animal communities the intrinsic-based hypotheses can be rejected if I find consequences of lump structure with some distinct differences: 1) when comparing different trophic levels of the same taxa in the same landscape; 2) when comparing different taxa in the same landscape.

In Chapter 6, I summarize the findings of the preceding two chapters and I discuss a synthesis of these findings in terms of the potential to expand this line of inquiry beyond the present study.

### Prize - Career Outcome of Candidates

The breadth of theory addressed in this work is incredible, the methods used to analyse and present data are novel, and the volume of data processed to test these questions is considerable. The prospect of engaging all these challenges simultaneously brings to mind a Czech film director's comment on straggled runners who charged with problems at New Year's in 1958, 'It is so hard to distinguish between the 1 percent who succeeded and were treated as heroes and the 99 percent who failed and were regarded as fools.' I present the salient conclusions of this work as landmarks to aid the reader in navigating these information-rich territories.

- **GaP Analysis is a reliable method for finding discontinuities in sexual body size distributions ("hump pattern") which are consistent with most other methods.** It is robust to errors introduced in sexual size ratio sets by variance in body mass (within species) and by varying error of species populations.
- **The preponderance of evidence supports the Discontinuous World Model.** I found humpy distributions of sexual size in 158 communities in 28 biomes, and my simulation experiments show that such distributions are not likely to be the products of chance.
- **Landscape-based hypotheses explain much of the hump pattern which is consistent within a biome or between different biomes.** Two sets of evidence link humpy body sizes to landscape structure: I consistently find common patterns of jumps shared between sexual communities coming from landscapes of similar landscape structure (biomes). I found that the

degree to which jump patterns is common to two communities or biotas erodes as the difference in landscape structure increases.

- Non-landscape hypotheses also explain jump patterns, but at different levels than those explained by landscape-based hypotheses. Phylogeny appears to explain broad-scale levels of jump patterns common to most mammal communities globally. Body size patterns evident at high taxonomic levels (Order) correspond to three zones on the size axis where jumps are commonly found in mammal communities. Competition appears to explain narrow, very fine levels of jump patterns, the size distribution within the jumps. Body sizes of species within jumps are more evenly dispersed than expected by chance.

## CHAPTER 1 TESTING ANIMAL-LANDSCAPE INTERACTIONS USING CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS MODELS

### Introduction

The theoretical framework for most inquiries into animal responses to the environment has been a landscape of gradients and continuously distributed opportunities which I described as the 'continuous world model' (Chapter 1). The clustering of time and space behaviors of ecosystem processes strongly suggests a discontinuous world of separate levels operating in parallel at separate scales. The study of animal size distributions as indices of the interactions of animals with the operation of these processes attempts to test links between the functioning of ecological processes and mechanisms of evolution or community organization. Discontinuous patterns of animal macrofauna (lumpiness) have been cited (Pilling 1982) as evidence of animal interactions with a world of discontinuously distributed opportunities (discontinuous world model).

Three conditions must be satisfied to show that lumpiness is useful in testing animal-landscape interactions. First, lumpiness must have some generality. We must regularly find lump patterns in a wide variety of different kinds of landscapes, and within each landscape type the lump pattern must be repeatable. Second, the techniques of finding lumps must reliably find such patterns. And third, some trend should link patterns of animal macrofauna or lump structure with patterns of structural complexity in the landscapes the animals inhabit.

In this chapter I first marshal the limited but compelling evidence that all three conditions have already been demonstrated sufficiently to establish a firm foundation for this work. Then I present a suite of hypotheses to test a range of explanations, based either on continuous or discontinuous world models, as to why patterns (Jump or otherwise) exist in animal size data. Finally, I compare the relative strengths of different methods for examining animal size data sets for discontinuities or for multiple modes (Jumps) in order to provide data for testing these hypotheses.

### Are There Jumps in Animal Body Mass Size Distributions?

Multiple modes in animal size distributions have been found for birds, mammals and herps and have been taken as evidence of a variety of ecological processes. Valverde (1988) and, later, Legendre (2001) found multimodal patterns in the size distributions of mammal communities in the form of disjunctions in the cumulative distribution function of mean adult body masses for species. Legendre (2001) associated disjunctions separating two clusters of animal body masses with relatively open habitat and the lack of a disjunction as evidence of closed habitat. Corluka (1996) found discontinuous size distributions ("polymodality") in numerous taxa (birds, mammals, and plants), which he attributed to three possible, though not mutually exclusive, causes: vegetation structure, avian guild structure and trophic relations ("species stacking"). Allen, Taysi and Halling (unpublished manuscript) describe multiple modes in body size distributions of birds, mammals and herp communities in the South Florida everglades landscape and show a trend between "integrated" status and a species' position on the edge of the discontinuity which demarcate modes in the size distribution.

Holling (1991) found multiple modes or jumps in adult body size data for birds and mammals in the boreal forest and prairie biomes. Hypotheses

based on phylogenetic, trophic or guild categories provided little if any power to explain "lump structure" (the presence and location of modes in size distributions). Membership in any of these three categories bore little if any relationship to membership in any lump or group of lumps. The only hypothesis which received disproof attributed differences between lump structures of mammal communities in separate ecosystems to qualitative differences in landscape structure.

The usefulness of lump analysis in linking mammal communities to landscapes is suggested by three sets of observations (Holling 1987). First, comparisons of lump structures between communities of similar landscape structure showed a regularity of pattern or commonality (species in different ecosystems which utilize similar architectures tend to cluster into similar size ranges or lumps). Lump structure commonalities were strongly evident for forest and grassland mammalian and avian data sets, compiled at the biome level from forest latitudes, and for avian data sets at the broad forest biome level and at the scale of the North American continent. Second, lump patterns showed a regularity related to the complexity of each community's landscape structure (communities with different architectures have lump patterns which differ in the location and/or presence of lumps). Lump structures of avian data sets compiled regionally in forest latitudes showed stark differences in terrestrial versus pelagic and forest versus grassland comparisons. Third, the complexity of lump structures consistently correlated with that of landscapes. More-complicated landscapes, such as terrestrial forests and grasslands, had more complicated avian lump structures than those of 'simpler' landscapes, such as prairie, marine environments.

Restrepo, Restrepo and Morpán (1987) found multiple modes in 19 bird communities from 'Upper Montane' and 'Lower Montane' and 'Upper Montane' forest sites in Columbia. A link between the complexity of lump

structure and that of landscapes is suggested by two observations. Greater numbers of lumps were found in communities with complete forest cover (as opposed to fragmented, patchy-use) and in sites with greater variability of vertical vegetation structure.

Hoseller (1987) found multiple modes in size distributions of food communities from four temperate eco-regions in North America. Both dimensionality and singularity were evident in comparisons of these seven lump structures. Regularity of lump patterns is suggested by identical lump numbers and very similar scale ranges of most lumps when comparing all sites. Singularity of lump patterns is evident when inter-site comparisons revealed some degree of lump pattern mismatch at the medium to large size range ( $10^{2.5}$  to  $10^{4.5}$  grams). The relative singularity of landscape structural complexity between all sites compared precluded any demonstration of a consistent trend between lump and landscape complexity. However, Hoseller's work reveals a unique link between lump structure and landscape pattern by the demonstration that both in each site lump respond in at least one aspect of landscape pattern (tree canopy cover) at different scales.

#### How General is the Incidence of Lumps?

The demonstration of lumpy size distributions in several forest and grassland biomes in North and South America raises the question as to how general the occurrence of lumpiness is. To test the range of ecosystem types in which discontinuous body size distributions are evident I applied Holling's (1982) BMDI ("Body Mass Difference Index") method to bird, bat and mammal body size data sets taken from data sets from 35 ecosystems in some 11 biomes on 3 continents. Application of Holling's (1982) criterion to identify significant discontinuities (BMDI values larger than the mean plus one standard error) revealed lumpy (multi-modal) body patterns in every single ecosystem. However, if the underlying size distributions are actually



continuous, might such lumpy evidence be a false signal created by random or incomplete sampling?

I applied a further test to see what lumpy patterns might be found from random draws from continuous size distributions. For each observed body mass data set I established a continuous, uni-modal size distribution with the same range of body mass and created a mock data set by randomly drawing from that continuous distribution  $n$  times where  $n$  = the number of species in the data set. I then applied the Hurlig (1963) method to the mock body mass data set using his criterion for significance and counted the number of lumps found. I repeated this process 1000 times for each observed data set to determine mean and standard deviation statistics for number of lumps found in 1000 mock data sets. I then graphed the frequency distributions of lump numbers found in actual data sets and in mock data sets (Figure 21). The qualitative differences between the actual and mock lump frequency distributions of lumps suggest it is highly unlikely that observed lump structures result from random sampling from continuous body mass size distributions.

Work to date (Hurlig 1963, Kawato, Koyata and Morita 1997, Huxford 1997) on animal body mass size distributions have established lumpy body mass patterns as a general phenomenon for a variety of taxa over a range of landscape types. Links between lump structure and landscape structure are evident in the similarity between lump patterns found in communities with similar landscapes, in the uniqueness of lump patterns found in communities with contrasting landscape structure, and in similarities of response to landscape pattern by animals in the same lump. The regularity and consistency with which lump patterns has been found is a coarse but intriguing measure of the reliability of lump pattern analysis. Different techniques often give qualitatively similar determinations of lump

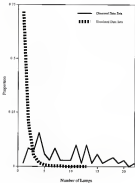


Figure 2-1: Proportions of lumps formed using the sliding BM2B on observed and simulated data sets of mean adult body masses for species of birds and mammals.

number and location on the size axis. In addition, my own preliminary investigation casts doubt on the idea that hump patterns result from random sampling error.

These observations establish a basis from which to probe further as to why hump body size patterns are found. While landscape structure has seemed disproved more consistently than any other explanation of hump patterns, it is premature to ignore other explanations. The complexity of large scale systems derives in part from a diversity of causal processes operating at different scales, and non-linear systems behavior suggests that the relative importance of these processes may change with time (Allen and Star 1982, Levin 1992). The dynamic uncertainty inherent in complex systems must be embraced, not by reducing the scope of investigation so as to cast a strong light on one explanation. Rather uncertainty must be embraced by considering in parallel all sound explanations for ecological pattern. The chances of detecting multiple influences on patterns are increased when these influences are represented separately in a suite of hypotheses tested in parallel (Peters 1988, Mayfield and Holling, in submission). I now discuss a range of explanations for the existence of patterns in body size distributions and formalize them as testable hypotheses.

### Hypothesized Explanations of Landscape Size Distributions

The relatively long history of research based on a Continuous World Model (Chapter 1) has generated a variety of explanations for patterns of animal body size. By contrast the novelty of the Discontinuous World Model combined with the imposing challenge of describing the discontinuities and resultant structural forms of such a world have yielded but a single broad explanation to date (Holling 1982). I now describe the basis for these explanations and state them as hypotheses.

### Hypothesis Based on a Continuous World Model

The study of animal morphology as an index of animal interactions with ecological processes was given considerable impetus by the contention of Hutchinson (1959) that competition as animal commensalism is reflected in consistent size ratios between species competing for the same resource. Hutchinson (1959) proposed that an observed pattern of bill-size autalanytic ratio of 1:1.3 represented the results of competition leading similarity among species. Such size ratios presumably result from character displacement, a shifting in morphometrics of the two competing species accompanying a change in the resources sought by either species (resource partitioning). Competition-induced character displacement has also been described as an evenness of spacing of animal morphometrics along the size axis. A lively, and often heated, debate has endeavored attempts to demonstrate (Lack 1947, J. Brown 1971, Schaffer 1983, and Minton and Patten 1987) or refute (Connell 1980, Arthur 1982) the relevance of character displacement as evidence of competition. The possibility that such even spacing of animal sizes could also result from species sorting in the process of community organization is included in the hypothesis statements below. By this token the gaps which separate jumps result from competitive size displacement either at the long term (evolutionary) or short term (community organization) scales.

#### H1 - Competitive niche and size displacement

*Animal morphological sizes are spaced on the size axis with a greater degree of evenness than expected by chance. This 'over-dispersed' reflects a divergence of body sizes and resource usage in response to competitive pressures. This divergence could reflect processes which are evolutionary ('character displacement') or community organizational (species sorting)*

Gaps in body size distributions might also result from evolutionary constraints which limit the number of size ranges possible for an organism. Such constraints might act at local scales of community organization (H2) with a limited number of discrete size ranges to choose from, at broad scales of evolutionary rates (H3) limited by physiology or ontogeny, or at broad scales of evolutionary possibilities limited by a limited set of locomotory modes (H4) which are competitive on land or in the air. I designate H1 as the Macro-Physiology hypothesis, to suggest the linkage between size ranges in which jumps are found and membership in higher taxonomic levels such as Family or Order. Paul Mayden alluded to such a link in his 1982 paper for Helling's (1982) "Urbium hypothesis" (H3). And the title "Limited Morph" (H4) was originally suggested by Helling (1982).

#### **H2 - Macro-Physiology**

*The original size range of a limited number of ancestral forms have expanded somewhat because of adaptive radiation. These limited expansions result in a global size distribution with a limited number of modes of greater frequencies of species within limited ranges of size. In the process of community organization jumps result from random selection of species from these multiple modes.*

#### **H3 - Noctua Auk ("Urbium")**

*The species of animals have been drawn from a limited number of ancestral forms whose organizational constraints preclude evolution of intermediate sizes even though such sizes would find adaptive possibilities in a landscape with continuously distributed opportunities.*

#### **H4 - Limited Morph**

*There are only a limited number of life-forms (e.g. locomotory modes) possible for animals, each of which is constrained in function.*

*effectively only over a limited range of sizes. There are no few of these life-forms possible, that sizes of animal cluster into a small number of clumps even if the spatial attributes of their habitats are continuously distributed.*

The possibility that predator-prey relationships require substantial size differences has been suggested as the basis for multi-modal size distributions in aquatic environments (Rice 1976). Gaps in size distributions might also result from position on the food chain, where the size requirements for foraging on low quality resources (detritus) are significantly greater than those for foraging on more concentrated resources (meatworms). Both trophic interpretations of gaps in size distributions are subsumed in the Trophic Trough hypothesis (H5) below.

### **H5. Trophic Trough**

*Size-dependent trophic interactions will initiate and maintain lumpy patterns of body-size distributions independent of any other mechanism.*

### **Hypotheses Based on a Discontinuous World Model**

Hierarchical world models based on qualitatively different operating speeds of organizing processes were suggested as early as 1971 (H. Simen) as a much more plausible basis of biological evolution than the random organization of opportunities found in a Continuous Model. However, only recently have the implications of such a model been extended to ecological patterns of animal communities. Holling (1982) proposed that a discontinuous world would exist not only behaviors but ultimately the morphologies of organisms. For each distinct range of scales at which objects are apparent (landscape lump) in a discontinuous world, certain body size ranges would be most adaptive, causing morphologies to cluster over time

into body size lumps. Holmgren (1995) posed this idea as 'The Textural Discontinuity hypothesis'.

### **H<sub>0</sub> - Textural discontinuity**

*Animal  $\pi$  should demonstrate the existence of a hierarchical structure and of the discontinuous texture of the landscape they inhabit by having a discontinuous distribution of their sizes, searching scales, and behavioral classes. Landscapes with different hierarchical structures should have corresponding differences in the clumps identified by such a foraging.*

Both continuous and discontinuous models are sources for a suite of explanations for lumpy-body patterns. An array of methods exist for detecting such patterns in order to test these hypotheses. Controversy over detection methods previously used (Solari 1996) and the slow maturing of alternatives require careful selection of the best available method. I now discuss the functioning and relative merits of these detection methods.

### **Methods to Identify Gaps and Lumps in Size Distributions**

For systems as broad and complex as ecosystems finding a robust statistical model for the distribution of a variable such as body size is non-trivial. The non-normality and non-independence of data often make conventional statistics inappropriate for community level questions in ecology (Gotelli and Garves 1994). Current statistical theory provides no rigorously defined models of underlying distributions for variables in multivariate systems. In the absence of known distribution models nonparametric estimates of density functions can be made. Some statistical tools have proven useful in the early, exploratory phases of research to establish the existence of skewness or multimodality, but the robustness and reliability of methods to estimate the number of modes in size distributions

remains debatable. In this section I review the methods used to explore animal size distributions and explain the relative advantages of new methods used in this study.

### Histograms

Ease of application and comprehension make histograms a popular serial method for exploring data density distribution patterns. However, subjective methods of applying and interpreting histograms can bias the detection of multimodal distributions. Choices which arbitrarily influence the definition of modality include specification of 1) bin width, 2) data origin and 3) "coordinate direction(s) of the grid of cells" (Silverman, 1986). The degree of smoothing in a size distribution is particularly sensitive to bin width, and such choices lack objective guidelines to protect against bias: either for or against multi-modality (Holling, 1982). Silverman (1986) makes a similar criticism of kernel estimates, a flexible and sophisticated method of smoothing histograms. "Subjective choice in fixing the smoothing parameter ( $h$ ) allows explanation of different interpretations of the density estimate, but no universally accepted objective method is available." Independent confirmation of a size distribution's degree of modality must be sought from other methods.

### Cumulative Distribution Functions

Cumulative Distribution Functions (CDFs) are attractive tools because they are widely used and can quickly convey an intuitive, graphic understanding of a data pattern. Starting the axis which body masses of species of a single taxon in ascending size order, a gap is identified where mass increases very little relative to body size (Figure 2.2). By the same token a hump is characterized by a relatively large increase in mass with a small



increase in size. The limitations of this method emerge when it is applied to data with unimodal distributions. CDFs clearly reveal only those gaps of extreme size, discontinuities in real data sets are so difficult to detect that subjective judgment becomes too great a factor.

### Hierarchical Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis developed around the challenge to define "groups" within numerical data without any prior information on the properties or even the existence of the groups. As Silverman (1986) states "... the number of groups and the rules of assignment into these groups have to be discerned solely from the given data, without reference to a training set (p. 185)." However, cluster analysis has yet to evolve an objective, generally accepted method for defining modality in statistical distributions. Despite the development of hundreds of clustering algorithms, no single method is regarded as "best" (Manly 1983). The generality of the clustering method is undermined when different algorithms can produce markedly different results on the same data. Interpreting the results of cluster analysis is highly subjective. For example, cluster analysis performed on uniform data under SAS software can output multiple definitions of the number of clusters found, starting with one cluster and continuing as high as the clustering criteria specified by the user allow (SAS Institute Inc. 1988). Indices (Cubic Clustering Criterion, pseudo F and pseudo  $\beta^2$  statistics) accompany each interpretation of the number of clusters found in the data set. Proceeding up or down the ranking of cluster number interpretations, a local maximum in such indices suggests a higher likelihood that the number of clusters associated with that maximum is important. However, there is no independent test for the significance of an interpretation of how many clusters exist in a data set.

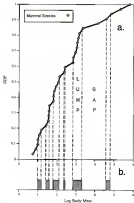


Figure 1-2 - Interpolation of cumulative distribution function (a) for  $\log_{10}$  body mass of slothgrass steppe mammals from southwest Kansas to an interpolation of lump structure (b) wherein each gray box represents a distance along the size axis occupied by a cluster of species of relatively similar size (body size lumps). These lumps are separated by gap zones on the size axis which are occupied by no or very few species.

### Split Moving Window Analysis

Multi-modality can be defined by identifying data clusters, and it also is indicated by the stratification of the discontinuities which separate clusters or modes in the data set. Split moving window boundary analysis (SMW) was developed for location of boundaries separating relatively homogeneous soil units along transects (Webster 1971, 1975). SMW detects discontinuities in multivariate data which are ordered in one dimension by comparing discriminatory ratios derived from two halves of a "window" or a sequential group of samples from the data (Webster 1971, 1975, Ludwig and Cornelius 1987). In two of the many possible applications of SMW by Maples (pers. comm.) these window halves may reveal discontinuities either as ratio lines (equation 2.1) or as an absolute difference (equation 2.2).

$$SMWR_{i,j} = 1 - \left[ \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n x_{k,j}}{\sum_{k=1}^n x_{k,i}} \right] \quad (2.1)$$

$$SMWD_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^n x_{k,i} - \sum_{k=1}^n x_{k,j} \quad (2.2)$$

Where  $x_{k,i}$  is the  $i$ th variate datum in a univariate series.

The utility of SMW is limited by the fact that it only detects "relative" discontinuities (Webster 1975). This can lead to spurious "detection" of discontinuities both at large and small scales, within random data sets (Cornelius and Reynolds 1991). Split Moving Window analysis, as such, lacks objective methods to determine the statistical significance of a discontinuity in a univariate soil data set. However, the discontinuities it locates are generally at the same locations on the soil size as those found by

other methods such as hierarchical clustering analysis and, as shall be discussed, the Body Mass Difference Index and Gap Pattern Analysis.

### Body Mass Difference Index

The lack of objective methods to determine the statistical significance of a discontinuity is shared by the method of Holling (1982) which defines modes in a univariate, serially ordered data set by identifying the discontinuities or "gaps" which separate them. Holling applied this method to find the number of modes or "taps" in size distributions of birds or mammals inhabiting the boreal peatland and forest biomes. Gaps were quantified by the Body Mass Difference Index (BMDI) as the size difference between the species  $n-1$  and species  $n$  divided by the body mass of the  $n$ th species raised to the  $\gamma$  power (Equation 2.3). Various values for  $\gamma$  were explored to determine the resulting BMDI values.

$$BMDI = \frac{(x_{n-1} - x_n)}{x_n^\gamma} \quad (2.3)$$

where  $x_n$  is the  $n$ th size datum in a univariate series.

A consistent bias is evident in the output of the BMDI and the BMDF when applied to a serially ordered univariate size data sets. Using several body masses derived from species assemblages compiled either at the ecosystem or biome levels, values for either index appear larger for discontinuities within the first and final thirds of a data set and smaller for gaps in the middle. This shows an emphasis in the analysis and largest values of a data set manifests itself as a U-shaped pattern (Figure 2.3) further complicating the location of meaningful or significant discontinuities.

The techniques described so far estimate data density patterns without regard for any creative process(es) which potentially could generate these

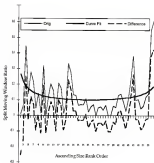


Figure 3-3. Comparison of gap statistics generated using a split moving window ratio algorithm to locate discontinuities in a size distribution of mean adult body masses sorted in ascending order. The body masses were assigned to a species list of post-volant mammals identified in a randomised community near Belém, Brazil (Mondini 1987). A third order polynomial (black dashed line) is fit to the SMW gap statistic to highlight the U-shaped trend whenever values at the smallest and largest extremes are inflated.

patterns. Their prime purpose is to uncover interesting patterns whose properties merit further investigation. Without known distributions for reference there are no standards against which to measure significance and weed out spurious patterns. One criterion for rejecting pattern is to demonstrate that it can be generated in the absence of any process which hypothetically might have created the pattern. Such rejection criteria can be synthesized through the use of null models. Casella and Geurts (1996) define them as follows:

*a pattern-generating model that is based on randomization of ecological data or random sampling from a known or imagined distribution.*

Marley (1992) employed a lump-lumping technique (Silvertown 1986) to generate null models to challenge Holling's (1992) finding that the body mass distributions of boreal pine birds and mammals are lumpy. Marley used statistical simulation to test models of one to progressively greater numbers of modes for their fit to the size distributions of the boreal taxa examined by Holling (1992). Marley (1992) found the best fit with a unimodal model, though he found some evidence for two modes in the underlying size distribution. However, he concluded there was very little evidence to support multimodality or lumpiness beyond two lumps.

### Gap Pattern Analysis (GPA)

Marley (in submission) claims that Marley's use of the Silvertown lump-lumping technique is so conservative during the exploratory phase of research that it is vulnerable to Type II error. Marley (Rasteyra, Rasteyra, and Marley 1987) developed Gap Pattern Analysis (GPA), a methodology similar to Silvertown's, which allows detection of modes within a size distribution and comparison of their location among multiple data sets. GPA involves

generation of mock models of species size distribution through computer simulation using a kernel estimate of data density of a species size (in) pool. The species pool is derived from either one or multiple (non-redundant) size data sets and is sorted into ascending size order. A kernel estimate of data density is simply a smoothed histogram of the data. The smoothing window width is adjusted until the kernel estimate of the data density distribution is unimodal. The null distribution has one mode by design so as to establish the size of gaps one would find if the actual, underlying distribution is unimodal.

After ordering the observed data set by ascending size its data density is compared to that found in a null distribution. The basis of comparison is the Relative Discontinuity ( $D_r$ ). This is a statistic generated by statistical simulation (several thousands of times). Computer simulation generates thousands of mock distributions drawn at random from the theoretical null. Over all iterations a distribution of gap sizes is generated at each species rank, by calculating absolute discontinuities ( $A_i$ ) for each pair of neighboring species (equation 2.4)

$$A_i = A_{i+1} - A_i \quad (2.4)$$

The Relative Discontinuity ( $D_r$ ) is a value found for each species which measures the proportion of absolute discontinuities calculated in all iterations of mock distributions which are smaller than the observed absolute discontinuity. This value establishes how rare a discontinuity would be in a unimodal size distribution, and this rarity is used to determine the significance (alpha) level of the gap (for more information about GFA methodology see Kenagy, Kenagy and Harper 1997).

One salient innovation of CFA is the determination of the significance of gaps with normal bias through comparison across multiple data sets. The relative rarity of a gap observed in actual size data can be established by its ranking within a simulated null distribution of gap sizes. Significance is determined by equating relative rarity with a probability value. Independent and unbiased determination of gap significance allows comparison of jump structures of data sets from different ecosystems which have different source characteristics such as number of species, minimum and maximum body masses, and range of body masses.

### FitTreeMatching (FTM)

The FitTreeMatching approach runs as a TreeBase program, entitled *FitTreeMatcher*, written by Paul Marples (Marples, unpublished data). It determines jump structure by examining univariate body size data sets for modes or accumulations of data density as opposed to size ranges of data density (gaps). The FitTreeMatching method establishes the probability of finding modes in a data set by comparing its jump pattern with those of a group of data sets which share similar characteristics. Marples has grouped data sets based on simulation of landscape characteristics, such as data sets from a region within a biome, however non-landscape characteristics could also be used to group the data sets. The FitTreeMatching approach statistically tests potential matches between the jump patterns of these different body size data sets within the group. The degree of mismatch ( $m$ ) is a weighted sum of distances along the size axis where jumps in either data set line up with gaps in the other data set. This measure of mismatch distinguishes near<sup>2</sup> from complete<sup>2</sup> mismatches by establishing a distance-from-the-nearest-jump<sup>2</sup> value at each point along the size axis. Along these 100-1000 intervals which do not



correspond (for example, jump in one data set matched with gap in the other) the distance values are summed to generate an  $m$  value.

Each site's body mass data set is modeled as a size distribution with a variable number of modes depending on the resolution (smoothing parameter) of the kernel estimator. The degree of mismatch between the various size distribution models for both sites is tested as a factorial design, beginning with unimodal definitions up to  $k \times k$  modes, where  $k$  is arbitrarily set by the user. For each model a size distribution is fit to the actual data with the smoothing parameter adjusted to give the number of modes specified by the model. For example, for a  $2 \times 2$  model, mismatch ( $m_{2 \times 2}$ ) would be measured for bimodal approximations of each site's jump structure.

The significance of the mismatch observed for the model is then determined by establishing the likelihood of mismatches if the underlying size distributions of the data sets were actually unimodal though represented as multimodal. For each model a statistical distribution of mismatches is created by sequential calculation of mismatches in 10,000 mock data set pairs. For each site a mock data set is generated by random sampling  $n$  times from a continuous unimodal distribution with the same size range as the original data set. A frequency distribution is fit to this derivative data set with the number of modes specified by the model. The locations of jumps and gaps are then established by finding the inflection points in each mock data size distribution. Mismatch is then calculated between the two mock jump patterns. For each model the degree of mismatch expected with a significantly small frequency is determined by finding  $m_{obs}$  which is greater than or equal to those  $m$  found in the lower 5 percent or 1 percent (depending on the  $\alpha$  level desired) of the simulated mismatch distribution. If  $m_{obs} < m_{obs\alpha}$  then the degree of mismatch is considered significant. PriorityMismatch

provide the probability values of each model so as to identify those combinations of models which are most likely to be significant.

### Comparing Gaf analysis with Pattern Matching

GFA was the first detection method offering reasonable estimates of probability levels for distributions in raw data. However, these estimates were derived from comparisons of each data set with simulated data based on a continuous null model fit to the actual data. GFA is applied one data set at a time, and when a certain alpha level is chosen, then only one model of the lump structure is estimated. Pattern Matching (PM) offers a novel opportunity to compare a number of models of lump number for a data set with arrays of models for each other data set in a group drawn from landscapes either of similar or dissimilar structure. The PM process establishes a likelihood cut for each model within a user distribution but for each possible model of studies or lumps when compared to models of similar data sets.

In this study I present the results of 4 years of work in determining models of lump number for more than 150 ecosystems using GFA. While methodological constraints prevent the use of PM for all of my data, the risk posed by not using the more advanced technique is of interest. To this end I analyzed a subset of my data sets (Table 3-4) using both methods to estimate the best model of lump number for each data set. I estimated a total of 688 lumps in some 81 ecosystem body mass data sets from 17 biomes (Table 3-1) into the biomes by which ecosystem body mass data sets were grouped (column 1), the site names of the ecosystems (columns 2 - 4), the numbers of lumps found in each ecosystem by Gaf analysis (columns 5 - 7), the numbers of lumps found by the model with the highest probability value using Pattern



Matching (columns 9 - 10), and the absolute differences between jump numbers found using both methods (columns 11 - 12)

The final three columns list the probabilities determined by Pattern Matching for different jump models for ecosystem body size data sets. Column 14 lists probabilities for jump models found using CoP Analysis. Column 15 lists the probability associated with the best jump model found by Pattern Matching. Column 16 lists the change (increase) in probability associated with any 'superior' jump model found by Pattern Matching. Column 17 shows situations, for which many jump models have high probabilities ( $>0.5$ ), there are many models with far lower values. Even using Pattern Matching it was often impossible to find a significant jump model. This fact is underscored by the relatively low mean probability value (0.66) and high variance (0.32) of probability values.

GFA considered one data set at a time, while PM looked at each data set in comparison to other data sets from the same biome. The absolute difference between GFA jump number estimates and those provided by PM averaged about 1.15 jumps per data set. This average represents a 12.5 percent change in jump number in absolute ( $-/+$ ) terms. The overall mean increase (Column 16) in the probability of a significant match between jump patterns of different ecosystems was only 0.17 (from 0.49 to 0.66). This is a notable but not remarkable increase, given that a few extreme outlier values boost this number disproportionately. Twenty-three out of thirty values were lower than 0.17.

Therefore, even assuming the superiority of the PM method, one will obtain qualitatively similar results from GFA. Rather than challenge the results already obtained by GFA, these findings give a measure of confidence with the older method. These findings accord with results from most methods listed above which I have explored over the years, the numbers

predicted by different methods rarely differed dramatically. The dramatic change wrought by the architect of these statistical advances, Paul Mayhew, is our ability to quantify the probabilities associated with specific discontinuities and the intervening jumps (GPA analysis) and these probabilities associated with models of jumps for entire animal communities when compared with other community body size data sets from similar landscapes (Phoron-Markling).

### Testing the Robustness of Gap analysis to Error in Size Data Sets

Jump (Gap) analysis is threatened by two sources of error which potentially undermine the reliability of body mass data sets taken from animal communities. These two error sources are incomplete censusing of animal communities because of temporally unstable populations and incomplete accounting of intra-species variation in animal body mass size. In Appendix A I found that Gap analysis is robust to observed levels of these error sources because it reliably found known jump patterns (boreal prairie bird and mammal data sets, Halling (2002)) at simulated error levels which were higher than those observed in the field.

I found that observed levels of these error sources in mammal and bird body mass data sets exhibit right-skew (Figure 2-6) frequency distributions. For both error sources the frequency distributions are skewed to the right with a long tail to the right signifying that the vast majority of species exhibit little variation in body mass or in temporal abundances in the populations. The minority of species which exhibit high variation introduce relatively low levels of stochasticity in determining jump structure which are unlikely to significantly undermine the capacity of jump analysis to find the underlying jump structure.

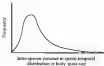


Figure 2-4. Right-skewed frequency distribution characteristic of either error source (temporal population fluctuations or inter-species size variation) in animal body mass data sets.

I found that lump analysis is robust partly because such right-skewed distributions of size to abundance variation make animal body mass data sets relatively stable and reliable. That is to say that it is unlikely that the species composition or the body masses of a natural community data set would vary drastically over time. I could not avoid such conclusions when I found lump analysis marginally robust to extreme scenarios of variation for either error source. I made my computer simulations extreme by allowing not a minority but all species to exhibit the same level of variation in size to abundance/abundance. When I applied lump analysis to these simulated body mass data sets I found it robust to extreme simulations of census error for both birds and mammals, and not robust to extreme simulations of size variation in birds, though marginally so for mammals. The resistance of lump analysis to such severe simulations of variation supports the hypothesis that it is robust to observed, small-to-moderate levels of variation in species size and population fluctuations.

## Summary

In this chapter I have cited evidence which establishes a firm basis for further exploration of lump structure as an index of animal landscape structure. Namely, sufficient demonstration of the generality of lump structure, the reliability of lump analysis techniques, and links between animal morphometrics and landscape structure have been made to encourage further probes. I have reviewed a suite of hypotheses which allow parallel testing of the continuous and discontinuous world models for their power to explain the existence of lumps or discontinuous size distributions in animals. Lumpiness is found in animal communities from a wide variety of landscapes and is a useful pattern for these tests.

I have also reviewed the relative strengths of a variety of pattern detection techniques and discussed the fundamental robustness of lump analysis, namely, that many of these techniques give relatively accurate estimates of lump numbers at an ecosystem site. I have discussed the improvements in recent methodological advances of Paul Marples. For example, by linking gap statistics with alpha levels, Gap analysis offers a sound frame to compare lump patterns at different sites. It is possible that Pattern Matching improves estimates of probabilities of lump patterns, but the lump numbers estimated by both techniques do not differ greatly. I conclude that Gap analysis is a reasonable technique for comparing lump patterns, and shall be the lump pattern method employed in this study. I found Gap Analysis to be robust to the degree of risk introduced by animal source error inherent in animal size data sets. In succeeding chapters I will apply lump (Gap) analysis to bird and mammal body mass data sets to define a lump pattern for each animal community and then will test the power of landscape and non-landscape hypotheses to predict the lump patterns I find.

## CHAPTER 3 LUMP PATTERN TRENDS IN SIMILAR LANDSCAPES: TESTS OF A DISCONTINUOUS WORLD MODEL

### Introduction

Having established that Lump-GiF Analysis is robust to various sources of error within animal use data sets (Appendix A) I now use it to examine lump pattern similarity within and between biomes and larger scale systems as a test of predictions of the Tensal Discontinuity Hypothesis (TH). In tests using lump detection methods similar to GiF analysis, the Tensal Discontinuity Hypothesis (TH) has created support in a limited number of landscapes, primarily boreal forests (Holling 1992) and forests (Holling 1992, Hunter 1997), temperate forests (Hunter 1997, Allen, Hays and Holling, in review) and tropical montane forest and grasses (Burslem 1997). In all these tests the trend between landscape structure and lump patterns was more compelling than any trend predicted by a non-landscape hypothesis.

Several interesting questions follow on these initial results. How general is this trend, could it be found in a wide variety of landscape types? How consistent are these trends, are there lump patterns which repeatedly characterize particular landscapes and allow one to distinguish between different landscapes? At what scales of landscape might such trends appear, general and consistent?

In this chapter I examine lump patterns for their generality and consistency in explicit tests of landscape-based predictions of animal size distributions in a variety of landscapes. However, predictions made by non-



landscape explanations of lump patterns (H1 - H3) are implicitly challenged in these tests as well, and I incorporate the results of this chapter with further tests of these non-landscape predictions in Chapter 5.

In this section I discuss what the landscape-based hypothesis (H4) predicts about animal size distributions, review the results of previous tests of this hypothesis and describe the tests for the new tests I shall apply.

### **Predictions of Lump Patterns Based on a Discontinuous World Model**

Essentially speaking, the Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis (H4) posits that lump patterns is a 'by-product' of landscape structure, such that discontinuities in animal size distributions will reflect gaps in the hierarchical pattern of landscape architecture. Alternatively the modes or lumps in an animal size distribution can be seen as evidence that groups of standardized animals respond to clusters of object sizes in the environment. For example, one might expect three lumps in the size distribution of animals living in a world divided into three ranges of scale (micro-, meso- and macro) for objects (Figure 1-4). Specifically, H4 predicts that lump patterns from animal communities at landscapes of similar architecture should be similar, and that those from communities at structurally different landscapes should be different. Pattern similarity between lump structures is a measure of the degree to which features, such as lumps or gaps, share the same locations on the body size axis when comparing the two lump patterns.

The utility of animal size distributions as bio-measures of landscape structure rests on the consistency or explicability of body size patterns in relation to landscape architecture. If lump pattern similarity can consistently identify features consistent to animal morphology in sites or similar landscapes then one can also use the bio-measure to distinguish different landscape types. In this chapter I test H4 by comparing lump patterns of

different scales for their similarity within groups of landscapes of similar structure. I probe the generality of  $H_1$ 's predictions by testing the replicability of the similarity of these patterns over a wide variety of landscape types (biomes). I now discuss how similarities of lump patterns have previously been demonstrated.

### **Empirical Tests of a Discontinuous World Model Hypothesis**

Holling (1993) found specific support for The Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis in the communities and the disturbance between lump patterns of boreal forest communities. For example, a high degree of commonality is found between the lump patterns of boreal grassy fields and boreal forest fields in all scale ranges except those associated with architectural discontinuities between the two landscapes: the much greater volume of micro-scale vegetation texture (tree needles, leaved forest in the boreal forest canopy as compared to that found in the prairie (short grasses)). Only the boreal forest data set has a lump in the smallest size range, as predicted by  $H_1$ . Similarly, Holling (1993) found support for the prediction ( $H_2$ ) that the relative lack of macro (vegetation) and meso-scale (patches) objects in desert wood and prairie environments would result in a dearth of lumps at all but the largest size ranges for these land communities. However, in comparing macro-scale lump patterns between these aquatic environments one finds commonality in that these latter, large-scale lumps do overlap to a noticeable extent.

Estreps (1995) did not examine water land communities, but in comparison of fragmental land assemblages did find distinct lump pattern similarities in comparison of different neotropical montane forest and plateau habitats. The Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis was supported by the observation of lower lumps in structurally 'simpler' habitats, based on the

assumption that forest is architecturally more complex than pasture, cultivated fields, or prairie.

Support for the Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis is also evident in lump pattern similarities and distinctions between European and North American land communities compiled for the boreal and temperate forest biomes (Hornell 1957). Within each biome, lump patterns from both continents strongly overlap at the macro- and meso-scales, but lumps in the meso-scale size range (14.3 - 314 g) do not. This follows the prediction of the Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis that contrasts in meso-scale architecture (fragmented European forests vs. more continuous North American forests) would be reflected as lump pattern differences at meso-scales.

All the studies cited above describe similarities and differences in lump patterns at different scale ranges only in qualitative terms. Lumps in different systems either overlap or they do not. More rigorous tests of similarity and distinctions in lump patterns require careful definition of the parameters by which patterns can be measured. I now describe those parameters in the context of the design of these tests.

#### New Tests of The Textural-Discontinuity Hypothesis

The study of patterns is highly scale dependent. What pattern is found strongly depends on the size of window through which it is viewed (extent) and the resolution with which it is defined (grain). Tests of the Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis (16) compare two patterns, landscapes and lump structures, using different levels for grain and extent. Previous tests of 80 mostly relied on subject, qualitative definitions of landscape structure based on assumptions that data sets from the same biome come from landscapes of relatively similar structure. Each landscape comparison varied the spatial extent from continuous (Holling 1952), to broken (Holling 1952, Hornell 1957),

to eco-region (Holling 1987) to ecosystem (Holling 1985, Kareiva 1988). For the description of landscape objects, grass was varied in coarse-grain between micro- (vegetation physiognomy), to meso- (patches) to macro-scales (geomorphology). The exception to this trend was Holling's (1987) fine discrimination between categories of patch size. Previous tests of 100 examined lump patterns with a fixed grain, species mean adult body mass and a semi-fixed extent, the range of body masses which varied according to the size of the animal community found within the spatial extent used to define landscape structure.

Uncertainties about the scales at which ecological processes operate and at which landscape objects are apparent to animals necessitate the comparison of lump and landscape pattern at a number of different scales. There is no single scale at which the landscape is structured or at which animals respond to the environment. Patterns at each scale potentially reveals unique information about space/time dimensions of animal-landscape interactions. For example, if lump pattern is not reliably linked with landscape pattern at the landscape study site level but is at the biome level, this might imply that the noise of local community organization processes obscures the baseline function of lump pattern, but that this noise is drowned out by integration of pattern at the biome level.

In this chapter I test predictions of the Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis by examining relations between lump and landscape patterns. I test these relations for their generality and consistency over ranges of scale which are supersampled in their breadth. I test the consistency of lump-pattern by quantifying pattern regularities (variability) between animal communities in scalar landscapes. I test the generality of lump pattern by examining its consistency in a wide variety of landscapes, over 17 different

biomes. I do this by varying the grain and extent with which lump pattern is defined over the fullest range of biome values. For example, I vary extent by examining the commonality of lump pattern at different spatial scale ranges, biomes, super-biomes (similar biomes located on different continents) and near-global levels. I vary grain by testing for commonality using various degrees of integration of lump patterns, from lumps to clusters of lumps. I begin these tests at the smallest spatial scales, landscape study sites within biomes, and repeat them at the super-biome and near-global levels.

### Lump Pattern Trends Within Biomes

Menzel (1997) found sufficient commonality in pattern matching between the lump patterns of three arctic communities in the tundra to use biomes to characterize the entire group with a ten lump model. In this section I address the question of whether lump pattern commonality is general to other biomes. In the absence of a recognized standard for consistency in pattern matching between lump structures, I employ both visual and numeric tests of lump pattern commonality. I standardize the numerical test to the extent that I quantify the degree of lump pattern commonality found in random collections of animal body mass data sets and then compare numeric results of observed and random collections within biomes.

### Graphical Comparisons of Multi-Scale Lump Patterns

#### Lump analysis methods

I download the lump patterns for bird and mammal communities in 27 biomes by applying lump analysis to their respective body mass data sets (Appendix II). I used a common range of statistical powers because it provided

a reference standard for interpreting Gadj statistics at alpha levels between 0.21 and 0.23 regardless of species number ( $n$ ). When I estimated the significance of a discontinuity value I employed a conservative estimate of statistical effect size (0.2) (Laprey, 1998). In this way I sought a compromise between Type I and Type II errors by keeping statistical power within middle ranges (0.63 to 0.67 for means and 0.3 to 0.7 for tests) (Laprey, 1998).

### Graphic presentation methods

I present jump patterns of home groups (all the landscape study sites within a home) for graphic comparison using StackClumps software (Maylin, unpublished data). Jump structure as shown here is univariate in that it is only defined along the log<sub>2</sub> body mass size axis. This definition of structure uses the limits or gap-edges of jumps to break the log<sub>2</sub> size axis into distances between edges occupied by clusters of species (jumps) and distances occupied by relatively few if any species (gaps). As the name suggests, the univariate jump structures of all study sites within the larger scale context (home or super-home) are graphed horizontally and stacked atop one another to aid visual comparison of overlap of jump and gap areas between sites. Each jump is depicted as a box with the degree of shading indicating the density of species in the jump. White boxes usually have less than 4 species, black boxes have upwards of 18 species, and the various shades of gray have intermediate numbers of species. Gaps are indicated by empty spaces which horizontally separate the jump boxes.

### On using similarity in jump pattern comparison

On what basis can one distinguish similar from dissimilar jump patterns of different animal communities? Since many of my home groups have few or many body mass data sets, I employ a visual, qualitative comparison scheme for preliminary data exploration and quantify this

scheme is more rigorous, subsequent tests. I introduce the qualitative scheme now and describe the quantitative methodology later when I present comparison tests where lump pattern is quantified by indices.

Following precedent (Holling 1991, Borner 1995, Rosenthal 1997, Allen, Bergs and Halling, in review) I define pattern in animal body size distributions by the location of lumps along the size axis. The bounds of each lump are set by the mean adult body masses of the smallest and largest species in that lump. I determine the extent to which lump pattern is shared between animal communities at landscape sites as a group (Commonality) by the degree to which lumps and gaps of the communities in question overlap on the size axis. Figure 3-1 illustrates both high (Figure 1) and low (Figure 2) degrees of commonality. In Figure 1 the majority of landscape study site lump structures share the same locations for lumps (black boxes) and gaps (horizontal spaces between lumps), while in Figure 2 there is hardly a single location on the size axis (log10 body mass) for which a majority of landscape study sites exhibit a lump or a gap.

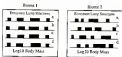


Figure 3-1. Hypothetical lump structures of two biomes composed of four landscape study site animal communities (a - d) illustrating high (Figure 1) and low (Figure 2) degrees of pattern overlap or commonality. Lumps are depicted by black boxes, gaps by spaces horizontally separating lumps.

The amount of taxonomic (species) overlap between sites is shown on the left hand side of each graph by boxed numbers which join the jump patterns in question with brackets. Initial comparisons between landscape animal data sets suggested that Sorenson's Index is sensitive to differences in data set sizes). Mayrén (unpublished data) determined a simplified version, 'Small Set Similarity' (Equation 3.1), of Sorenson's Index which does reflect the extent of overlap with less sensitivity to  $n$ . This index appears especially effective when the disparity of data set sizes is extreme.

$$SSS = \frac{R}{R_n} \quad (3.1)$$

Where  $R_n$  = the number of species in the smaller data set  
and  $R$  = the number of species common to both data sets

### Results - Visual Tests of Jump Pattern Commonality and Uniqueness

StackChange graphics of bird and mammal landscape study site jump patterns within 17 biomes are found in Appendix H. I present a subset here for both taxa to show jump patterns in a diverse set of biomes covering a variety of landscape types and climates: boreal forest (Figures 3-2 and 3-3), northern temperate forest (Figures 3-4 and 3-5), temperate tallgrass prairie (Figures 3-6 and 3-7), and neotropical rainforest (Figures 3-8 and 3-9).

Pattern commonality is readily evident in all graphs. The regularity with which gap and jump sizes overlap on the x-axis is visually apparent in this subset (Figures 3-3 through 3-9) and in many of the StackChange graphs presented in Appendix H. The shading on the boxes adds another dimension of pattern matching, for jumps of similar shading (species density) often tend to line up. This appears in most of the graphs of this subset, especially in the log<sub>10</sub> body mass size range of 1.18 to 1.68, 2.6 to 3.6, and 4.8 to



3.5, for forest dovecote mammals (Figure 3-1). This shading pattern overlap suggests that species densities tend to line up in addition to discrimination in the size distribution.

Within the context of lump patterns shared with each biome group, lump structures of individual communities are specific enough to distinguish them from other communities. Uniqueness of lump patterns is evident in that each biome group has lump patterns from certain landscape study sites which differ slightly or moderately from the others. No two landscape study site lump patterns are identical, even with a high degree of species overlap between sites. For example, the lump patterns of mammals from Rocky Mountain and Yellowstone National Parks (Figure 3-3) differ slightly in the intermediate size range (2.3 to 3.5  $\log_{10}$  body mass) despite a 69% index of species similarity. The lowest uniqueness of lump patterns supports the Textural Discontinuity Hypothesis in that it suggests that lump structure faithfully reflects the unique spatial geometries of each community's landscape as well as the landscape structures common to all communities within the biome.

Many pairs of the landscape study site animal data sets within biome groups have high indices of species similarity. However, visual comparisons suggest that species similarity is not always highly correlated with lump pattern commonality. Relatively high degrees of pattern overlap are evident for some animal communities with low indices of species similarity. Examples of such 'good' pattern matches with relatively low similarity indices (indicated here as percentages in parentheses) include: Tallgrass prairie bird communities (Figure 3-4) with as Dodge and Kansas (17%), Tallgrass prairie mammal communities (Figure 3-5) with as Kansas and Missouri Basin (26%), Northern temperate forest mammals (Figure 3-3) such as Iowa and Rocky Mountain National Park (26%).

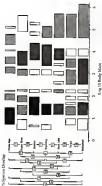


Figure 24. Log<sub>10</sub> densities of bacterial communities at four time points in the study, see text for more details. Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria, and Chloroflexi are the five species groups. The x-axis is labeled 'Log<sub>10</sub> Biotic Mass' and the y-axis is labeled '% Species Density'.

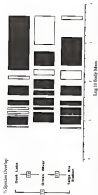


Figure 3.4 Using information of bird composition in forest forest landscapes study sites from New River, Grand Marsh, Murrelets, and Saltwater (Dart Lake). Species similarity index as indicated for each site site comparison.

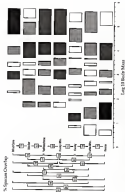


Figure 14. Temp structure of mutual commonness in northern temperate forest (across approximately nine forest types) in the United States (Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, and Indiana). Species similarity values are indicated for each state-size taxonomic comparison.

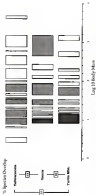


Figure 3-8. Range distribution of land cover classes in northern temperate forest landscape study sites from Memphis (Tennessee), Memphis (Mississippi), and Wyoming (Yellowstone NP) species assemblage studies are indicated for each error size taxonomic comparison.

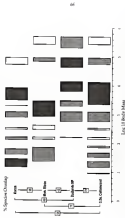


Figure 14: Large plots of marginal contributions at North American temperate latitudes using birds as study taxa from Kestrel (Kestrel), Merlin (Merlin), Great Tit (Great Tit), Great Winged Tit (Great Winged Tit), Great Redcap (Great Redcap), Great Spurge (Great Spurge), Great Tit (Great Tit), Great Winged Tit (Great Winged Tit), Great Redcap (Great Redcap), Great Spurge (Great Spurge), Great Tit (Great Tit), Great Winged Tit (Great Winged Tit), Great Redcap (Great Redcap), Great Spurge (Great Spurge). Species redundancy values are indicated for each intermediate taxonomic category.

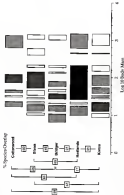


Figure 1-7 Energy structure of NAD communities in North American temperate deciduous forest biogeographic study sites from Broom (Broom), Missouri (10, 11, 12, 13) and North Dakota (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14). Species diversity values are indicated for each site in the hierarchical comparison.

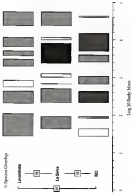


Figure 2-4. Large structure of mutual communities in ecological (vertical), nested (horizontal) study sites from Mexico (Larvicivores), Panama (BCI), and Costa Rica (La Sertis). Species similarity metrics are indicated for each site-site taxonomic comparison.



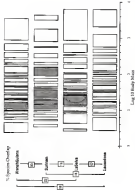


Figure 3-8 Long structures of various taxonomic annotations across four study sites: study sites from Florida (Sarasota, Stennis, Venice (Flouridosa), and Costa Rica (La Balsa)). Species diversity indices are indicated for each site with taxonomic complexity.

### Human Tests of Commonality in Within-Group Lump Patterns

The human eye is capable of detecting pattern discriminations whose subtlety becomes more evident as one tries to induce electro-mechanical shunt-like responses to approximate them. This dilemma continues to haunt such initiatives as Pattern Analysis and such specific applications as remote sensing (Grossler 1987). Therefore, the qualitative, visual sense of pattern commonality between landscape study sites or biomes cannot be diminished lightly. However, instruments capable of delicate measures may also be highly susceptible to noise. Perhaps during the evolution of the human eye the ability to find subtle patterns was selected for at the expense of the ability to spot spurious patterns, and we make more patterns matching than actually exist? What is the risk that the qualitative sense of pattern commonality is distorted from hyper-sensitive detection and integration of many random events?

#### Gap pattern commonality

I addressed this risk by developing a simple quantitative measure of pattern commonality and then comparing the results when applying it to stacked lump structures of actual biome groups (Appendix H) and to groups of landscape study site lump structures assembled at random. I used the mean number ( $\bar{H}$ ) of study sites found in my actual biome groups, and assembled random biomes by selecting actual landscape lump structures at random from any biome group and placing them in groups of four.

I measured gap commonality because it is easier to visually discern gaps shared by lump patterns of different landscape study sites than it is to see shared lumps, and their quantification is less prone to error. I did this by

drawing straight lines vertically through the gaps in the StackChamps graphs to see how many landscapes jump patterns the line passed through without touching a lamp. I quantify a gap consistency index (GCI) as a ratio of the number of gaps shared by a plurality (> 33%) of landscape jump patterns in a home divided by the total number of gaps in all landscapes in the home group (Equation 3.2)

$$GCI = \frac{g_p}{g_t} \quad (3.2)$$

Where:

$g_p$  = number of gaps common to 33 percent of all landscapes, and

$g_t$  = total number of gaps in all landscapes in the home group.

**Results – Gap Consistency:** Jump pattern consistency does not appear to be the product of random associations of animal size distributions. The gap consistency index (GCI) found between landscapes within actual homes is more than double that found in random homes (Table 3-1) for birds or mammals. GCI values for mammal home groups are distinctly higher than those for bird communities. This difference is visually apparent in that gaps between mammal lamps tend to be wider along the size axis than those between bird lamps, and this increases the likelihood that gaps are shared between mammal communities.

Species similarity indices are higher in actual than in random homes, but again the overall association between species similarity and pattern consistency is not clear. Mammal homes have higher GCI values than bird homes, yet the species similarity indices found in mammal homes are lower than those found between landscape study sites in bird homes. The weak contrasts between actual and random home groups are even more evident

where I graph water plots of GCI values as species incidence indices (Figure 3-23)

**Table 3-1 - Summary statistics of mammal and bird faunal structure patterns for groups of landscape data sets sorted by biome and its random.**

Taxon	Gap-Continuity Index (GCI)			
	Proportion of gaps common to all landscapes			
	Birds		Mammals	
	Actual Biomes	Random Assemblages	Actual Biomes	Random Assemblages
Mean St. Dev.	.21 .04	.28 .08	.48 .17	.24 .05
Mean Species Overlap	.65	.51	.42	.51

These summary statistics for GCI values suggest a qualitative difference between actual and random biome faunal patterns. However, certain factors related to climate, vegetation type or number of landscape study sites in the biomes might introduce trends in GCI measures of faunal patterns within biomes. To examine these potentials I ranked biome GCI values and bin them along with climate zone (boreal, temperate, tropical) and the number of ecosystem faunal structure assemblages to represent the biomes for both mammals (Table 3-1a) and birds (Table 3-1b). The majority of observed biome GCI values are beyond the range of GCI values found in random biomes though three mammal biome groups, temperate prairie, tropical wet forest and tropical dry deciduous forest, do fall in that range as indicated by shading in Table 3-2b. For these latter three biomes, the degree of gap continuity is low enough to have been the product of chance. No trend between climate or vegetation type and GCI value is apparent in bird biomes, and the very slight trend between climate and GCI values evident in mammal biomes can be attributed to the fact that tropical biome data sets outnumber all the rest

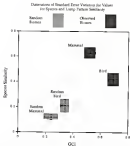


Figure 3-10: Mean values and standard error statistics for species similarity and gap pattern commonality (GCI) measured between pairs of ordinated communities (bird or mammal) at landscape study sites within observed boxes and boxes created by random assembly of ordinated class sets.

To test the potential influence on gap pattern detection of the number of landscape study sites in the home group, I correlated GCI values on number of landscapes in the home group and found non-significant relationships ( $p < 0.05$  for mammals and  $p = 0.412$  for birds) with little

explanatory power for variance in the data for birds ( $r = 0.249$ ) and mammals ( $r = -0.223$ ), respectively. I conclude that neither climate nor number of study sites in the biome appear to significantly influence the GCI as an index of lump pattern commonality when applied to bird or mammal body mass data sets in groups of three or more data sets from the same biome.

**Discussion of gap measurement:** The GCI allows more careful pattern comparison between biomes by quantifying any explanatory visual determinants of gap pattern matching within biomes. However pattern matching at larger scales requires a method which is less cumbersome than visual measurement on graphs. Representation of lump patterns with a numeric index would allow easier comparisons between larger spatial scale systems such as between biomes and between super-biomes. The problem is especially acute with bird biome data whereas gap widths are much smaller than those found in mammal lump patterns. To minimize potential pattern matching measurement error I exclude subsequent tests to mammal data sets.

An additional problem with these initial pattern tests using the GCI is that my random biomes only partially approximated randomness by confining the pool for random choices to existing landscape study site data sets. The approximation does not truly randomize the location of lumps, just the choice of which landscape study sites to group. In this way it retains whatever collective symmetry that might exist between actual landscape study site lump patterns. A number of landscape and non-landscape factors could contribute to the aggregate lump symmetry. Under this kind of pseudo-randomization these factors might mimic lump patterns from different biomes and give skewed indices of pattern commonality. For example, if any of the non-landscape hypotheses (H1 - H5) contributes to

**Table 3-2.** Designations of climate, landcover, gap commonality index values, and number of vegetation jump structures associated with biotic groups of seasonal (A.) and boreal (B.) community jump structures. Shaded (GI) values fall at the value range found for biotic groups of randomly assembled community jump structures.

A. Seasonal Community Jump Structures			
Name	Landcover Type	GI	No. Jumps
Boreal	Tundra	0.80	2
Temperate	Mediterranean	0.60	2
Tropical	Asian Rain Forest	0.80	7
Temperate	Shortgrass Prairie	0.60	2
Temperate	Midwest Forest	0.60	2
Tropical	Savanna with Forest	0.60	2
Boreal	Forest	0.60	1
Tropical	Savanna	0.60	4
Temperate	Desert	0.77	6
Tropical	Woodland/Savanna	0.78	6
Tropical	Mixed Forest	0.70	7
Tropical	Lowland Rainforest 2	0.60	6
Temperate	Southeast Forest	0.60	3
Tropical	Lowland Rainforest 3	0.67	4
Tropical	Midwest Pampaforest	0.67	2
Tropical	Asian Grasslands	0.67	5
Tropical	S. African Palm Forest	0.60	8
Tropical	Lowland Rainforest 1	0.67	4
Temperate	Tallgrass Prairie	0.60	1
Tropical	Wet Forest	0.60	4
Tropical	Dry Decid Forest	0.60	2
B. Boreal Community Jump Structures			
Name	Landcover Type	GI	No. Jumps
Temperate	Southeast Forest	0.70	2
Boreal	Tundra	0.70	2
Temperate	Shortgrass Prairie	0.70	4
Temperate	Northern Forest	0.70	4
Tropical	Lowland Rainforest 1	0.60	2
Tropical	Savanna	0.60	4
Temperate	Tallgrass Prairie	0.67	4
Tropical	Lowland Rainforest 2	0.60	2
Temperate	NW Tundra	0.60	2
Tropical	Low Wet Forest	0.60	2
Boreal	Forest	0.60	2
Tropical	Dry Decid Forest	0.60	7
Tropical	Savanna with Forest	0.60	5

whole or in part to explaining leop patterns, their common traits of ancestry, locomotory mode or trophic level might result in leop pattern commonality between landscape study sites in different biomes. On the landscape level, certain structures or substrates may be quite similar or identical even though they are found in different climates or biomes. For example trees and understorey might have very similar forms in forests of radically different climates. I address these concerns now with more comprehensive attempts to define leop pattern commonality and to reassemble within-home leop patterns.

### Lamp frequency as index of pattern regularity for gaps and leaps

For simpler statistical comparisons of pattern within and between biomes I reduced leop pattern shared by landscape study sites within biomes to a single vector of numbers. I did this by dividing the size axis into bins of fixed length, 0.01 log<sub>10</sub> body mass, and placing in each bin a decimal fraction which I call Lamp Frequency. Lamp Frequency represents the ratio of the number of landscape study sites with a leop at that location divided by the total number of landscape study sites in the biome. Lamp Frequency values vary from 0 (no leop in any landscape study site at this bin location) to 1 (all landscape study sites have a leop at this bin location). Each data set had a unique range of body size values and therefore a unique vector length. To minimize false analogies, numerical comparisons between data sets were made only along those portions of the size axis in which both sets had Lamp Frequency values.

I use the Tullahoma Forest and Baspurata Desert Biomes to illustrate in Figure 3-12 the transition from visual (stacked leop structures) to numerical (Lamp Frequency vectors and Indices of Permanent Pattern Commonality) representations of leop pattern commonality. Both biomes visually exhibit

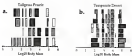


lump pattern commonality because a majority of lumps and gaps line up on the size axis (Figure 3-11 a & b). Very high vector values for Lump Frequency reflect common lump axes and are evident visually as peaks (Figure 3-11 c & d). Low vector values for Lump Frequency reflect common gap axes and are evident visually as valleys.

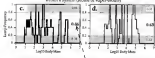
My attempts to show pattern matching by statistically correlating Lump Frequency vectors of different systems (inter-landscape or inter-biome) showed promising early results. Comparisons of systems with very similar lump pattern graphics had high correlation values (> 0.8), and inter-system comparisons with low lump pattern similarity had low correlation values (< 0). However, it was very difficult to interpret correlation values in the middle range (between 0.15 to 0.8), and randomization of pairings of systems compared showed that the correlation method can give false positive values. For example, random pairings of landscapes study sites or biomes with different lump structures often gave relatively high correlation values which were not easily distinguishable from pairings of systems with visually similar lump structures.

These suspiciously high values appear to result from correlation of matching lump patterns, those patterns which fall between the extremes or 'prominences' of high (lumps) and low (gaps) Lump Frequency values. I revised the definition of 'persistent' lump patterns using these extremes as thresholds to filter out the possibility that such matching lump patterns introduce the noise of random, local historical events. I created an Index of Persistent Lump Pattern Commonality which is a measure of the fraction of the size axis occupied only by the persistent peaks and valleys in Lump Frequency vectors. I define as 'persistent' all Lump Frequency values falling above 0.60 (strong lumps) or below 0.40 (strong gaps). That is to say, I

### StackChange - Leap Pattern Commonality visually examined



### Leap Frequency - Vector of values (reflecting the degree that leap and gap scores are shared) (commonality) within a system (biome or super-biome)



**Index of Prominent Pattern Commonality**  
 a value summarizing the portion of sites occupied by extremely high and low (shaded zones) Leap Frequency vector values within a system.

Figure 3-21 Leap pattern consistency in two biome assemblages of animal community leap structures as measured visually in stacked formation (a & b), as represented numerically by Leap Frequency vectors (c & d), and as summarized by an Index of Prominent Pattern Commonality (bold decimal fractions in c & d), which measures the portion of the size axis occupied by extremely high and low Leap Frequency vector values.

counted as strong jumps or strong gaps only those features shared by 80 percent or more of the landscape study sites as a home or a super-home.

I quantified prominent jump patterns as a ratio by counting all the Lump-Frequency values above and below these thresholds and dividing each by the total number of lumps in the system. Using the example of the Tallgrass Prairie home lump structure (Figure 3-11c), 6 percent of the site area is occupied by prominent lumps and 78 percent is occupied by prominent gaps, giving a total Index of Prominent Lump Patterns value of 0.48. The Temperate Forest home has a greater portion occupied by prominent lumps, giving it a higher total IFLP index value of 0.45. I found no bias or trend between the Prominent Lump Patterns index and the number of study sites in a system when I correlated them. The findings were not significant and had little power to explain the variance in index values for gaps ( $r^2 = 0.002$ ) or lumps ( $r^2 = 0.007$ ).

#### Can Prominent Lump Patterns Occur by Chance?

I created fake homes as models of actual home data sets with randomized lump patterns so as to measure what prominent patterns of Lump-Frequency results from chance associations of lumps within homes. I randomized lump patterns within homes at the level of each landscape data set. I did this by returning the same range of body sizes, number of lumps, and size range within each lump as I found in the actual landscape data set. Within the body size range of each landscape data set I randomized the location of these lumps. I assembled each of these randomized landscape lump patterns into a home group, such that each fake home had as many landscape data sets as the observed home group. I measured Lump-Frequency vectors for each fake home and then measured the portions of the

vector occupied by prominent gaps and jumps to arrive at a total index of Prominent Lump Pattern (PLP).

### **Results: Within-beam lump pattern commonality**

Graphical interpretations (CCI values) of significant gap pattern commonality within beams are supported by statistics of prominent lump and gap pattern index values (Table 3-2). Mean PLP index values suggest that actual beam size area were occupied on average 34 percent by strong gaps and 17 percent by strong lumps. If I sort actual beams by PLP index values for gaps or lumps I find no trend relating either type of strong pattern to cluster or backbone type.

The very strong degree of pattern commonality indexed by Prominent Lump Pattern does not appear to be a product of random association of lumps. It occurs slightly less than twice as often along the size axis of actual beams compared to fake beams (Table 3-3). When I divide the fake beams by actual beam PLP index values I find ratios of 0.62 (gaps), 0.46 (lumps), and 0.57 (total pattern). The wide disparity between the statistics of real and fake beam PLP indices is evident in the lack of overlap between standard error bars (Figure 3-12). I confirmed this result through a student's t-test which found highly significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ) differences between mean PLP index values for gaps or for lumps as observed and fake beams.

### **Summary: Within-Beam Lump Patterns**

Both the CCI and the PLP index tests suggest that for higher levels of commonality in lump patterns exist within beams than expected by chance. These trends appear irrespective of beam, beam type or number of landscape study sites in the beam. I now examine lump patterns at scales larger than beams for commonality.

Table 3-3. Indices of string pattern community for jumps and gaps (measured for 14 income assemblages of measured body mass data sets compiled for landscape study sites). String pattern is measured as Jump Frequency values greater than or equal to 0.4 (Jumps) or less than or equal to 0.2 (gaps)

Biome		No.	Frequency Jump Failure				Total Jump Failure	
			Less	Equal	Fail	Pass	Less	Fail
Neotropical	Montane Rainforest	4	0.20	0.13	0.09	0.06	0.06	0.13
Neotropical	Lowland Rainforest	2	0.20	0.46	0.27	0.13	0.40	0.56
Neotropical	Lowland Rainforest	2	0.41	0.22	0.24	0.07	0.20	0.30
Neotropical	Lowland Rainforest	4	0.40	0.13	0.07	0.05	0.27	0.24
Tropical	African Grasslands	3	0.34	0.20	0.20	0.10	0.20	0.40
Temperate	Shrubgrass prairie	4	0.20	0.23	0.09	0.08	0.16	0.27
Temperate	Tallgrass prairie	4	0.36	0.26	0.04	0.03	0.40	0.27
Temperate (north)	Decid & Conif Forest	4	0.21	0.20	0.16	0.10	0.36	0.20
Temperate (north)	Decid & Conif Forest	7	0.26	0.19	0.26	0.11	0.43	0.20
Boreal	Forest	9	0.14	0.10	0.20	0.05	0.40	0.16
Arctic or Mountain	Tundra	2	0.40	0.20	0.40	0.00	0.70	0.40
Temperate	Desert	8	0.22					
Tropical	Woodland/Savanna	6	0.20					
Tropical	Wet Forest	6	0.20					
		Mean	0.26	0.20	0.17	0.09	0.40	0.26
		SD	0.106	0.106	0.100	0.070	0.106	0.140

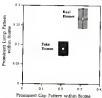


Figure 3-11: Mean and standard error statistics for indices of Prominent Lump Pattern (consistency shared by a super-capacity of all sites) within classes. Values were calculated for observed (real) groups of landscape-level animal lump patterns and for groups of lump patterns which are simulations (fake) of randomized lump patterns. Values under 'wrong' or 'prominent' patterns, the proportion of the animal body mass use range occupied by gaps (x-axis) or lumps (y-axis) in 80 percent or more of the landscape data sets within the group.

### Lump Pattern Trends at Scales Larger Than Homes

The consistent trends I found within and among basins for lump pattern consistency and uniqueness support the Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis. These findings do not preclude the possibility that natural-landscape interactions are evident at other scales. The likelihood that processes affecting aerial morphology operate at multiple scales (Holling 1983) makes it useful to compare body size patterns over a range of scales (spatial extent and grain). Variation in the degree of lump pattern matching from scale to scale may help identify the particular processes and the scales at which they affect aerial morphology.

Perhaps processes operating at scales larger than basins influence aerial lump patterns. In this section I test this premise by looking at landscapes over a range of spatial extents larger than basins. I look at lump patterns within these areas using a variety of grain resolutions. I now describe the assembly of aerial data at scales larger than basins and the different grain resolutions with which to resolve lump patterns.

#### Spatial extents larger than basins

I created super-basins by aggregating the lump patterns of natural landscape study sites to spatial extents larger than basins. I did this by including measured body mass data from landscape study sites from very similar basins on different continents or over large geographical ranges on one continent. For example, I created a grasslands super-basin by adding natural landscape study site lump patterns from temperate short and tallgrass prairie to those of African grasslands. Similarly, I created a

collected super biotas by adding uncollected mainland study sites to those of the paleotropics.

### Multiple grain resolutions for lump structure

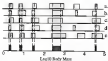
The increased diversity of grain resolutions used to define animal morphometry has significantly expanded the range of hypothetical links between animals and ecological processes. For example, the discovery of multiple modes or lumps (Kardala 1988, Helling 1993) in size distributions created novel opportunities to test links between animal morphometry to processes organizing landscape architecture in addition to guild structure and trophic relations. The interpretation of these modes for location and number remains an area of intense debate (clumped vs. multimodal). Changing the grain resolution with which lump pattern is defined can significantly alter the number of lumps found. For example, shifting the value of the kernel estimator in smoothing a size distribution can generate a variety of interpretations of lump number in a data set.

To address the variability of possible interpretations of lump structure it is prudent to vary grain as the spatial extent of a system increases.

Therefore, over a range of extents I display lump structures using two core grain resolutions in addition to the stacked lump patterns of landscape study sites. I illustrate how I use the two grain resolutions to narrow and expand the lump structure presented by StackChange (Figure 3-13).

I use needle grain resolution to conservatively narrow the definition of lump pattern common to most study sites in a biota (Figure 3-13 A). With needle grain resolution I use a fixed distance (roughly 0.05  $\log_{10}$  body mass) or "bin-width" along the size axis within which I determine whether a majority of ecosystems exhibit a lump or gap at that location on the size axis. This is shown by the width of the dashed lines extending vertically through





A. Beam lump structure resolved at Needle grain resolution.



B. Beam lump structure resolved at Cloud grain resolution.

Figure 3-13: Three grain resolutions to represent the aggregate lump structure of a hypothetical beam. The middle grain is defined by the size of the gaps which separate lumps, and the aggregate lump structure is represented by the stacked lump patterns of 3 axial cross-sections (a-c) within the beam. The narrowest grain (Needle) shows these zones (lump polygons) continue to a majority of all diameters at a resolution of  $5 \times 10^4$  log<sub>10</sub> body mass. The coarsest grain (Cloud) loosely encompasses the zones occupied by clusters of lumps.

lamp structure of the five communities and delineating the common lamp zone as grey polygons on the bottom axis. The conservatism of this approach is evident in the absence of any necessary lamp structure around 4.0 log<sub>10</sub> body mass because there is no size increase to 80 percent or more of all communities in that size range. The same procedure was used to delineate common gap sizes (normally represented by white polygons but not shown here so as to maintain the clarity of the illustration).

I use a flexible grain, cloud resolution, to give a more capacious interpretation of forest lamp structure by encompassing areas along the size axis where lamps appear to cluster (Figure 3-13-B). By contrast with use of the regular grain, this approach is more liberal and does define a common lamp zone around 4.0 log<sub>10</sub> body mass. In summary, all three grain resolutions (regular, lamp and cloud) are arbitrary renditions of forest lamp structure that allow me to vary the focus on patterns of animal morphology as I test their correspondence with patterns resulting from different ecological processes, both landscape and non-landscape.

### **Graphic Results: Super-Borné Lamp Patterns at Three Grain Resolutions**

In each graph I present three resolutions for lamp patterns of study sites assembled at the super-borné spatial extent. I supplement the nested lamp patterns of equatorial study sites with regular and cloud resolution lamp representations to contrast lamp structures of relatively similar biomes such as southern and northern American temperate forests (Figure 3-13), neotropical lowland and montane rainforests (Figure 3-14), north American short and tallgrass prairies and African grasslands (Figure 3-15), and woodland/savanna and savanna with forest (Figure 3-16).

Lump pattern consistency is graphically apparent within and between biomes in each of these comparisons (Figures 3-13 through 3-16). For example, I find consistent alignment of lumps around the 1.8 - 2.0, 3.2 - 3.6, 4.0 - 4.2, 4.7 - 4.8, and 5.1 - 5.4 ranges of  $\log_{10}$  body mass for mammals in the Woodland - Savanna super-biome (Figure 3-16). In the same graph there is a consistent absence of lumps between 2.0 - 3.0  $\log_{10}$  body mass. However, the fact that significant portions of these lump patterns can be rendered at all with either needle or cloud resolution gives additional confidence of consistency, because these graphs can't be employed unless a mapping of landscape study sites share patterns. In the absence of pattern consistency the needle and cloud portions of these graphs would be blank.

Needle resolution lump patterns form an attention at relatively narrow zones of the size axis with high lump densities. Certain common lump zones repeatedly appear in these graphs around  $\log_{10}$  3.0 and 3.8 - 4.1. However, lump pattern consistency trends are not uniform across all biomes. Each inter-biome lump pattern comparison shows unique lump and gap zones at needle resolution. Similarly, there is little difference in number (4 to 6) of clouds in all these inter-biome pattern comparisons, but the locations and widths of most of the lump clusters are unique to each biome.

Within the pattern matching trends which clearly suggest consistency, pattern variation between landscapes sites and between biomes suggest lump pattern uniqueness at each level. For example, the relative lack of lumps at macro-scales distinguishes temperate prairie from shortgrass prairie and African grasslands (Figure 3-15). Comparing two north American biomes, northern temperate forests have low macro-scale and more meso-scale lump structure than southern temperate forests (Figure 3-13).

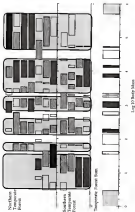


Figure 2.11 - Long structures of various occupations in temperate forest biomes at monthly spring and winter simulations.

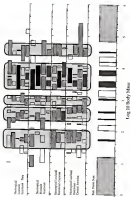


Fig. 3-18. Manual long paths for Moderate Risk Personnel shows atypical, slow and costly operations

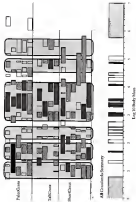


Figure 2-15: Layout iterations of two mass-forming plans as generated through a workflow using grid-based evolutionary design.



Figure 3-17. Large structures of biomass/complexity in various soil microbial biomass fractions and food web models.

These exploratory tests build a qualitative link between patterns of coastal morphology and landscape structure at scales larger than bays. Similarities of landscape structure between sites are qualitative benchmarks to the extent that they are commonly recognized (Silvertown 1975, Bailey 1993) within similar biomes. It stands to reason that grassy savannas with some forest patches are more structurally similar to open, grassy woodlands than to dense forests. Similarly, the graphic demonstrations of inter-biome lump patterns which I just presented suggest a qualitative sense of pattern commonality.

It would help to establish some more rigorous reference point in the relations of two such non-standardized variables as lump and landscape patterns. One reference point might be to determine how much lump-pattern commonality can be found in super-biomes as a product of chance occurrences of lump patterns within the landscape sites. I carried out such a reference test by enumerating super-biome lump-patterns exactly as I did for biome lump patterns. I translated super-biome lump patterns into vectors of Lump-Frequency values, which I then used to quantify the degree of strong lump and strong gap patterns within each super-biome. I also randomized super-biome lump patterns and created fake super-biomes exactly as I did for biome lump patterns. I then calculated mean and standard deviation statistics for strong lump and gap patterns both in observed and fake super-biomes, and tested the statistical difference in these mean values for strong patterns using the student's T-test. I now present results of these tests.

#### **Numerical Tests of Super-biome Lump Patterns**

I find significant amounts of correlation or commonality between lump patterns of landscape study sites within super-biomes (Table 3-8)



though somewhat less than was evident for basins. Mean Prominent Lump Pattern (PLP) index values suggest that actual basins size cuts were occupied on average 28 percent by strong gaps and 30 percent by strong lumps. In scaling up from basins to super-basins, the amount of strong gap patterns remains about the same, but the amount of strong lump patterns has fallen by 40 percent, from 17 to 10 percent of the size cuts. It appears that addition of smaller basin lump patterns diminishes the chance of lumps across being shared by a strong majority (greater than or equal to 50 percent) of all landscape sites in the system.

Strong pattern correlation resulting in high Prominent Lump Pattern (PLP) index values appear less likely in super-basins to be a product of inhibitor association of lumps than it does in basins. As with basins, overall pattern correlation is much higher in observed as opposed to fake super-basins, but the difference is much stronger with respect to lump pattern correlation. Strong gap patterns occurs slightly less than twice as often along the size cuts of observed super-basins compared to fake super-basins (Table 3-3), and strong lump pattern occurs only one fifth as much in fake as in observed super-basins. When I divide the fake super-basins by observed basins PLP index values I find ratios of 0.43 (gaps), 0.20 (lumps), and 0.26 (total pattern).

These mean values are significantly different. A graph of mean PLP index values (Figure 3-10) for observed and fake super-basins shows no overlap between standard error bars for gap and lump-strong patterns. I confirmed the result through a student's t-test which found highly significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ) differences between observed and fake basins mean PLP index values for gaps or for lumps.

Table 3-4. Indices of Fragment Lump Pattern (string pattern connectivity for lumps and gaps) measured for 8 super-blocks (assemblages of seasonal body mass data sets compiled for landscape study sites). String or Fragment pattern is measured as Lump Frequency values greater than or equal to 0.5 (lumps) or less than or equal to 0.2 (gaps).

	No. Sites	Fragment Lump Pattern				Total Pattern	
		String Gap Rate	Gap Rate	String Lump Rate	Lump Rate	Total Pattern Rate	
Forest Stream	1	0.14	0.00	0.14	0.00	0.14	0.00
Temperate Forest	11	0.20	0.11	0.20	0.09	0.29	0.10
Neotropical Lowland Rainforest	24	0.07	0.14	0.08	0.04	0.05	0.15
Wetland/Wood-Pond	4	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.04	0.34	0.44
Woodland-Savanna	5	0.20	0.14	0.08	0.08	0.24	0.20
Grasslands	20	0.20	0.14	0.08	0.08	0.20	0.14
Mean		0.19	0.13	0.13	0.07	0.20	0.13
SD		0.08	0.11	0.08	0.02	0.09	0.11

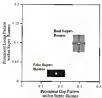


Figure 3-18. Mean and standard error statistics for indices of Prominent Lamp Pattern (consistency observed by a super-majority of all sites) within super-islands. Values were calculated for observed (real) groups of landscape-level animal lamp patterns and for groups of lamp patterns which are simulations (fake) of undisturbed lamp patterns. Values index strong patterns, the proportion of the animal body mass size range occupied by gaps (x-axis) or lamps (y-axis) in 50 percent or more of the landscape data sets within the group.

## From Global Jump Patterns

Truly global jump patterns would represent the collective morphometrics of most species found in a majority of the landscapes recognized within the range of that taxon. The numbers of species and landscape types represented in this study are considerable, but in the aggregate could only be seen as an instructive sub-sample which estimates global patterns. Hence the term, *para-global* for the spatial extent of this test of the Trenchard-Diversity hypothesis. I now examine *para-global* jump patterns for internal consistency or commonality using a variety of graphic resolutions:

### Graphic comparisons of jump patterns

There appear to be a limited number of sizes over the mammal size range which are shared as gaps or as jumps by a majority of mammal communities over a wide variety of landscape types. I now demonstrate this *para-global* jump pattern commonality over a range of scales and grain resolutions. I begin with very coarse grain and allow individual visual interpretation of overall jump patterns. I then show aggregate jump patterns which I found at reduced grain sizes but increasing spatial extent.

At a coarse grain, individual jumps, I stack the jump structures of mirrored landscape study sites from ten different forest biomes along with a visual interpretation of jump pattern commonality at needle resolution at the bottom (Figure 3-19). The latter suggests common gap sizes at 2.0 - 2.2, 2.8, 3.2 - 3.4, and 4.3  $\log_{10}$  body mass and common jump sizes at 1.3, 1.6, 2.4 - 2.6, 3.8 - 4.0, and 4.8  $\log_{10}$  body mass.

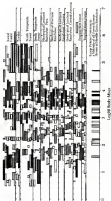


Figure 3.16 Lumpy-pelted Wilson's lizards as represented by stacked graphs of body-pelted and individual landscape study sites within each biome and by multiple grid-resolution interpretations of those body-pelted and grid-sites which are common to a majority of biomes. Species diversity is lumpy polygons indicated by the distribution of shading.

I approach more closely to global scales by looking at all landscape types, including forests, over larger spatial extents. I do this by aggregating lump patterns from biomes to super-biome levels and looking for commonality by marking the lump zones in the size range which are related to both super-biomes. I make graphs of zones of lump overlap between super-biomes (Figure 3-10) and find all the major lump pattern commonality zones which I found in Figure 3-11 as well as some new common lump (1.6 - 3.8 and 8.6 log<sub>10</sub>body mass) and gap (0.4 log<sub>10</sub>body mass) zones.

As a first estimate of pure-global lump pattern, I graph all lowest lump patterns at Lump Frequency curves (Figure 3-20) and find all the above lump and gap commonality zones above with steeper detail. For example, common lump zones now appear as separate peaks at 1.6 and 1.8 log<sub>10</sub> body mass. Similarly, major common gap zones are evident around 1.0, 1.6 and 8.0 log<sub>10</sub>body mass. I summarize these findings in Table 3-5.

**Table 3-5. Summary of log<sub>10</sub> body mass size ranges of gap and lump zones common to lump patterns of most mammal communities in some 16 biomes.**

Gap	Lump
0.2 - 1.1	1.2 - 3.8
1.6	1.6 - 1.7
2.0 - 3.2	2.0
2.8 - 3.4	3
3.0	3.0 - 3.8
4.0	4.1 - 4.3
8	8.2 - 8.8

#### **Explanation of pure-global lump pattern commonality:**

The observation of gap and lump zones common to all mammal landscape sites irrespective of biome type suggests that lump structure is a

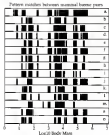


Figure 3-20: Lump pattern overlap in phylogenetic spatial axes as evident in the pattern shared between mammal lump structures of pairs of super-biomes. Lump pattern overlap between super-biomes was determined by visual examination of postpruning of pairs of mammal super-biome *SnackChamps* graphs as follows: boreal forest and temperate forest (a), montane and moist forest (b), woodland-savanna and grassland (c), boreal forest and grassland (d), montane and grassland (e), temperate forest and grassland (f), grassland and moist forest (g), woodland-savanna and moist forest (h), montane and woodland-savanna (i), boreal forest and woodland-savanna (j), montane and temperate forest (k), temperate forest and woodland-savanna (l), montane and boreal forest (m), boreal forest and moist forest (n), temperate forest and moist forest (o).

boundary of some processes) which are universal to landscapes all over the world. If these processes organize landscape structure into similar patterns in all landscapes, then the Structural-Dominance hypothesis (SD) is supported. For example, if plant physiognomy ('a tree is a tree is a tree') or terrain geomorphologies are sufficiently similar across all landscape types, then landscape structure still might be the product of engagement by animal communities with landscape architecture.

It is understood to some extent if these global processes function independently of landscape structure. For example, processes of competition, evolution, and trophic relationships are regarded as decoupled in terrestrial ecosystems. However, one must recall that pan-global landscape connectivity is an extreme of what landscape pattern is shared among most natural communities, and it only focuses on zones with higher likelihoods of having a lump or a gap. It accounts for the location of the largest gaps which separate zones in which most lumps are found. It does not account for the smaller gaps which separate lumps within these zones of higher Lump Frequency. The lump patterns created by these smaller gaps and lumps are the Identifying Features which characterize animal communities body mass morphologies associated with specific landscapes or biomes. Any explanation of lump structure must address both levels of lump pattern connectivity.



Frequency of landscape study sites exhibiting the lamp pattern feature

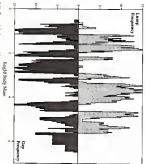


Figure 3d: Post-pooled seasonal lamp patterns as indicated by lamp and gap frequency vector values derived from 22 pairwise pattern metrics of riparian lamp patterns.

### Chapter Summary

In this chapter I have demonstrated that lump patterns are repeatedly found with consistent and common features when looking at bird and mammal body size data from landscapes with similar structure. These features are axes on the body size axis which are characterized by lumps or gaps which are related to a property of size within a biome or super-biome. This lump pattern commonality is evident at the scale of biomes and super-biomes. I have demonstrated at biome and super-biome scales that it is extremely unlikely that such commonality is the product of chance associations of lumps. I have also failed to find any notable trend which associates my indices of pattern commonality with such variables as the number of landscapes in a spatial extent (biome or super-biome) or climate.

I have also demonstrated broad commonality in lump patterns at near-global spatial scales, by identifying axes on the size axis where lumps or gaps are more likely to be found. This does not account for the existence of many small gaps found in size distributions at local spatial scales of specific landscapes, but it does help predict the general locations of lumps at global scales.

Lump pattern commonality within landscapes of similar structure (such as biomes or super-biomes) supports the predictions of the Trenchard-Dawkinsity hypothesis. Lump patterns common at global scales challenge HD under two conditions. First, there are no landscape structural climate controls to all landscapes which are associated with the species in lumps in the global clusters of lumps. Second, there are non-landscape processes which better explain the locations of these global lump clusters.

In the next chapter I address definitions of landscape structure and compare them with jump pattern coarseness within and between human and super-human. In the final chapter I test the ability of non-landscape hypotheses to predict these common jump patterns.

## CHAPTER 4 RELATED PATTERNS OF LUMP AND LANDSCAPE STRUCTURE IN LANDSCAPES OF DIFFERENT STRUCTURAL COMPLEXITY

### Introduction

The *Topical-Dominance (TD) hypothesis* predicts that similar landscapes are associated with similar lump structures as supported by the *spatial consistency (consistency)* demonstrated between lump patterns within biomes (Chapter 3). I have demonstrated the generality of lump pattern consistency for birds and mammals in a wide variety of biomes. This demonstration rests on the assumption that intra-biome landscape comparisons share more similarity in structure than inter-biome comparisons. Before I test predictions of non-landscape hypotheses (H1 - H3) that lump and non-landscape patterns are linked (Chapter 5), the assumption of structural similarity within biomes must be tested.

How dependably do traditional landscape classification schemes link patterns of structure at all scales? Perhaps some definitions of landscape cover are biased towards micro-scale patterns of plant species associations and ignore patterns at macro- (peak) and mega-scales? In this chapter I probe the risk from two directions. First, I measure the consistency in predictions by several traditional landscape classification schemes. Second, I introduce a novel approach for classifying landscape structure at multiple scales and measure the variability in structural values within traditional landscape classes such as biomes.

This new multi-scale landscape classification scheme allows me to ordinate sites based on structural complexity. This enables me to test more rigorously the power and generality of TD's prediction that landscape structure is linked to lump structure. Namely, the link between animal

morphometry and landscape structure is more general if it can be shown to predict at a rate proportional to the degree to which structure differs. The landscape classification scheme allows me to measure the degree of structural difference between landscape sites, and I can measure the rate of response in lump pattern matching between animal body mass data sets. In this chapter I compare and compare indices of structure and lump pattern matching for a wide variety of landscapes at scales from houses to super houses.

Finally, I contrast IB's prediction by testing whether lump pattern predicts the scale of landscape architecture which a species exploits. This directly addresses the link between animal size and landscape texture by examining if the mean body size of an animal lump corresponds to the coarseness of the architecture which the animals in that lump use.

In summary, I test the Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis in this chapter by addressing the following questions: How confident are we at grouping ecosystems solely into forest or coastal landscape features? How much variability is there in characterizing landscapes? Does the degree of matching between lump patterns correlate with structural differences between sites? Does lump structure predict use of landscape structure?

### **Traditional Landscape Classification Methods**

Comparing and grouping ecosystems based on similarities of landscape structure requires uniform data from a standardized system for describing structure. It is difficult to meet these criteria. The quantity and quality of data I found for landscape features (vegetation, fauna, physiography) was highly variable. No single descriptive system for landscape cover or structure is widely accepted (Brown and Gibson 1988, Hill et al. 1991), and most

distortion is quite possible due to errors of interpretation and vague terminology.

In this chapter I try to avoid multiple sources of error by employing several classification systems which utilize many factors associated with landscape structure, particularly macro- and meso-scale structural features. Climatic factors (temperature and precipitation) are utilized by Holdridge (1971) to classify regions as Life Zones. Climate-based schemes such as Köppen (1931) and Trewartha (1948) have been incorporated along with edaphic factors and forest and fauna in the classification of North America into eco-regions (Bailey 1988). A third system (Ulbrich 1975) classifies terrestrial zones into Biomes based on climatic and floristic associations at different spatial scales (sub-regional, regional, provincial). These associations in turn are loosely related to edaphic, climatic, soil usage, and physiographic patterns.

#### Data Sources for Biome Classification and Climate

For each site I used the biome classifications and site descriptions found in journal articles from which I derived my animal species lists and in related literature. For North American sites I also consulted a third source (Bailey 1988), which combines climatic, edaphic, vegetative, and faunal data in classifying eco-regions. For sites outside North America I cross-checked classifications using biome maps of Ulbrich (1975).

For Life Zone classifications I collected temperature, rainfall and evapotranspiration data for each study site using data from the nearest available weather monitoring station (Earth Info 1998, UNESCO 1998). I checked evapotranspiration and rainfall data against hemispheric maps which displayed such data as isopleth gradient lines (Gleason 1989).

### Holdridge Lifezone Classification

Holdridge's Life Zone Classification (HLZCS) system (Holdridge 1967, Holdridge et al. 1971) is a classification system which attempts to integrate climatic and vegetative definitions into a single model. The HLZCS consists of three levels of classification which are applied serially. A Holdridge diagram summarizes the system logic at each classification level, visually linking vegetative and climatic data to landscape classifications. Figure 4-1 represents the first or primary level, which is defined by mean annual values for precipitation and biotemperature and the potential evapotranspiration rate (PET). The second level of the HLZCS refines the classification further by incorporating latitudinal and altitudinal definitions. The third level is based on biotic level vegetative cover.

The life zone of a study site is independently classified if the first two levels of the classification process closely indicate the center of a cell in a Holdridge diagram. Classification questions which arise when a boundary area (transition zone) between cells is indicated in the diagram are addressed by closely re-examining the vegetation type as well as rechecking biotemperature and precipitation values.

### Comparing Holdridge and Biome Classifications

For each landscape site I compared two classification systems (life zone and biome) so as to compare vegetation with climatic data in determining the site's landscape structure type. Life Zone designations for all sites (see Appendix C) generally agreed (72 percent of observations) with biome classifications based on biotemperature. Contradictions between both classification systems occurred primarily when Life Zone analysis uncovered a greater

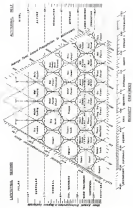


Figure 4-1 Triaxial schematic of Holdridge Life Zone classification system (after Holdridge 1967)



variety of precipitation values than expected within biome groups. As a consequence, some cases of high between-site variation in precipitation values might demand reclassification of some sites to other biomes. For example, the *Savanna* site (Appendix C) is more humid than a "dry deciduous" biome classification might merit. Clustering of climatic variable values suggest that four biome groupings (Temperate Desert, Tropical Dry Deciduous Forest, Tropical Wet Forest, and Woodland/Savanna Forest) could each be usefully divided into two sub-groups. For example, the Woodland / Savanna Forest biome might be subdivided into a *Savanna* and a *Woodland* biome, and the Temperate Desert biome might be subdivided into *Sonoran* and *Great Basin Desert* biomes.

#### *Assessing the Dependability of Landscape Classifications*

Parallel use of several classification schemes decreases the chance that some important factor was omitted in landscape classification. Since no one system is universally accepted as a global standard, balancing between different schemes increases the chance that a reasonable estimate of a site's landscape structure was achieved. For example, Holdridge Life Zone classifications (HLZC) are based on climatic models with parameters that were calibrated primarily in the Neotropics. Consequently, the HLZC model does not predict vegetation types accurately in arid/semi-dry climates (Schulze and McGee 1974), or account for numerous vegetation types (Brown and Gibson 1982). So while the HLZC is adequate for wet tropical climates, it is prudent to supplement it with other approaches.

Two sources of variation will traditional landscape classifications are in question. As discussed in the last chapter, a variety of spatial extents have been applied to classification terms such as *occupations* and *biomes*. Each

flexible use has not encouraged an easy standardization for defining the spatial dimensions of landscape units. The second source of variation is spatial heterogeneity in patterns of disturbance, topography, hydrology, soil, plant associations and climate. After more than a century of study it appears we are only just beginning to appreciate the degree to which these factors interfere in the operation of ecological systems (Johling 1983, Levin 1990, Whitt 1992) and the maintenance of landscape structure.

My comparison of biome and life zone classifications accounts for a minority of these factors and still shows a notable amount of disagreement (28 percent) based on climate variability. The extent to which variation in other factors increases the variability of landscape structure between study sites remains undetermined, since the majority of other factors at meso- and macro- scales are, at best, under-appreciated in traditional classifications. The general agreement between the two classification systems suggests that there is relatively little intersite variation within a landscape type for meso- to macro-scale features like vegetation physiognomy and patch type. However, no one has demonstrated a robust consistency in landscape structure at all scales in between-site comparisons using traditional classification methods. I now review some previous attempts to link animal behavior and landscape structure and introduce a new method specifically designed to measure landscape structure at multiple scales.

### *Classifying Landscape Structure Across Multiple Scales*

The Natural Discontinuity hypothesis (ND) has received modest but consistent support from qualitative assessments of jump structure and landscape structure (see review in Chapter 3). A more rigorous test of the linkage between animal morphology and landscape structure demands that

both patterns be quantified. Quantification of animal morphology as lump structure required inductive probes into widely used statistical methods (Marpley, in submission). Quantification of landscape structure is no less challenging, for it requires identification of 'objects' or 'structures' in the landscape which are likely to be related to animal behavior. Very little is known about what animals actually perceive or respond to. Ims (1985) concluded that we lack the empirical or theoretical basis to link structure to perception. However, the history of efforts to link animals to landscapes has accumulated sufficient evidence to form the basis of this probe into community-wide associations between animals and structure.

I briefly review the historical basis of theory for my attempts to quantify landscape structure. I then describe the methods for quantification of structure over the full range of spatial scales. I conclude by testing H1 through comparisons of patterns of lump structure and landscape space.

#### Lumped Scale Definitions of Community and Structure

A growing body of evidence associates characteristics of animal communities with spatially distributed features in the environment. Animal community attributes related to spatial structure include community assembly (Drake et al. 1983), population structure (Kilmer and Chesser 1983), evidence on predator-prey population dynamics (Holtzman 1988, but see De Roos, McCauley and Wilson 1993), population persistence in patchy environments (Silvert 1988, Landa 1987), metapopulation dynamics (Pulliam 1988) and persistence (Hanski 1983), species diversity related to horizontal heterogeneity at within-habitat scales (Wiens 1974, Roth 1976) and between-habitat scales (Whittaker 1965, Cody 1972). In the latter case MacArthur and MacArthur (1962) provided a major impetus by relating vertical stratification of habitat vegetation structure with avian community diversity.

Most studies linking animal community organization and landscape structure are based on limited definitions of the animal community and of the suite/range of spatial attributes to which animals may respond. Animal communities are often defined at smaller scales such as phylogenetic subdivisions (order) or guilds. For example, heterospatial rodent species diversity has been linked to increased habitat complexity associated with patchiness on temperate islands (Dusser and Brown 1982) and with vertical vegetation structure and horizontal soil texture in temperate forests (Roemerwig and Whittaker, 1989).

Similarly, in most studies of animal communities and landscapes, the scales defining landscape structure are usually confined to limited ranges—such as micro- (individual plant species or physiognomy) or meso- (patch sizes, edges, habitats). Habitat structure has even frequently been associated with animal exploitation at micro-scales (Table 4-2). For example, habitat structure and plant species composition have been tied to organization of avian communities at levels of plant abundance and composition (Cody 1982). Tropical bird community composition dynamically follows structural changes associated with plant succession (Lorenzi and Blake 1992). Relations between animal abundance and meso-scale horizontal structures such as edges and corridors have been studied for more than a half century (Leopold 1935, Gardner et al. 1991, Usher 1991).

In a few cases, animal community species diversity increases have been tied to macro-scale landscape complexity. Species diversity in mountainous regions exceeds that of flatlands (Simpson 1964, Cook 1969). This has been attributed to a greater number of isolated valleys or habitats due to the scale and degree of topographic variation allowing more species to be distributed allopatrically (Schuster and Ricklefs 1982).

Table 4-1 Micro-scale definitions of habitat structure associated with animal-structure interactions (after Bell et al., 1991)

Structure	Measurement	Source Studies
<b>Vertical</b>		
	Vegetation height	Cody and Walker (1974)
	Vegetation density at different heights	Cody and Walker (1974) Cody (1976)
	Vegetation presence/absence at different heights	Enkelin (1964)
	Vertical vegetation density	Whitmore (1962)
	Percent foliage cover at different tree/canopy and understory heights	Karr and Formanik (1982)
	Vertical canopy and herbaceous foliage density	Crocker and Stapanian (1976)
	Leaf depth	Wiese and Rottenberry (1981) Karr and Formanik (1982)
	Percentage cover sufficiently tall to obstruct vision	David et al. (1982)
<b>Horizontal</b>		
	Inter-plant distances	Yocco et al. (1976)
	Vegetation spatial variation	Wiese and Rottenberry (1981)
	Percent cover	Wiese and Rottenberry (1981) David et al. (1982)
	Plant density	Wiese et al. (1976) Karr and Formanik (1982) Wiese and Rottenberry (1981)
	Percent foliage cover at different tree/canopy and understory heights	Karr and Formanik (1982)
	Understory tree dispersion	Crocker and Stapanian (1976)
	Stem size and density	Crocker and Stapanian (1976)

The breadth of research of most such studies does not usually exceed one scale range (micro-, meso- or macro-) of landscape structure, overlooking any opportunity to examine animal interactions with landscape pattern across the range of scales found in an ecosystem or landscape.

#### **Landscape Structure Defined as All Scales in a Discontinuous World**

The number objects of potential interest to an animal is staggeringly large in a continuous world model. A bird might consider anything from a twig to a cliff edge if it searches at all scales a continuum of all architectures suitable for foraging. Hierarchical models of animal decision making and of landscape structure reduce the diversity of potential linkage of behavior-to-structure to a small number of subsets or hierarchical levels. These subsets can be distinguished by similarities or overlaps in the spatial and temporal scales of the animal behavior and the representative sizes of objects in the landscape (Holling 1992, Holling et al. 1996). For example, three sets of birds (songbirds, groundbirds, and hawks) are portrayed (Figure 4-2) to have three separate scale ranges to exploit. These scale ranges correspond to tree crowns, forest patches, and forest stands, respectively. Such a hierarchical model highlights hypotheses about the scale ranges of critical importance to survival, it does not preclude exploration or use of objects at other scale ranges.

Most tests of lump structure as an index of animal-landscape interactions have quantified lump structure but addressed landscape structure and animal behaviors only generally. The intriguing qualitative associations between lump and landscape structures discussed above (Holling 1992, Rotundo et al. 1997) offer some of the few scale-specific examples of behavior-structural links over a wide range of spatial scales. Holtzman's (1997)



association of specific body mass ranges of birds with specific scales of heterogeneity, patches is the lone example of a link between aspects of animal morphometrics and those of landscape structure.

While community-wide linkages between each animal species and the scale ranges of objects it responds to are beyond the scope of this study, reasonable estimates of the objects which potentially influence animal behavior can be made using Holling (1982). This assumption is valid at the macro-scale, where associations between animals and plant physiognomy are long recognized (Table 6-1). Micro-scale linkages between animals and landscape structure are conceivable based on observations of foraging flights of birds or mammals which move from patch to patch. Animal-landscape associations at the macro-scale are less easy to imagine, but are testable based on simple assumptions of what might be perceived. For example, I can count interfaces between major landscape types, such as coasts, large rivers, and mountain ranges, as macro-scale objects likely to influence a wide variety of animal behaviors. I now describe a landscape structure classification scheme based on objects broadly recognized to fit within these scale ranges.

### Landscape Structure Classification Methods

#### Overview

One broad purpose within this study is to compare a wide variety of landscapes based on differences in structural complexity. It is readily understandable why this study is unprecedented, because the dimensions of landscapes (28 hexes) compounded by the varieties of structural objects within each landscape constitute a vast scope of potential data needs. Such overwhelming data demands were evident early, exploratory studies, which must resist the temptation to increase the precision of quantification until it



has achieved a comprehensive but parsimonious overview which reliably identifies a small, workable set of key features to measure. The variety of possible measures is so great, that the greatest current danger is to narrow the scope of inquiry prematurely. This potentially wastes the investment on initial measures of some subset of objects and risks being trapped by a sense of false precision. In other words, increasing precision would require focusing on one spatial scale range, thereby missing the complexity inherent over a number of scale ranges in the entire landscape.

I tried to develop a structural complexity index which balances the study's broad scope with attainable goals for data collection and with analytic methods which are transparent but robust. This balancing required monitoring the comprehensiveness of data acquisition and the precision of object measurement for an achievable measure which reliably indexes the complexity of a hierarchical landscape. Therefore, I expressly avoided data which is costly in time or money to acquire, such as minute surveying. Instead I obtained landscape data which, when considered in total, are reasonable estimates of structural complexity over scale ranges which correspond to hierarchical models of animal behavior. And I designed the index such that it can be relatively rapidly quantified at low cost by reading the literature, discussing the area with people with on-site experience, or viewing pictures of the site. I now describe the methods for quantifying structure over three scale ranges.

#### **Structural quantification methods**

I obtained verbal and/or pictorial descriptions of landscape structure from literature and by direct interview of researchers or site managers with experience on-site. These descriptions were used to quantify landscape structural complexity over three arbitrary scale ranges (Table 4-2), which

roughly correspond to vegetation architecture (micro-scale), land cover patch structure (meso-scale), and geomorphology (macro-scale), respectively. The structural elements examined at each scale range reflect hypotheses concerning what architecture elements might explain given a scale-dependent conceptual goal and intent. This translates to the question: what vertical and horizontal structural elements might be important to animals at these qualitatively different time-space scales?

**Measurement of complexity:** Within each scale range the index quantifies structural complexity in two dimensions, vertical and horizontal. Vertical complexity is indexed in the first column, and two aspects of horizontal complexity are indexed in columns two and three, respectively. Values in the second column index Horizontal Density, and those in the third column index Horizontal Connectivity. The structural complexity index for each scale range is the sum of the values in each of the three columns. The structural complexity index for the entire study site is the sum of the values in the three scale ranges. I will now show by example how the means of quantification differ in each column.

**Vertical Complexity** in the first column I indexed Vertical Complexity in terms of the height of the dominant structural element within each scale range. This follows the assumption that opportunities to find and exploit structure increase with object height. For example, at the micro-scale the dominant structure is defined by plant physiognomy (grass, shrub and tree form). At the meso-scale the dominant structural element is the height of most common type of vegetation community (lowest, grassland, forest), and at the macro-scale the dominant form is defined by the degree of ruggedness of the landscape surface (flat, undulating, hilly, mountainous).

Table 4-2. Quantification scheme for three kinds of landscape structural complexity (Vertical Complexity, Horizontal Diversity, and Horizontal Connectivity) within three arbitrary ranges (micro-, meso- and macro-) of scale. Within each scale range Vertical Complexity is indexed by a single number associated with the dominant structural form. Horizontal Diversity is indexed by giving each type of form the same value and increasing all form types present. Horizontal Connectivity is indexed by both methods: a single number associated with the dominant form at the macro-scale, and by diversity indices at the meso- and micro-scales.

Vertical Complexity		Horizontal Diversity		Horizontal Connectivity		
<b>Micro-Scale Landscape Structure</b>						
Scale	Dominant Plant Physognomy	Scale	Quantity of Plant Physognomies	Scale	Degree of Connect. Index	
1	very dominant (100%)	1	1	1	< 10%	Matrix of agricultural land
2	dom. (> 10%)	1	2	2	< 20%	Grassland, shrub scrub
3	sub-d. (1-10%)	1	3	3	20-30%	Woodland, shrub scrubland
4	sub-d. (5-10%)	1	4	4	30-40%	Woodland open forest
5	sub-d. (5-10%)	1	5	5	> 40%	Forest, 1 canopy
6	sub-d. (5-10%)	1	6	6	> 40%	Forest, 2 canopies
7	sub-d. (5-10%)	1	7	7	> 40%	Forest, 3 canopies
<b>Meso-Scale Landscape Structure</b>						
Scale	Dominant Plant Type	Scale	Quantity of Plant Type Forms	Scale	Degree of Connect. Index	Plant Type
1	Shrub	1	1	1	adjacent	Forest/scrubland
2	Shrub	2	2	2	dy	Forest/scrub
3	Grassland	3	3	3	dy	Forest/scrub
4	Grassland	4	4	4	dy	Forest/scrub
5	Shrubland	5	5	5	dy	Forest/scrub
6	Forest	6	6	6	dy	Forest/scrub
<b>Macro-Scale Landscape Structure</b>						
Scale	Dominant Vertical Profile	Scale	Quantity of Vertical Profiles	Scale	Degree of Connect. Index	Plant Type
1	Flat (< 1 deg.)	1	1	1	adjacent	Forest
2	Undulating (< 10 deg.)	1	2	2	dy	Forest/scrubland
3	Rolling/lowland (< 100m, < 10 deg.)	1	3	3	dy	Woodland/scrubland
4	High Hills (< 1000m, < 10 deg.)	1	4	4	dy	Forest
5	Mountain (< 2000m, < 10 deg.)	1	5	5	dy	Mountain/scrub
6	Mountain (> 2000m, < 10 deg.)	1	6	6	dy	Lake/Forest

The value in the first column assigned at each scale is the number corresponding to the dominant structural element. Using the continental boreal forest as an example, the dominant elements at each scale are valued as follows: micro-scale (3 points for trees less than 20 meters tall), meso-scale (6 points for forest), and macro-scale (2 points for undulating terrain with average maximum difference in elevation less than 20 meters and slopes less than 3 percent grade).

**Horizontal Diversity** in the second column Horizontal Diversity is indexed based on the variety of vertical structural forms present. This follows the assumption that for some species opportunities to find and exploit structure increase as the diversity of object heights increases over space. Values were assigned by summing the number of vertical elements present on site. I assigned a Horizontal Diversity index value at micro-scales based on the number of plant physiognomies present. At meso-scales the Horizontal Diversity index value was based on patch diversity by summing the number of patch types resulting from a number of factors (slope, aspect, adaptive patterns, disturbance processes). Ambiguities about patch type diversity related to the number of soil stages present were constrained by the conservative assumption that only two stages existed unless more were explicitly defined in the literature. Examples of the manner in which these and other ambiguities were addressed in identifying patch diversity are illustrated for study sites at locations distant to each other in Table 4-3.

I assigned a Horizontal Diversity index value at macro-scales based on the diversity of terrain profiles such as flat, undulating, hilly, mountainous. Again, using the continental boreal forest as an example, horizontal diversity at each scale was indexed as follows: micro-scale (3 points for five different physiognomies: graminoids, forbs, shrubs, understory, and trees), meso-scale

(3 points for eight different patch types, see Table 1-3), and macro-scale (2 points for flat and undulating terrain)

**Horizontal Connectivity:** In the third column I indexed Horizontal Connectivity in terms of horizontal distance between key structural elements within each scale range. This follows from the assumption that for some species opportunities to find and exploit structure increase as closer proximity of similar structural types facilitates access to the landscape. This applies especially to species which tend to stay within rather than to cross between structural types. For example, some bird species are known to stay within patch types and move along the boundary rather than cross into another patch type (A. Kratter, pers. comm.).

I calculated a Horizontal Connectivity value in ways unique to each scale range. I calculated a Horizontal Connectivity index at micro-scales based on horizontal and vertical distances between plant structures. For example, I assigned the lowest value to bare substrate with no vegetation, medium values to short profile vegetation with some horizontal clumps, and the highest values to dense stands of tall vegetation with multiple canopy layers. At the meso-scale of patch structure, I calculated a Horizontal Connectivity index based on the diversity of patch types related to hydrology. This comes from the idea that connectivity increases with increasing wetness on the landscape because more and more patch types will be linked by water flow. I calculated meso-scale Horizontal Connectivity values by summing the number of patch types based on their degree of wetness.

At the macro-scale, I created an index of Horizontal Connectivity based on the diversity of landscape cover types related to hydrology which are evident when the landscape is defined with a very coarse grain (1 - 15 kilometers). This results from the idea that hydrology connects the landscape



by positing that the presence of a landscape type at such a coarse grain is evidence that relatively large portions of the landscape are linked by vegetative cover of one type, and that more opportunities exist for more species as the number of these macro-scale landscapes increases. I calculated a Horizontal Connectivity Index at macro-scales by summing for each site the number of land covers evident at a very coarse spatial grain.

Using the continental forest forest as an example, Horizontal Connectivity at each scale was defined as follows: macro-scale (4 points for the sparse tree density of the forest forest), meso-scale (4 points for four different patch types: moist, damp, wet and liquid), and macro-scale (1 point because only forest is evident at a very coarse spatial grain).

### Results. Landscape structure classified as II forests

I list LSCI values for most landscape study sites, complete with index values at each separate scale, in Appendix C. I ranked biomass in decreasing order of structural complexity as suggested by other landscape classification schemes (Pielou, Kappas, Bailey) as well as my own intuition and then graphed this complexity ordering against mean and standard error statistics for LSCI values (Figure 4-9). The LSCI estimates structural complexity in relatively similar fashion to other classification schemes as indicated by the relatively straight line progression from left to right in the graph. In addition, LSCI values suggest structural similarities which might not be immediately apparent. For example, the LSCI scores for forests across a wide latitudinal band (temperate, subtropical wet and moist) are quite similar. In like manner LSCI values clustered for scrublands, savannas, and woodlands.

### Methods for determining lump complexity

I quantified Lump Complexity (LC) as the number of lumps found for an animal body mass data set using lump analysis. I applied lump analysis to animal body mass data derived from in-situ measures or from global compendia (Pimm 1998, Silve and Downing 1998) to bird and mammal species lists from some 150 landscape sites in 24 biomes. For each site I sorted the body mass data in ascending order and analysed for lumps using Gelf Analysis (Chapter 2, Rattapo et al. 1997). I present summary lump number statistics for each biome sorted in ascending order of landscape complexity (Table 4-6).

### Lump Complexity Compared with Landscape Complexity

Landscape structural complexity appears to predict the complexity of lump structure, as indicated by lump number, though prediction power is higher in bird than in mammal data sets. I regressed Lump Complexity against each biome rank based on landscape structural complexity and found significant relationships for birds ( $r^2 = 0.427$ ) and mammals ( $r^2 = 0.44$ ) where the higher regressed value for birds indicates greater power to explain the variability in the data. I found similar results when I correlated Lump Complexity against LSC (Figure 4-8) and found significant relationships with similar differences in explanatory power for birds (Correlation coefficient = 0.703) and mammals (Correlation coefficient = 0.702).

### Animal Lump Structure and Landscape Structural Complexity

A number of sources of error potentially undermine the reliability of the Landscape Structural Complexity Index (LSCI). The LSCI was explicitly



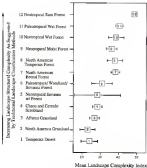


Figure 4-3 Mean and standard deviation values for landscape structural complexity indices calculated for twelve biomes.

Table 1-4. Mean and standard deviation statistics summarized at the biome level of lamp numbers found using Gelf analysis on landscape study site body mass data sets of birds and mammals.

No.	Thermal Zone	Biome Landscape Type	Lamp Number Statistics	
			Birds Mean/SD	Mammals Mean/SD
1	Tellipic/Arctic	Desert		55/04
2	Temperate/Arctic	Mediterranean		80/13
3	Temperate/Arctic	Short Grass Prairies	73/42	47/10
4	Temperate/Arctic	Tall and Mid Grass Prairies	74/31	28/18
5	Boreal	Forest	47/23	73/10
6	Boreal	Montane Forest and Tundra	40/42	48/27
7	Tropical	Savanna with Forest	107/13	
8	Temperate	North Eastern Deciduous Forest	110/14	71/18
9	Tropical	Lowland Dry Deciduous Forest	110/14	62/28
10	Tropical	Swampland	113/21	61/11
11	Tropical	Woodland/Montane Forest		98/18
12	Pala/Tropical	Chaco/lands		103/14
13	Tropical	Savanna with Forest		113/17
14	Temperate	South Eastern Coastal & Decid Forest	120/24	43/13
15	Temperate	North Western Coastal & Decid Forest	120/24	
16	Tropical	Wet Forest		44/11
17	Tropical	Moist Forest		55/27
18	Tropical	Moffine RainForest	128/18	70/24
19	Tropical	Lowland Wet Forest	133/28	
20	Neotropical	Lowland Rainforest 1	138/34	44/27
21	Neotropical	Lowland Rainforest 2	113/38	70/28
22	Neotropical	Lowland Rainforest 3		58/18
23	Pala/Tropical	Asian RainForest		100/42
24	Pala/Tropical	African RainForest		103/34

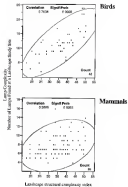


Figure 4-6. Number of lumps found at a study site correlated on landscape structural complexity indices for bird and mammal body mass data sets in ecosystems found at 20 lumps on 9 continents [95 percent confidence limits encoded by gray line]

designed for quick estimates of landscape structure in the absence of remote imagery or direct field observation. Therefore, it explicitly ignores data of those micro-scale structural elements which are costly to acquire, such as size distributions, interval distances and degree of connectivity associated with patches. In addition to the information knowingly excluded, there is a potentially large data pool which is still unappreciated concerning exactly what landscape structures are meaningful to animals. This uncertainty could lead to errors of omission and commission in the indexing of landscape structure. Between the known and unknown sources of error in determining the LSCI, it is not only to assume that it is a reliable index of landscape structure. It is novel in the attempt to estimate structural values at three scales, but little empirical evidence confirms the importance to animals of the structures quantified. However, in the face of so many sources of error, the degree of correlation between natural and bird lamp structure and values of landscape structural complexity (LSCI) is high enough to constitute modest support for the Trophic-Discontinuity hypothesis (TH).

So many uncertainties exist in quantifying landscape structural complexity, that the LSCI's greatest contribution may be as a heuristic which identifies scale ranges as particular objects for further testing. Even as a heuristic, however, the possibility exists that structure quantified at certain scales may correlate best with lamp structure and thereby dominate determinations of landscape structure. I tested that possibility through multiple regression of number of body mass lamps found at a study site on the structural complexity values (independent variables) for macro, meso- and micro-scales.

I found different results for natural and bird data sets. For birds, the overall correspondence between landscape complexity (LSCI) and Lamp

Complexity is far higher than for mammals, and it appears that correlation exists primarily at smaller scales of landscape structural complexity. Micro- and meso-scale structural values are significant predictors (probability =  $P = 0.0004$  and  $0.0026$ , respectively) of avian Lump-Complexity while macro-scale structural indices were not significant predictors. For mammals, no independent variable at any scale is a significant predictor of Lump Complexity, while the overall LSCI is a significant predictor even though the explained variance is very low.

While both Lump Complexity values for birds and for mammals correlate well with landscape structural values (LSCI), the degree of correspondence is far higher for birds. Ecological and/or methodological issues may be involved. Several observations pertain both to the lump and landscape analysis methodologies. First, the number of observations differs greatly between birds and mammals. Increasing the number of bird observation sites might introduce as much variability as observed in the mammal occupancy sites. Second, with no basis to rank different structural types in the landscape with respect to their importance to animal decisions, equal weighting was given to all types of structure. Increased understanding of animal-structure interactions may eventually allow not only ranking and weighting the values for different structural types but inclusion of types previously unappreciated. For example, meso-scale features such as patch size, inter-patch distances, and connectivity are very costly measures to determine for any site and were expressly avoided in the index. Addition of such features to the index might increase correlation values between lump number and landscape indices. Finally, as with Paternoster analysis, these results may be sensitive to the lump analysis methodology.

The differences between birds and mammals in correspondence between landscape and lump complexity values may relate to how the different taxa perceive and respond to landscape structure. Perhaps birds encounter, see and exploit more of the structural complexity in a landscape than mammals. Holling(1992) posits that the birds exploit volumes (3 dimensions) while mammals exploit lines (1 dimension). These different geometries of exploitation might result from differences in perception and/or because their locomotory mode affords access to the landscape over a wider variety of scale ranges than mammals. Exploitation of more facets in the landscape might result in more potential niches for birds and cause the bird community lump structure to aggregate into more lumps than the mammals. For example, nesting birds potentially interact across 5 scales of the north Florida landscape and, hence range habitat, patch and food (Stalling 1984). Mammals may face multiple (spatio-temporal) scales in their behavioral decisions, but mostly those mammals at the larger end of the size axis. For example it is difficult to imagine a shrew interacting with landscape structure as large as a tree stand, let alone a forest. However, birds as small as hummingbirds potentially address as wide or wider a range of scales in their annual migrations as do the largest nesting birds.

#### **Summary of Landscape Complexity Index Results**

LICI values address structure at all spatial scales and suggest structural complexity rankings quite similar to those implicit in traditional landscape descriptions. The does not contain the capacity to measure structure, but it provides evidence consistent that LICI indices conform with recognized definitions of landscape complexity. Significant correlations between LICI values and Lump Complexity values for birds and mammals over a very wide variety of biomes give broad support to Hill's predictions of

correspondence between patterns of animal morphology and landscape structure.

The ability to rank systems based on landscape complexity allows me to broaden my tests of the generality of the Turchin-Dixonianity hypothesis into more inter-systemic lump pattern comparisons. I now describe the theoretical basis and methods for comparing the lump patterns of different systems in the context of this study's progression of tests of H6.

### Lump Pattern Matching Between Systems at Scales Larger Than Landscapes

Previous tests (Holling 1982, Rotundo 1985) of the Turchin-Dixonianity hypothesis (H4) used a new method of quantifying animal size distributions (lumps) to establish quantitative links between animal morphology and landscape structure. In this study I created a series of tests to probe H6 from different angles, isolating the degree to which I challenge H6's predictions about lump structure with each subsequent test. One basis for probing more deeply was to increase the precision of quantifying lump and landscape variables. The next probe of H6 involves a sophisticated methodology which is best understood in the context of the entire series of tests of H6. I first review this test series using a table (3-4) and a graph (3-5) to summarize the entire progression of questions and methods.

### Review of Lump Pattern Matching Tests of H6

I designed a series of tests of H6 (Table 3-5) to address questions which are increasingly exacting in their probes of H6's predictions. These questions start with general predictions of lump pattern within a system (boreal or super-boreal) and then focus on more specific predictions related to lump pattern matches between different systems. I matched the increasing

Table 4-5. Questions and related definitions of loop and landscape structure used to probe the predictions of the Textural-Connectivity Hypothesis.

Chapter Link	Definitions of			
	Loop Structure		Landscape Structure	
Question	Condition	Definition	Condition	Definition
<b>Chapter 1</b> <b>Matrix, a Jostet</b>	Qualitative	Loop Follow Connectivity	Qualitative	Matrix and Super-Matrix
1. Are loop patterns similar in landscapes of similar structure?				
	Quantitative	Loop Frequency	Quantitative	Matrix and Super-Matrix
<b>Chapter 2</b> <b>Matrix, a Jostet</b>	Qualitative	Loop Connectivity Index	Qualitative	Matrix and Super-Matrix
2. Is loop pattern connectivity the result of matrix structure?				
	Quantitative	Structural Matrix Connectivity	Quantitative	Matrix and Super-Matrix
<b>Chapter 3</b> <b>Between Systems</b>	Quantitative	Loop Complexity or The number of loops found from structural connectivity	Quantitative	Landscape Structural Complexity Index
3. Is the degree of loop pattern complexity related to the complexity of landscape structure?				
<b>Chapter 3</b> <b>Between Systems</b>	Qualitative	Graph Overlay of Loop Frequency Index	Quantitative	Landscape Structural Complexity Index
4. Is the degree of loop pattern including between systems related to differences in landscape structure?				
	Quantitative	Mean Loop Frequency Index	Quantitative	Landscape Structural Complexity Index



quality of these predictions by progressively adapting the means of indexing lump and landscape structure.

In Chapter 3 I began by testing Hill's prediction (Question 1) that similarly structured landscapes are associated with animal communities with similar patterns of lump structure. I did not quantify landscape structure but left it as a qualitative designation, grouping animal data sets by biome classification, and I focused on one aspect of lump pattern complexity—'connectivity' or the degree to which lumps and gaps of different ecosystem lump structures align on the same axis. I illustrate the different questions and their tests by comparing their use on two systems of ecosystem lump structure (Figure 4-8), the Temperate Desert and Tallgrass Prairie biomes. The Temperate Desert biome has a higher degree of Lump Pattern Connectivity (LPC) than the Tallgrass Prairie, as is evident by the higher frequency of overlap between lumps and gaps between the lump structures of the ecosystems in each biome (Figure 4-9a and b).

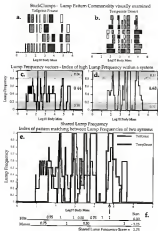
Visual confirmation of (LPC) using StackChange representations of biomes sets the stage for Question 2, to what extent does LPC result from random events as opposed to landscape structural similarities? Connectivity does appear to result from random events when I index LPC only in terms of gaps shared between ecosystem lump structures using the Gap-Connectivity Index (GCI). I visually determined the number of gaps shared by all ecosystems in a biome, and then repeating the measure for random groupings of actual ecosystem lump structures. The results supported Hill because GCI indices were several times larger for actual than random biomes.

I found the same differences in Lump Pattern Connectivity patterns between actual and random biomes when I quantify LPC more rigorously in terms of both gaps and lumps by collapsing the shared pattern of LPC into a

vector: **Lump Frequency (LF)**. The LF vector is a list of numbers, each number corresponds to a very small interval of the size axis and indicates the frequency of ecosystems in the biome which add a lump over that interval. I illustrate this by graphing Lump Frequency vectors for Tallgrass Prairie and Temperate Desert biomes (Figures 4-3c and d), peaks in these vectors are associated with zones of frequent lump overlap, and valleys are associated with zones of frequent gap overlap in the StackClumps representations above (Figure 4-3a and b). The higher LFC of the Temperate Desert biome is visually evident both in StackClumps and in the greater number of tall peaks and deep valleys found in the Lump Frequency vector representation (Figure 4-3c and d).

To better distinguish between the Lump Frequency (LF) vectors of actual and random biome lump structures I created a derivative index called **Prevalent Pattern Commonality (PPC)**. This filters out the noise of moderate values in LF vectors and indexes only those lumps and gaps shared by a super-majority (80 percent) of all ecosystems in a biome. The PPC index represents the proportion of the size axis of a large scale system (biome or super-biome) occupied by significantly high frequencies of common lumps and gaps (see gray axes in Figures 4-3 c and d). For example, 68 percent of the size axis of the Tallgrass prairie biome shows majority frequencies of lumps and 38 percent of the size axis has majority frequencies of gaps, so the PPC is total = 44 percent (Figure 4-3c). The higher lump pattern commonality of the Temperate Desert biome is indicated by a PPC of 63 percent (Figure 4-3d). PPC values of actual biomes were significantly higher than those found in biomes with randomized equivalent lump structures.

Figure 10: Loop pattern commonality in two beam assemblies of varied diameter loop structures as measured visually in stacked formation (a & b), as represented numerically by Loop Frequency vectors (c & d), and as summarized by an Index of Preserved Pattern Commonality (bold decimal fractions in e & f), which measures the portion of the size axis occupied by extremely high and low Loop Frequency vector values. The degree of loop pattern shared between the two beams is shown visually as the overlap of two Loop Frequency vectors (g), and the degree-of-overlap is scored (E) as the Index of Shared Loop Frequency.



All the visual and numerical tests of Chapter 3 demonstrated significantly high degrees of Lump Pattern Commonality (LPC) within large scale systems of similar landscape structures. While it is unlikely that LPC resulted from random events, these tests did not rule out the possibility that other processes besides those which determine landscape structure contribute to LPC. If certain evolutionary, trophic or morphological processes create lump patterns common to all systems, then any subgroup related to landscape structure, such as a lineage, would also show commonality. Therefore, the results of Chapter 3 broadly support the Tansian-Discontinuity hypothesis, but they do not necessarily undermine non-landscape hypotheses (H1 - H5). This ambiguity leaves the next challenge to more rigorously distinguish between the relative powers of these hypotheses to predict lump body patterns.

For this chapter I pose two questions (3 and 4 in Table 4-5) which explicitly test H1's predictions and severely challenge all non-landscape hypotheses at the same time. These questions address the ambiguity about causes of lump pattern similarities within systems by pumping up its spatial scale and examining which hypothesis best predicts similarities of lump pattern complexity and correspondence between systems.

These questions are the most demanding tests so far of any hypothesis (H1 - H5) because they challenge a hypothesis to predict the correspondence between rates of change as patterns matching between lump structures as the difference in landscape structure increases over a range of very different landscape structures, climates, and taxonomic compositions. As I compare pairs of lump structures across all these systems, if the degree to which landscape structure differs corresponds to the degree to which lump

structures coincide, then H5 gains strong support at the expense of H4 through H3.

### Comparing aspects of loop and landscape patterns

Comparisons between systems (boreal or super-boreal) requires their classification and ranking in terms of loop structure and landscape structure. This increases the rigor of these tests because it does not hold either landscape or loop variables constant, it allows both to vary independently. I developed the LCI to rank systems independently based on complexity of landscape structure. I now describe how I used the LCI and two new metrics for loop structure to address Questions 3 and 4.

Question 3 is a probe of trends in landscape and loop patterns where the complexity of each type of pattern is summarized as an index. I quantified the complexity of loop structure as Loop Complexity (LC), the number of loops found in an animal body mass data set, and demonstrated significant correlations between LC and the LCI for mammals and birds. These tests support H5 and challenge non-landscape hypotheses (H1 - H3) because it is very hard to imagine how any non-landscape process affects indices of landscape structure and thereby contributes to such high correlations.

Question 4 isolates the danger for H5 by testing the prediction that the rate of loop pattern matching between systems correlates with the degree of structural or architectural similarity. In this chapter I use the LCI to determine the degree of structural similarity between landscapes, and I will use Loop Frequency vectors to demonstrate loop pattern matching both visually and numerically. I describe both techniques now.

I illustrate matching between the loop patterns of the Tullgarn Prairie and the Temperate Desert biomes using Loop Frequency vectors as Figure 4-5a. A fair degree of correspondence between loop patterns is visually

evident because most of the LP vector peaks (high frequency of bumps) and valleys (low frequency of bumps indicating gaps) coincide. Lack of perfect correspondence is evident where peaks in Tallgrass Prairie LP coincide with valleys in Temperate Desert LP at 1.0 - 1.4, 2.4, and 3.7 log<sub>10</sub> body mass.

I developed Shared Lump Frequency (SLF) as an index of pattern matching which I find when I overlap two LP systems. The SLF is designed to index pattern matches ranging from complete loss to complete masses and account for fractional hits and misses in between. I did not inspect patterns along the size axis at fixed intervals but employed a variable grid which flexibly corresponded to the size of prominent peaks and valleys. The basis for scoring a hit or miss is the relative difference in LP vector values as listed in Table 4-4. Complete hits or misses are determined where either prominent peaks or valleys coincide on the size axis, and I score that numerically when both LP vector values are above 0.7 or below 0.3, respectively. Fractional hits or misses result when one or both vectors exhibit matching rather than prominent status, so when one or both LP vector values fall in between 0.7 and 0.3. For example, I score a "half hit" when two medium size peaks overlap, i.e. both LP vector values are between 0.3 and 0.7. I score a "three

Table 4-4. System for scoring the degree of pattern matching between values (x) or Lump Frequency vectors of two systems (boreal or super-boreal). Total masses are determined from total hits to derive a Shared Lump Frequency Index (SLF).

System 1	System 2	Hit	Miss
$x > 0.7$	$y > 0.7$	1	
$x > 0.7$	$0.3 < y < 0.7$	0.5	
$0.3 < x < 0.7$	$0.3 < y < 0.7$	1.5	
$0.3 < x < 0.7$	$x < 0.3$		1.5
$0.3 < x < 0.7$	$x < 0.3$		0.5
$x < 0.3$	$x < 0.3$		1

quarter level (Figure 4-3 c) when a medium size peak and a gap overlap, or one LF vector value is between 0.5 and 0.7 (peak) and the other is below 0.2 (gap).

### **Index Name: Lump.Pattern.Complexity**

The Tangled-Discontinuity hypothesis (TD) predicts that the degree of pattern matching between lump structures of two different systems will decline as the contrast in landscape structural complexity increases. I first test TD by graphically demonstrating trends in pattern matching between lump patterns of different biomes (i.e. different levels of landscape structural complexity). Then I describe a method for measuring pattern matching between biome Lump-Frequency vectors. I apply this method to pattern matches between the Lump-Frequency vectors of some 15 biomes representing a range of landscape structural complexity values.

### **Graphical Illustrations: Lump-Frequency comparisons**

I use three natural biome Lump-Frequency patterns as templates to contrast with Lump-Frequency patterns of other natural biomes from a variety of landscapes (Figure 4-4 through 4-6). In each figure the difference in landscape structure between the template and the contrasting biome increases with each graph from top to bottom. For example, the template biome lump pattern in Figure 4-4 is boreal forest, and the contrast increases from northern temperate forest (Figure 4-4a) to tropical wet forest (Figure 4-4d).

In each figure the downward progression (a through d) of graphs exhibits a decline in the degree of pattern matching between template and contrasting biome lump patterns. For example, lump patterns of northern biomes from two different areas of the Neotropics have a high degree of



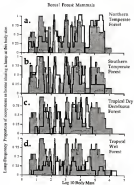
overlap (Figure 4-3c), with some pattern mismatch around 5.8  $\log_{10}$  body mass. By contrast, Woodland-Savanna biome lump patterns show 6 areas of mismatch with those of neotropical rainforest (Figure 4-5c) at 3.5, 4.2, 4A, 5.0, 5.5-5.8 and 6.3  $\log_{10}$  body mass. Similarly, temperate deciduous grassy biome lump patterns show much more matching with those of African grasslands (Figure 4-4b) than those of tropical wet forest (Figure 4-4d).

The declining degree of lump pattern matching shown in the descending progression of graphs in each figure appears to visually correspond to the increase in landscape structural difference. The correspondence of the area of pattern matching and structural differentiation can be more carefully measured numerically. I now quantitatively test differences in lump patterns using the Lump Frequency vector patterns of seven 31 biomes to score Shared Lump Frequency indices.

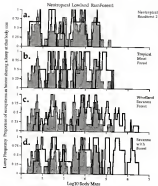
#### **NUMERIC INTER-BIOME LUMP PATTERN CORRELATIONS**

I superimposed pairs of graphs of biome Lump Frequency vectors and visually measured the degree of pattern matching so as to score a Shared Lump Frequency (SLF) index using the scoring system listed in Table 4-6. To standardize my scores I repeated the scoring process until two repeats produced virtually the same score. Some lump patterns gave had such clear similarities and/or differences that only two repetitions were necessary, whereas some required up to five repetitions.

I used SLF index to test the Terborgh-Donohue's hypothesis prediction in two ways, graphically and statistically. I separated the mammal biomes into two groups, listed in the Legend of Figure 4-3, based on the number of study sites at each biome. Study site numbers ranged from 3 to 4, and 5 to 8 respectively. I did this to avoid pattern matching anomalies arising from differences in Lump Frequency values caused by the number of



**Figure 4b.** Correspondence between mammal jump structure patterns (Jump Frequency varied) retained for all ecosystems in a biome. Boreal forest mammal jump pattern is a gray background template against which black Jump Frequency vector patterns of other biomes are overlaid.



**Figure 4-7** Correspondence between maximal lump structure patterns (Lump Frequency) measured for all acceptances as a function of  $\text{Log}_{10}$  Body Mass across four biomes: neotropical lowland rainforest; maximal lump pattern is a grey background template against which black Lump Frequency vertex patterns of four other biomes: a) Neotropical lowland rainforest, b) tropical moist forest, c) woodland/savanna forest, d) savanna with forest, are contrasted.

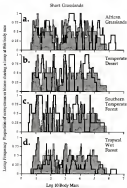


Figure 4-4 Correspondence between natural lump-structure patterns (Lump Frequency vectors) summed for all ecosystems in a biome. Shaded areas represent minimal lump patterns in a gray background; complete vectors which black. Lump Frequency vector patterns of other biomes are contained.

ecosystems in a home group. As already discussed (Chapter 3), I either found no significant trend or weak but significant trends relating the number of study sites in a home to indices of pattern commonality (Jaccard Commonality Index, Fragment Pattern Commonality Index). There is a small potential that even such weak trends might artificially depress pattern matching values between homes with very disparate values for number of study sites. Homes with low numbers of study sites might have higher Lump-Frequency values associated with peaks because commonality might be easier to achieve between smaller number of sites. Therefore, even in cases of peak alignment between homes, when I measure Shared Lump Frequency the chances are more likely for isolated hits rather than full hits.

Within each stratum of homes I ranked homes by landscape structural complexity (using mean LSCI values) and scored them from high to low values along the edges of a matrix. I then measured the degree of lump pattern matching between homes as Shared Lump Frequency (SLF) indices for all pair combinations of homes within each stratum's matrix. I graphed trends between landscape structural complexity and SLF values within each matrix (Figure 4-9a & b) with the self-matched values forming the diagonal. I found SLF index values ranging between -4 (poor fit) to 7 (best fit) and arbitrarily assigned the number 1 for all 'self-matches', pattern matches of a home's Lump Frequency vector on itself. Based on visual experience with graphic comparisons, I arbitrarily designate SLF index value ranges into classes of pattern matching as follows: excellent (> 6), very good (5 to 6), good (3 to 5), fair (1 to 3), poor (-1 to 1), very poor (-2 to -1), and variable (< -2). I applied these classes of pattern matching when I identified zones of similar degrees of lump pattern matching in the strata by interpolating the SLF values to generate contour lines.

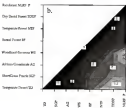
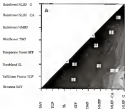
Pattern matching results in both matrices (Figure 4-5 a and b) support the Townsend-Dewdney hypothesis' (8b) prediction. It shows that the degree of lump pattern matching should decline as the degree of structural difference increases between biomes. For both matrices lump pattern matches are in the very good class only when the biomes matched do not differ in ranking of landscape structural complexity by more than 3, and usually 2 or less. That is to say that on average I found few to poor lump pattern matches when comparing biomes with differences in rank of landscape structural complexity greater than three. For example, SLP values remained good or better when comparing savanna with tallgrass prairie and scrublands and then declined to the fair range and none when comparisons extended to forests (Figure 4-5a).

The Townsend-Dewdney hypothesis' (8a) prediction is more exactly realized when one looks at the contour pattern of Shaded Lump Frequency values in each matrix. Ideally, no contour would exist if landscape structure is unrelated to lump structure. That is to say, if the ranking of biomes by structural complexity on the side of the matrix was irrelevant to the degree of pattern matching between each pair of biomes, then no series of similar lump pattern matching values could be found. There would simply be a random mixture of isolated islands of lump pattern matching values. The contours of lump pattern matching values are not isolated or small and show a striking regularity with which they cross the entire matrix in parallel and cross, in the aggregate, a fairly consistent downward slope from the diagonal of perfect matches to the lower right hand corner of 'noen matches'. This indicates a more subtle degree of linking between lump and landscape

Legend for Figure 4-4

No.	Symbol	No. Sites	Biome
<b>Matrix A</b>			
1	MLSP - C	4	Neotropical Lowland Broadleaf - Coastal Scrubland
2	MLSP - CA	3	Neotropical Lowland Broadleaf - Central America
3	MLSP	4	Neotropical Miobrain Broadleaf
4	TRP	4	Tropical Wet Forest
5	STP	4	Southwest North American Temperate Broad
6	SL	4	Woodland
7	SLP	4	North American Tallgrass Prairie
8	SAV	5	Savanna
<b>Matrix B</b>			
9	MLSP - F	3	Neotropical Lowland Broadleaf - Rare
10	TRDP	3	Tropical Dry Deciduous Forest
11	MTB	2	Wooded North American Temperate Forest
12	BT	2	North American Broad Forest
13	NS	4	Woodland - Grasses
14	SL	3	South American Grasslands
15	SLP	3	North American Grassland Forest
16	TD	4	North American Temperate Broad

**Figure 4-5** Matrix of values indexing the degree of jump pattern matching between measured body mass jump patterns of pairs of biomes. The jump pattern of each biome is a vector of Jump Frequency values which signify the proportion of all landscape study sites in the biome which exhibit a jump at that body mass. Each matrix is constructed by interpolation between pattern matching values, which range from 1 (arbitrary designation of perfect match) to 5 (the lowest value observed). Matrix a represents pattern matches between biomes with 3 to 4 landscape study sites, and Matrix b represents biomes with 3 to 4 landscape study sites.





structure. The downward trend is not simply the product of driver agreement or disagreement at the extremes, it shows a fairly regular progression through the intermediate differences of landscape structure. However, each matrix may exhibit some irregularities in the downward slope, particularly when pattern matching values are below zero. For example, two anomalous depressions split the slope in the lower right hand corner of Figure 4-9b.

#### Statistical test of inter-home jump pattern matches and jump structure

The association in trends in Figure 4-9 suggest some variance in relation between landscape structure and jump pattern matching. I examined this variance statistically by calculating a Landscape Structure Difference Index (LSDI) - the absolute difference in landscape structure complexity (LSC) values between each pair of homes, and correlating the LSDI with the Index of Jump Pattern Matching - the IJPM.

This correlation (Figure 4-10) proved highly significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ) with a fair amount of the variance explained by a linear model ( $r^2 = 0.400$ ). This is a relatively low amount of variance given the considerable potential for error to influence the assembly and analysis of animal body mass and landscape structure data sets. The robust association between jump pattern matching and contrasts in landscape structure is firm support for the Treadwell-Discontinuity hypothesis at the scale of homes.

#### Jump Pattern Comparisons between Super-Homes

The relatively robust correspondences I found between inter-home jump pattern matching and landscape structural differences do not indicate that processes linking animals to landscapes operate primarily at the home level. These results build on the results of previous chapters by extending

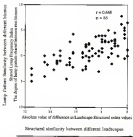


Figure 4-13 Correlation of values of lamp pattern shared between houses on differences in landscape structural values for pairs of houses. Landscape structural differences are derived by taking the absolute value of the difference between the values of landscape structural complexity (LSC) for two landscape types each of which is typical for each house as a whole. The degree of structural similarity increases as these difference values decline.

that linkage from the ecosystem or landscape level to the home level, but they do not eliminate other levels.

It is possible that such linking processes operate at multiple ranges of scale and the clearest signal of correspondence may be most evident at one

scale. Such results would identify the importance of that scale at the same time that they help to deepen understanding as to the relative importance of various scale ranges in linking animals to landscapes.

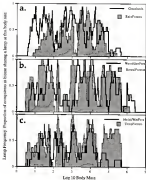
To broaden the knowledge of scales at which animal-landscape links have been tested, I now examine lump pattern matching and landscape structure at the super-biome level. I aggregate landscape data sets of one biome type (which are based on different continents, South America and Africa, for example, into 'super-biomes' data. I test H6a predictions exactly as I did for biomes by first graphically examining matches of super-biome lump patterns across a range of landscape structural complexity values and then testing the matches quantitatively.

#### Graphic comparisons of super-biome lump patterns

I further test H6a by contrasting patterns of Lump Frequency vectors of super-biomes of dissimilar landscape structure (Figure 4-10) and those of similar structure (Figure 4-11). As H6a predicts, the degree of pattern overlap is much higher in the latter than in the former. For example, the peaks and valleys of grassland and woodland/savanna super-biome Lump Frequency patterns overlap over most of the size range except around 3.0 and 3.8 log<sub>10</sub> body mass (Figure 4-10c). By contrast, a majority of prominent lump patterns between do not overlap when contrasting Lump Frequency values of rangelands vs. grasslands or forest biomes vs. woodland/savanna (Figures 4-11a and b).

#### Numerical lump pattern comparisons between super-biomes

Following the same procedure I used for biomes, I constructed a matrix with super-biomes listed on each side in order of landscape structural complexity, from simple grasslands to 'very complex' rangelands. I then measured values of lump pattern matching (Binned Lump Frequency or BLF)



**Figure 4-11.** Correspondence between maximal jump-structure patterns (Jump Frequency vertices) summed for all ecosystems in a super-biome. The super-biome patterns matched six grasslands vs. rainforests (a), woodland savanna forests vs. forest forest (b), and woodland savanna vs. steppe (c).

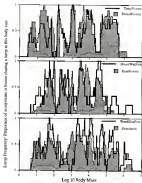


Figure 4-12. Correspondence between animal jump structure patterns (Jump Frequency verticals) patterned for all ecosystems in a super-forest. The super-forest patterns matched are temperate forests vs. boreal forests (a), moist/wet forests vs. rainforests (b) and woodland savanna forests vs. grasslands (c).

by super-imposing pairs of graphs of super-biome Landscape Frequency vectors and used the scoring system listed in Table 4-6. I found SLP index values ranging between -4 (poor fit) to 4 (best fit) and arbitrarily assigned the number 7 for all self-matches.

I graphed a map of the matrix of super-biome pattern matches which highlighted the SLP values so as to identify areas or contours of similar pattern matching value (Figure 4-13). I found results quite similar to those for biomes in terms of range of SLP values and the general slope and contour of SLP values. In the former case, 'good' or 'better' pattern matches (SLP index values > 2) occurred between pairs of super-biomes with structural rankings differing by 2 at most— for example, the Grasslands landscape pattern fit very well with that of Woodland-Savanna, but the fit declined to fair when compared with Forest Forests (Figure 4-13). The usual linking the degree of landscape pattern matching to the difference in structural complexity appears slightly more distinct at the super-biome level than at the biome level. For the matrix graph as a whole the slope of SLP values appears slightly smoother than those found for biome matrices (Figure 4-9a and b), with fewer anomalous zones, especially when compared with biomes with large numbers of landscape study sites (Figure 4-9c).

I statistically confirmed the tightness of the trend linking indices of landscape pattern matching and the degree of structural difference in landscapes between pairs of super-biomes. I correlated (Figure 4-14) Landscape Structure Difference Index (LSDI) values with the index of landscape matching, the SLP, and found this correlation highly significant ( $p < 0.0002$ ) with a considerable amount of the variance explained by a linear model ( $r^2 = 0.671$ ).

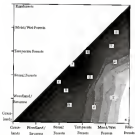


Figure 6-15 Time-contoured map of a matrix of values indicating the degree of matching (Shared Lump Frequency index) between lump patterns of pairs of super-forests. The matrix is obtained by interpolation of pattern matching values.

#### Summary of Lump Pattern Matching Between Different Large Scale Systems

The Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis gains broad and general support from these demonstrations of robust links between lump pattern matching and landscape structural complexity of biomes and super-forest scales. Both graphical and numerical tests show a relatively tight fit between the rate of decay in lump pattern matching and rates of increase in the difference in structural complexity between landscapes. The link between landscapes and lump patterns suggested by within-system pattern redundancy (Chapter 8) is



Figure 6-18 Correlation of values of lump pattern shared between super-islands (Shared Lump Frequency Index) on differences in landscape structural values for pairs of islands. Landscape structural differences are derived by taking the absolute value of the difference between the indices of landscape structural complexity (LSC) for two landscape types typical of the super-island as a whole. The degree of structural similarity increases as these difference values decline.

robustly confirmed by this higher-level, between-system, trend. I now enlarge **H1** further by testing its prediction that lump pattern predicts trends in landscape exploitation by animals.



### Lump Structure as a Predictor of Landscape Structure Use

The Textural Discontinuity hypothesis (TDH) posits that patterns of lump structure correspond to patterns of exploitation of landscape structure by animals. Most studies have linked animal behavior to structure using one example of micro-scale architecture, such as foliage height (see Table 4-1). Holling (1951) made qualitative associations between avian lump structure and micro-scale (foliage density, tree shape) and meso-scale (patch size) landscape features. Stadelman's (1967) association of bird body mass with forest-cropped patch size remains the sole study linking animal lump structure with landscape structure across a range of scales. Lump structure is an intriguing explanatory tool to examine animal morphometry which defines animal size distributions at only one grain resolution: lumps. These previous studies utilized one taxon (birds) and one grain size (lumps) to make animal community morphometry. This raises the question as to whether the Textural-Discontinuity's prediction is general enough to apply to other tax besides birds when using more than one grain resolution to define animal morphometry.

I addressed this question by testing the TDH's prediction using a birds as well as another taxon, mammals, at several resolutions of lump and landscape structure (Table 4-7). I tested three levels of spatial extent: inter-landscape, intra-landscape and inter-beam. I used two levels of grain resolution to describe lump structure: the individual lump for inter-landscape extent and clouds of lumps for inter-beam extent. I described the use of landscape structure at a coarse, general meso-scale level (patches) and at

multiple scales (adjuncts ranging from meta-scale vegetation to meta-scale patch or forest stand)

**Table 4.7** Grain and extent resolutions for three tests of correspondence between patterns of lump structure and of landscape structure use

Test	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3
Grain resolution used to define body mass size distribution	Individual species body masses and lumps	Lump	Lump Cloud
Landscape (spatial extent)	Between Landscapes	Between Landscapes	Between Super- Ecosystems
Landscape Structure Use (grain resolution)	Coarse (meta-scale patch structure)	Multi-scale (fine to very coarse)	

### Sources of Data for Animal Use of Landscape Structure

I took descriptions of habitat and landscape use by nonrodent mammals from global compends (Norris 1991, Macdonald 1990) and regional sources (Emmons 1995, Barfield 1976, Colby 1946). Animal habitat use descriptions were taken from publications describing regional faunal assemblages: Canada (Colby 1946) and North America (Bilaluk 1980).

### Test 1: Lump Structure and Coarse Landscape Use (Habitat Specialists)

I tested the Tangled Diversity hypothesis (TD) at a meta-scale spatial resolution (extent) of landscape structure using eight mean lump structures derived from North American bird body mass data sets compiled at the landscape level from four different biomes. These included boreal shrubgrass prairie (Alberta), temperate midgrass prairie (Iowa/Illinois), temperate deciduous forest (Flora: Ariz., Yellowstone and Baco), boreal forest (Togo

Biological Station, Green River) and temperate tallgrass prairie (Kansas). The categories of habitat use I examined were: generalist, deciduous forest, deciduous forest, thicket, marsh and grassland.

I compared patterns of lump structure with patterns of habitat use. I examined patterns of avian habitat use by species to see if they clustered in relation to species' body mass or in relation to membership in a lump. I found that no single habitat use category was found exclusively in any lump or group of lumps or constituted a significant majority in any lump. With few exceptions every habitat usage category is present in almost every lump. This pattern is most pronounced with birds categorized as 'generalist', a group which has the largest proportional representation in most lumps. Birds whose habitat usage is mostly in deciduous forest also has broad representation in all lumps.

Varied by degree of representation some categories show slight tendencies to cluster over certain size ranges of lumps. Some vague trends suggest that species which utilize thickets have their greatest representation in lumps of smaller species, while 'water specialists' seem to most represented among lumps of larger sized species. These trends give modest but general support for the prediction by IB that body size correlates with the fineness of the texture of landscape structure. But the predominant trend is representation of all habitat categories across all lumps, a pattern readily explained by the fact that the size distributions of these categories in boreal prairie and temperate forest biomes do not cluster but are spread over most of the avian size range (Figure 4-15).

#### **Methods for comparing patterns of lump structure and landscape use:**

In Tests 2 and 3 I compared patterns of landscape use with patterns of matching or overlap between lump structures of different systems. In each

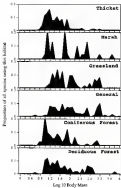


Figure 4-15. Distribution of sizes of birds by proportion of all species using that habitat in boreal, forest and temperate forest and prairie ecosystems.

test I juxtaposed two lump structures of different systems (either two landscapes in Test 2 or two super-lumps in Test 3). The paired lump structures were very similar except in one part of the size range. The lump pattern features distinguishing the two systems were either the presence/absence of lumps or the differences in the size range of lumps. In both systems being compared I examined use of habitat structure by species over a range of body size which stratified the zone of lump pattern distinctions. That is to say, I looked at patterns of landscape structure use by species within the size zone whose lump patterns differed as well as the two neighboring size zones where lump patterns did not differ.

### **Test 2. Landscape Lump Structures and Multi-Scale Landscape Use**

I tested H6 in two landscapes (Gabon in Rwanda and Amboseli in Kenya) in the savanna/woodland biome by examining habitat usage by mammal species in both systems across a zone in the size axis characterized by a narrow difference in size range in the second to smallest lumps (Figure 6-14). The third largest lump (lump 3) is very narrow in the Gabon lump structure in comparison with lump 3 in Amboseli. The neighboring lumps (2 and 4) occupy relatively similar size ranges in both data sets.

In either landscape, usage of habitat by species in lumps 2, 3 and 4 are generally similar in a manner predicted by the lump structure. First, species in lumps in the same size range use similar habitat structural features irrespective of which site they are found at. Therefore, species of either site in lump 2 use similar landscape features such as herbaceous mats and grass forays. Second, the size rank of the lump correlates with the coarseness of the landscape texture, mammals in lumps with smaller mean size utilize finer textures than mammals in lumps with larger mean size. For example,

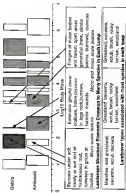


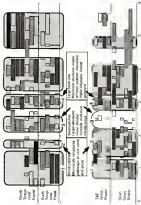
Figure 4-16 Landscape elements and species diversity commonly used by mammals species in southern Luangwa is presented in the first column of two African Savanna/Wetland Ecosystems (Congo, Brazil and Australia) Study.

landscape features utilized progress from micro- to macro-scale as materials of larger mean body size jumps are examined. Materials in jump 4 are associated with large, old forests and water bodies, while materials in jump 3 are holes and corridors between logs and stumps.

These results suggest that jump structure may help predict the landscape structure of a site. In the absence of detailed site descriptions, the differences in site usage and species density between species assemblages in jump 3 at both sites might serve to predict that *Amphispiza* has a higher incidence of a certain class of structural features (hollows, holes, crevices, feature intervals) than does *Gabuco*.

### **Test 3: Super-Sparse Jump Structure and Multi-Scale Landscape Use**

I use a jump structure centroid at the cloud resolution level to compare habitat usage between species in similar size areas of two super-biomes. For example, comparing jump cloud structures of North American super-biomes (Temperate Forest and Temperate Grasslands) reveals a cloud in the forest size range (between 2.3 - 2.8 log<sub>10</sub> body mass units) where none exists in the grasslands (Figure 4-17). While jumps are present in this size range in grassland landscapes, their low frequency and low species richness, as indicated by white coloration, suggest a relatively low density of species in this size range. Even if this zone were interpreted as a jump cloud, the difference in species densities between forests and grasslands is distinctive. In like manner to the African savanna/woodland comparison, the Trenchard-Ducommun hypothesis gains support from the fact that jump cloud structure does predict variation in habitat usage despite the fact that there is relatively little taxonomic overlap. Namely, jump clouds 2, 3 and 4 contain species whose habitat usage patterns (identified in the boxes



Light Body 1100

Figure 4-17 Light body structural elements (assembly part by name) shown in order also might be revealed in the long structure of two major views. Though no Front and Transverse-Details is shown.



spanning the two super-biome lump potentials) are similar irrespective of which super-biome group they are found. For example, species found in lump 4 in either super-biome are associated with relatively open landscape architectures such as forest ecotone and meadows.

Further support for the Textural-Discontinuity hypothesis is found in that the consistency of landscape texture utilized increases with the mean body size of the lump cloud. For instance, mammals in lump cloud 2 are associated with grass and root-zone pathways while species in cloud 3 are associated with ecotone and open spaces. The greater incidence of species in cloud 3 in the temperate forest than in the grasslands could serve to predict that certain structural types (grass and strata associated with multi-level habitat usage) are more prevalent in the former region than in the latter.

### Chapter Summary

In this chapter I have focused on landscape structure in its relation to landscape classification (both traditional and novel), to pattern matching between lump structures of different systems, and to animal use of habitat. I have found local similarities of landscape structure within traditional landscape classes such as forests. However, these observations suggest that too little is known or measured about landscape structure to safely assume that we can define it and link it to animal behavior. First, there is sufficient inter-site variability in landscape structure reported at small scales to question the assumption that traditional landscape designations reliably denote structural similarity between sites. Second, both the traditional classification schemes and the one I introduced do not rigorously survey or measure micro- and macro-scale structures. Third, very little is known about what structures are important in animal behavioral decisions and survival.

Within the limitations of the landscape structural classifications available, I found strong support for the Traitual-Discontinuity hypothesis prediction that the degree of matching between lump patterns of different systems correlates closely with differences in landscape structural complexity. Further, I found modest but consistent support for the H0 prediction that lump pattern, or membership in lumps, has power to predict the scale at which mammals exploit landscape structure. Overall, H0 has received support in tests of lump pattern commonality within systems (Chapter 3), between systems (Chapter 4), and in tests linking lump pattern to landscape structure and to its use (Chapter 5). All non-landscape hypotheses (H1 - H5) are implicitly challenged by these observations. In the following chapter, I probe these challenges further.

## CHAPTER 3 TESTS OF NON-LANDSCAPE EXPLANATIONS OF LUMP PATTERNS

### *Introduction*

The prevailing paradigm of a Continuous World has been increasingly challenged by mounting evidence of a Discontinuous World, an environment marked by discontinuities in space/time behaviors and distributions of ecological processes. The broad focus of this work has been to test animal use distributions for discontinuities as evidence of a Discontinuous World, and, thus far, a landscape-based hypothesis has provided the most compelling explanation of lumpy animal morphologies. Though I have demonstrated consistent trends linking landscape features, such as structural complexity, and discontinuous animal morphologies, that evidence has not eliminated any other explanation.

Another possibility is that the complexity of process interactions inherent at large scales of landscapes or forests may involve not one but multiple explanations which emerge from both world views. The soundest approach to such interwoven or co-dependent explanations is not to try to wrest the mantle of authority in one direction or the other. Rather, one must embrace this uncertainty as a whole, considering the different threads simultaneously so as to see how much each might contribute to a robust, overall explanation (Wiersa 1988, Murphy, as cited later)

In the study I have demonstrated that lumpy patterns in several scales can be used to test the predictions of non-landscape hypotheses (H1 - H3). 3

have shown lump patterns at the scale of landscape study sites in a wide variety of biotas, I have demonstrated internal consistency of lump patterns (consistency) between sites of similar structure (Chapter 3), and I have demonstrated in comparisons between landscape sites that the degree of lump pattern matching scales at a rate proportional to the degree of structural difference (Chapter 4). This chapter is devoted to testing how well non-landscape hypotheses (H1 - H5) predict the lump patterns demonstrated in chapters 3 and 4.

In this section I review the manner in which non-landscape hypotheses H1 - H5 predict discontinuous body size distributions. I review the results of previous tests of these hypotheses and describe here for the new tests I shall apply.

#### *Predictions of Lump Patterns Made by Continuous World Models*

To varying extents all operational or non-landscape hypotheses are challenged if there are similarities in lump patterns associated with similarities in landscape pattern. The Competitive Niche and Size Exclusionism (H1) hypothesis does not predict lump patterns at the scale of an entire animal community because such evidence of body size spacing is the antithesis of discontinuous size patterns in animal communities (gap separating size classes). Finding similar lump patterns in similar landscapes does not fundamentally refute the Macro-Phylogeny (H2), Niche's Ark (H3), Limited Morph (H4) or the Trophic Trough (H5) hypotheses, but does weakly demonstrate a link between lumpy body size patterns and the criteria used by each hypothesis. For example, when comparing animal communities, lump pattern similarities must be linked with similarities of taxonomic composition at the finest levels (species or genera) (H2) or higher levels

(Sturdy, order) (H2) or with similar distribution patterns of locomotory modes (H4) or trophic categories (H5). These predictions become testable when expressed as predictions. I present these predictions as explanations of the frequent findings (Chapters 3 and 4) of similarities in lump structures. For each hypothesis I state its prediction and discuss its implications for testing.

### **HL: Competitive Niche and Size Displacement**

**Prediction.** Animal morphological sizes are spaced apart on the size axis with a greater degree of evenness than expected by chance. Similarities in lump structure between ecosystems arise from constraints on patterns of competitive interactions.

This prediction has been used to demonstrate at the sub-community level the effects of within-guild competition on such taxa as heterotrophic rodents (Brown 1975). At the level of all species and all guilds within an entire island community, processes of spacing between species body sizes appear more likely to fill gaps or discontinuities rather than create them. At community level HL appears to predict the opposite of lumpiness, and all discontinuities of lumpiness that do not depend of these predictions. However, perhaps such spacing occurs at sub-community levels such as within groups of species of relatively similar body size (lumps). If such were the case, lump structure at the whole community level might be partly a product of spacing of body sizes within each lump. The regularities of even spacing within each lump might make the discontinuities between lumps stand out more clearly.

The interpretation of the Competitive Niche and Size Displacement hypothesis predicts that the lump structure of such landscape study sites and the similarities between site data sets are partly due to even size spacing within lumps. Such an explanation does not necessarily challenge the

*Turchin-Descontinity hypothesis*, the competition between species within jumps may be based on the ability to exploit landscape structure within a limited range of scales. If such proves to be the case, then HI underlies HI's explanation of jump structure at the sub-community level of jumps.

### III. Macro-Phylogeny

*Excluding* similarities or jump structure between landscape study sites result from variation in macro-scale landscape composition (structure, extent).

The *Macro-Phylogeny hypothesis* posits that phylogenetic patterns influence jump patterns, but as a combination of evolutionary and community organization processes. If a limited number of ancestral forms related in size to a limited extent, then each refugium might comprise a region of higher density in a size distribution. Therefore, limited phylogenic radiation in evolution results in a continuous size distribution around a common ancestor. However, if we look at the aggregate picture of all these separate continuous size distributions associated with different ancestors we find a discontinuous size distribution. That is to say that the net result of parallel radiations from a limited set of common ancestors is a discontinuous size distribution with some regions much denser in species than others. These regions of higher species density (nodes) might well be associated with broad patterns of phylogeny (macro-phylogeny) at the level of taxonomic Orders or Families. As each ecological community organizes, species selected at random from this multi-modal size distribution are more likely to be drawn from the denser regions.

Therefore, macro-phylogeny is associated with broad size distribution patterns which constrain the areas where jumps may occur as they form during community organization. However, HI does not explain the

occurrence of such gaps between jumps at the landscape level, it focuses on the likelihood of finding clusters of jumps in certain portions of the size range.

### III. Noah's Ark

**Explanation:** Similarities in jump structure between ecological sites result from similarities in taxonomic composition at the level of species, and genera.

The Noah's Ark ("Usher" versus Holling 1982) hypothesis posits that gaps do not emerge, they simply do not distributions because of constraints on evolutionary possibilities for a limited set of ancestral forms. These limitations curtail size variability even at narrow (species or genus) evolutionary levels to the extent that gaps are not or have yet to be filled in size distributions compiled for mean species body masses. Therefore, III predicts that jump pattern similarities stem from taxonomic similarities at the level of species or genus between landscape study sites.

### III. Limited Morph

**Explanation:** Similarities in jump structure between landscape study sites result from similarities in locomotor modes of species on each jump.

In a world with a limited number of media (air, water, earth) and surfaces (land, vegetation, water), perhaps only a limited number of locomotor modes and structural designs are competitive. For example, predation in the air can be accomplished by a limited set of modes such as soaring, hovering and quick strikes from perches. Terrestrial locomotion can be explored by a limited set of modes such as leaping, crawling, running, climbing, digging, burrowing. Each mode of exploring the air or ground is possible from a specific wing and body morphology, so the Limited Morph hypothesis suggests that a small set of body forms stems from the limited set of modes for exploring the air or ground. III predicts that jump structure should

predict the locations on the size axis of clusters of species of the same locomotory category.

### 2.3. Trophic Through

**Expectation.** Similarities in lump structure between landscape study sites result from similarity in trophic structure. Individual lumps or groups of lumps will have higher frequencies of one trophic category than another.

If qualitative size differences characterize participants in trophic interactions, then those differences might be associated with the discontinuities in size distributions which identify transitions between trophic levels. Lump structure patterns should predict the locations on the size axis of clusters of trophic categories of one type.

### Empirical Tests of Non-Landscape Hypotheses

Predictions about lumpy size distributions made by non-landscape hypotheses have generally failed to resist disproof. Holling's (1992) comparison of lump structures of different taxa in different landscapes challenged predictions made by the Niche's Ark, Trophic Through and Limited Moyle hypotheses. Specifically, finding different lump patterns (in terms of location and number of lumps) for the same taxon in different landscapes challenges the prediction by the Niche's Ark hypothesis that similar ancestry should produce similar lump structures regardless of the landscape. A further challenge to this hypothesis arises with the observation of similar lump structures for different taxa in the same landscape. The radically different ancestry of birds and mammals should not produce similar lump patterns for both taxa. Holling's (1992) finding of similar lump structures for different trophic classes (terrestrial/aquatic vs. carnivores) of the same taxa challenges the Trophic Through hypothesis. Finally, the finding of similar



loop patterns in the same landscape for different taxa, levels and mammals challenges the Limited Niche Hypothesis

One avenue of inquiry based on the Continuum World Model has continued to use evidence of size dispersion along a continuous size axis as evidence supporting the Competitive Niche and Size Displacement Hypothesis. A broad front of research has found evidence for over-dispersion of sexual morphometrics in the body sizes of grasshopper forest rodents (Brown 1975, 1979, Brown and Brown 1982, Price and Brown 1983, 86) lengths of birds (Schroeter 1980, Moulton and Lockwood 1992 Moulton 1993) H1 has never been tested as a predictor of loop structure.

#### Summary: New probes of continuum world hypothesis

Previous work has tested organismal explanations of animal community morphology only at the landscape and biome scales in a limited set of landscapes (mostly forest and prairie in North America). In this study I test predictions of loop structure over a wider variety of landscapes and over a broader set of scales (landscape, biome, global). I will use statistical tests to probe more rigorously the qualitative inference (Holling 1982) that there is little if any relationship between loop structure and membership in various non-landscape categories. I test each hypothesis in the order I introduced them.

#### Tests of the Competitive Niche and Size Displacement Hypothesis

Over-dispersion of body sizes has been found at sub-community levels, groups or guilds within a community, (Brown 1975, 1979, Brown and Brown 1982, Price and Brown 1983, Schroeter 1980, Moulton and Lockwood 1992, Moulton 1993) and has been cited as evidence of competition. This pattern has been noted at the guild level within a community using a relatively

course definition of size distributions (just differences between members of a guild). Craig Allen suggested a test of this pattern at a higher level, which incorporates all guilds in its animal community, namely, all members of one taxon in a community, and uses a finer definition of size distribution (just differences between species within lumps in the community size distribution). In collaboration with Dr. Allen I pooled animal body mass data sets and wrote computer programs to statistically simulate random body size dispersion within body size lumps. I now describe the data sources and detection methods for tests at both these scales.

### Methods and Sources of Data

I collected mammal land and leaf data sets of body mass from sites with reliable, comprehensive species lists. I took body mass values for birds and mammals from a source most proximate to each study site, either from studies in the literature or from global compendia (Dunning, 1990; Silen and Downing, 1990). I selected twenty-one sites from six different biomes (Table 3-3) in the temperate hemisphere: boreal forest; temperate desert, forest, moist mid-grass prairie and seasonally wet prairie, and neotropical forest.

### Description of study sites

The 21 sites from which 23 animal data sets were assembled have sufficient size (study areas ranging from hundreds to thousands of hectares) and study history to provide reliable descriptions of animal communities over the past few decades. These study sites exhibit a broad range of configurations of landscape structure and climate-related parameters such as rainfall, temperature, incident solar radiation, and evapo-transpiration. The diversity of climate parameters and landscape structures tests the generality of animal morphometric patterns over a range of environmental contexts.

Table 5-1. Data sources for tests of the Competitive Niche Displacement Hypothesis. Location of animal data sets are given by tract and number of species related to each study site in six different biomes in the western hemisphere.

Climate Zone	Biogeographic Data		Number of Species in each Tract at each site			
	Ecoregion	Site Name	Forest	Mountain	Alpine	
			#	#	#	
Temperate	Wet Savannah	South Florida	123	29	30	
		Forest	Basin	73	45	
			Savannah River	80	46	
			Mountain Lake Bio-Station	75		
	Prairie	Redlands	28	28		
		Basin	64	22		
		Cottonwood		46		
		Bonza	108	39		
	Desert	Hypos			31	
		Canyonlands			29	
		Capital Reef			39	
		Cape Pipe			26	
		Zion			26	
Boreal	Forest	Doel Lake	129	42		
		New Savannah	100	36		
		Nipissing	126	42		
		Tape No. 50	84	42		
Neotropical	Forest	Colaptes	39			
		French Guiana	112			
		La Selva		48		
		Llanoslara		46		
		Mara Nat Park		63		

### Statistical Approaches

I analyzed the data in four steps. First, I used *Lump (CoP) Analysis* (Chapter 2, Borczyk et al. 1997) to describe the source-body size pattern, the distribution of lumps, in each observed data set. This established a set of lumps for each observed data set, and the number of species(s), the range of body masses, and the body mass of each species within each lump. Second, I measured the spacing between the species within a lump (segment length) by calculating the size differences between neighboring species. I calculated the variance in size differences within each lump to derive an index of the evenness of spacing; high variance denotes little evenness. Third, I used statistical simulation to synthesize a set of mock lumps of identical  $n$  and size range as found in the observed lumps, but with the body masses of the species selected at random within the size range. The size distributions within the mock lumps therefore represent a random walk against which to compare the distributions within the observed lumps. I then calculated the variance of size spacing between neighboring species in these mock lumps. In the fourth step I tested the difference between the indices of evenness I found in observed and mock lumps.

#### Steps one: lump analysis - description of source-body patterns

I sorted body mass data for each basin at each site in ascending order and analyzed for significant discontinuities using *Gap Pattern Analysis* (Chapter 2). I transformed mass data by taking the logarithmic transform. For each data set a unimodal, normal estimate of the observed data provided a continuous null distribution with the same  $n$  and range of body masses as those in the observed data set. This continuous null model helps establish the criterion size range of discontinuities detectable if no gaps exist in the

underlying size distributions. Discrimination hinges on the criterion found in analysing the observed data are deemed 'significant'. Employing a conservative estimate of effect size (SD) Type II error was minimised by keeping statistical power within the range of 0.80 to 0.9 (Lapley, 1996) when estimating the significance threshold for gaps in each data set. Constant power made comparable analysis of all data sets possible regardless of species number ( $n$ ).

#### Stage Two: Intra-pattern structure in species size spacing within lumps

I calculated the size spacing between species within each observed lump (segment length) along the size axis) by subtracting the  $\log_{10}$  body mass of the  $n$ th species from that of species  $n+1$ . I quantified evenness of spacing by calculating the variance of segment lengths within the lump.

#### Stage Three: Statistical simulation

For each size I created a mock lump, with  $n$  and the range of  $\log_{10}$  body masses identical to that of the observed lump, by drawing at random  $n$  times from a uniform distribution, which served as a neutral model for the species pool. Analysis of actual distributions within lumps demonstrated that these distributions are uniform. Furthermore, for any given site it is impossible to ascertain the potential species pool for the entire community, but I conservatively assumed that the size distribution is approximately normal. For relatively small subsets, such as lumps, within that Gaussian community size distribution, the most conservative neutral model against which to test observed distributions is a uniform distribution.

I removed two sources of bias in calculations of variance from the statistical simulation model. Rounding error, such as excessive rounding and differences in the degree of rounding between observed and mock  $\log_{10}$  body mass data, was eliminated by rounding all data to three places prior to any

calculations. Similarly, I avoided the potential for exaggerated variance in estimates of variance in small hump populations ( $n < 5$ ) by analyzing only those humps with  $n$  greater than 5. Of the 139 humps occurring in 33 data sets I rejected 27 humps by this criterion. Since the body masses of the smallest and largest species in each hump are fixed during each simulation run, the species between the ends are the only body masses chosen at random. I adopted a conservative protocol that the number of simulated body masses would always exceed the number (2) held fixed.

I took special precautions to simulate only the segment length variance between species within humps. Segment length variance exists at the level of the entire animal community and is generated by the major discontinuities or gaps which separate humps. This community-level variance was segregated out during simulations by rejecting any segment lengths which approached the size of the gaps on either side of the hump. That is, those segment lengths which exceeded the mean of gap segment lengths defining the ends of the hump. Such mean gap sizes were reasonable approximations given that gaps on either side of a hump did not differ greatly in size.

Within each mock hump the size spacing between species ("segment length" along the size axis) was calculated by subtracting the  $\log_{10}$  body mass of the  $n$ th species from that of species  $(n+1)$ . Spacings of spacing was quantified by examining the variance of segment lengths within the hump. Probabilities of observed variance occurring by chance were determined from statistical simulation. For each hump 1000 simulation runs generated a distribution of mock variance. The rank of the observed variance in that distribution of mock variances approximated the  $p$ -value of the hump's segment length variance.

### Stage 4. Data Analysis

Disturbances inherent in field conditions can muddy the precision with which animal body masses are determined and introduce variability in animal body mass over time (see ). At the same time, consistency level-of gaps separating jumps, Gap<sup>2</sup> analysis appears robust because the size of discontinuities in vertebrate community body mass data exceed the observed size variation in species mass estimates for 80 percent of boreal prairie birds and all boreal prairie mammals (Appendix A). However, at the finest, within-jump, scale the sources of variation in size estimates due to sampling error make it less likely to find any consistency or evenness of ratios of body mass, especially at a significance level less than 0.05.

Given the likelihood of distortions introduced by sampling error, detecting meaningful trends required that the scope of investigation be broadened through meta-analysis. Patterns at several levels (overall, within mass, within forms) was examined using binomial tests as follows. If observed size variances occur at random, I'd expect the frequency distribution of variances to be normal with a mean of 50. I created this normally distributed frequency distribution of variances through computer simulation. The observed variances in segment lengths could fall into one of two conditions with respect to the distribution of mock variances generated by simulation: landed either above the 50 percent mark or below it. With the expectation that random variances would generate near equal numbers of both conditions, I applied the binomial test. Significant numbers of occurrences below the 50 percent mark indicate greater evenness of spacing than expected by chance. The probabilities that the ratio of occurrences above 50 percent to occurrences below might occur at random is provided by the binomial test

## Results - Where is Over-dispersion of Segments Found?

### Tests for bias in simulation output

I derived probability values of observed variances occurring at random by ranking them in null distributions of variance. Considering all taxa no correlation between species number and probability value was evident (Figure 3-5a). Quite similar curve fit problems with non-flat regression lines were also found for birds and mammals alone.

### Tests for uniformity of size distribution within lamps

If species nests tend to cluster with consistency toward some portion of the site axis within each lamp, segment length variance would still be significantly low. No site clustering by species within lamps is evident. Regression of normalized segment length on normalized relative position within the lamp shows no significant trend value for all taxa (Figure 3-5b) or for mammals or birds separately.

### Simulated and observed results in segment length variance within lamps

Observed segment length variance had a strong tendency to be ranked in the lower half of variance distributions generated by simulations. This is evident (Figure 3-6) in the left-skew of the distribution of rankings for observed segment length variance. The distribution of variances expected from a uniform distribution of segment lengths highlights this trend.

### Binomial test for over-dispersion of segment lengths within lamps

Seventy-four percent of all lamps (108 out of 145) from all sites had variances ranked in the lower half of the null distribution. The chances of such a majority occurring in the low range by random chance are minuscule ( $p = 1.6 \text{ E-}08$ ) as indicated by the binomial test (Table 3-7). Similar properties



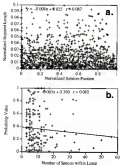


Figure 3-1 Regression of (a) normalized values of within-lump interspecies size differences (segment length) on within-lump position of a species relative to the edge of the lump and (b) rankings of within-lump interspecies size variances relative to 1000 simulated size variances (probability value) against the number of species within the lump.

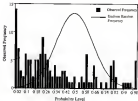


Figure 3-2. Observed frequency distribution of variables as segment lengths or interspecies size differences within lumps at lump maximal and fixed data sets compared to a hypothetical normal distribution created when interspecies size differences occur with uniform random frequency.

with lumpy probabilities are evident for summary binomial tests for each lump (maximal, fixed) and each biome (temperate, boreal, neotropical). When I applied the binomial test to lump sums within each biome, a majority (7 out of 10) had significant p-values. Maximal lump data sets, particularly in the neotropics, boreal and temperate forest and prairie sites, exhibited the lowest variances. Only half the fixed lump data sets (boreal forest, temperate prairie) showed significantly low variances at the biome level. The sample of lump lumps from South Florida is too small ( $n = 4$ ) to reasonably expect a significant result with the binomial test. Considering each lump separately, sixteen percent (20 out of 163) of all lumps showed low variance of segment lengths at the 0.05 significance level.

**Table 5-2** Rankings of observed variances of segment lengths within lumps (number of species > 5) within distributions of segment length variances from sets of mock lumps created by 1000 random draws from uniform random size distributions with the same size ranges as observed lumps

Class	Biome	Ecosystem	Number of lumps or tests > 50	Mean Rank in n-Page-01004	Number of lumps or tests > 50	Mean Rank in n-Page-01004	P-Probability
Birds	Tropical	Wet Forest	4	21.5	2	28.5	0.034
Mammals	Tropical	Forest	17	18.8	8	38.8	< 0.001
		Forest	7	18.4	3	48.8	0.117
		Forest	10	18.1	2	48.8	0.018
		Boreal Forest	10	18.6	8	8.8	< 0.001
		Boreal Forest	13	24.8	8	39.7	0.014
Summary for All Mammals			51	18.7	10	34.8	< 0.001
Birds	Tropical	Forest	18	21.1	11	38.3	0.001
		Forest	7	11.4	1	48.8	0.044
		Boreal Forest	13	20.8	8	37.8	0.000
		Savanna	8	18.8	7	38.3	0.176
Summary for All Birds			46	17.8	24	33.8	0.004
Summary for all Tropical Sites			31	17.07	21	38.36	< 0.001
Summary for all Boreal Sites			23	20.88	8	37.8	< 0.001
Summary for all Heterotrophic Sites			54	20.84	10	34.88	0.001
Summary for all sites			118	18.21	38	34.18	< 0.001

### Results - Summary

Animal body mass data sets exhibit over-dispersion of mass within size ranges within the size ranges of lumps not within entire communities. I found that observed within-lump segment lengths exhibited much lower variance in a majority of lump data sets, whether sorted by mass or biomass, when ranked against segment length variances derived from lumps created from uniform size distributions. Probability values lower than 0.001 from binomial tests amply support the conclusion that size spacing within lumps is more even than expected by chance.

Size spacing between species within an entire community is more even than expected by chance. When I applied the same procedure to animal

community body size data sets as a whole or not) are case did observed segment lengths exhibit lower variance than simulated segment lengths

### Discussion: Implications of Cross-Dependent of Jumps

These results challenge the Competitive Niche and Size Displacement Hypothesis at community level body size distributions but support it at the narrowest level of jumps. Previous tests (Brown 1973, 1975, Brown and Brown 1981, Pace and Brown 1990, Silvertown 1982, 1983, Moulton and Leckwood 1992, Moulton 1993) have tested predictions for HI at the level of sub-guilds within a community, however, no previous test has been applied to all species within a basin of a community. Following the predictions of HI, lack of even size spacing community-wide suggests that competition is not operating equally for all species within a community across all scales. Rather, competition appears to operate between species within jumps, evening the spacing of body sizes through character displacement.

The proposition that competition occurs between species within jumps does not necessarily contradict the predictions of the Textural Coarseness hypothesis (TH). One interpretation of HI might explain the evolution of jumps through the selection for body size within size ranges which are competitive over limited range of spatial scale. Another interpretation of the Textural Coarseness hypothesis might explain jumps as the result of species sorting during community organization. Either interpretation is based on the competitiveness of body size in the exploitation of landscape structure at specific scales. HI would be undermined if it can be shown that competition between species within-jumps is not related to exploitation of

spatial structure. One example might be if species competed for a food source with a spatial distribution which does not vary across scales.

### **Synopsis – Competition Most Likely Within Lumps**

I observe morphological over-dispersion in lumps of birds, mammals and lizards and not at the level of the entire community. I conclude that HI is disrupted at the level of spatial communities and supported at sub-community levels (lumps), and that intra-specific competition is most likely occurring at the spatial scale explored by species in a lump. The possibility remains untested that over-dispersion of body size at sub-community levels, within lumps, might resolve detection of discontinuation (and therefore lumps) within community level size patterns. I now test the predictions of the remaining organism-based explanations of lump structure.

### **Tests of Micro-Phylogeny, Trophic Trophic and Limited Morph. Hypotheses**

Previous tests (Stoffig 1992) have challenged HI, II, and III based on comparisons of lump patterns found in body size data sets of different taxon, trophic levels, or body plans. Such qualitative inferences is a robust challenge which is extremely helpful in prioritizing different avenues of inquiry in early explanatory research. In this section I try to test more rigorously these initial challenges of non-landscape hypotheses. In animal community body size data sets I examine patterns of membership in any of the categories specified as HI, II, and III and test their degree of association with patterns of lump membership. That is to say I test the prediction that body size classes in similar ways to clusters of phylogenetic, locomotory, or trophic classes. I now describe the data sources and statistical methods I employed

## Methods

### Source of animal body size data

I collected 20 mammal body mass data sets compiled from literature and research station reports for sites in 7 biomes (Table 5-3).

**Table 5-3** Locations of study sites from which species lists were used as sources for body mass data sets used in Chi-Square tests of the Intra-Phylogeny, Trophic Insign and Limited Morph Hypotheses.

Site	Biome	Continent	Geography	Site Name	
1	Temperate Forest	N. America	Canada	Klauser	
2				N. Yukon N.P.	
3				Clear River	
4				Prince Albert M.P.	
5			Manitoba	Togo Bay Station	
6	Temperate Forest	N. America	Minnesota	Isaac Sosa Park	
7				Florida	Katharine Ordway Preserve
8				Wyoming	Yellowstone N.P.
9	Temperate Desert	N. America	California	Capitol Hill N.P.	
10				Death Valley N.P.	
11				Organ Pipe N.P.	
12	Temperate Prairie	N. America	South Dakota	Badlands N.P.	
13				Montana	Beate
14				Kansas	Kansas Preserve
15	Grasslands	Africa	Kenya	Amboseli	
16					Ikona
17				S. Africa	Golden Gate N.P.
18	Neotropical Lowland	S. America	Brazil	Erlean	
19				Peru	Mara N.P.
20				Costa Rica	La Selva

### Determination of niche, taxonomic and temp membership categories

In each data set I assigned each species a set of seven different numbers corresponding to membership in the following categories: biogeographic (trophic and locomotory) and phylogenetic. I arbitrarily assigned a number to each mammalian order and family and applied these phylogenetic values to

each species in each data set. I assigned numbers corresponding to niche categories as follows. It is frequently the case that species within a genus share the same niche requirements in terms of diet or locomotory mode (Eisenberg, pers. comm.). Therefore, I classified 285 mammal genera according to niche requirements following the scheme of Eisenberg (1981) (Appendix G). This scheme provides a matrix index for "trophic strategy" in terms of predatory level, such as carnivore, granivore, frugivore and "invertebrate" or locomotory mode, such as terrestrial, fossorial, arboreal, for mammals. I applied these niche indices to each species in the data sets.

I sorted lumps in ascending order (1, 2, 3...N). Each species received a number signifying the size rank of the lump in which it is a member. For instance, each species in the lump ranked third largest from the bottom (interior) of the size order would receive the number 3. Since the number of lumps found by Lump (GAP) Analysis varies with statistical power, I tested the sensitivity of this analysis to the statistical power level used in Lump Analysis. I analyzed each data set three times for lump patterns, each time using a different level of power. The three different power levels were about 0.4, 0.5, and 0.6, respectively. I gave each species three lump numbers corresponding to their lump membership as interpreted under three different statistical power scenarios.

### Statistical Methods

To derive expected values for each of the categories within a data set, I calculated the proportions which each niche or locomotory category represented in that mammal data set. If categories are randomly distributed in a data set, I would expect the same proportional representation within a lump as within the entire data set. I compared these expected values against observed proportions in each lump using a Chi-Square test. Following Chi-

Square protocols I eliminated considerable numbers of lump data prior to the test because the category in question did not occur more than four times in that data set (see "non-testable cases" category shown in Table 5-4).

In each test the null hypothesis posits that there is a random association between lump pattern (membership in a particular lump) and category pattern (membership in a particular category). Within each lump for each niche or phylogenetic category the test returned a value which represented the probability value associated with rejection of the null. I designated all findings with a probability value equal to or lower than 0.05 as a significant departure from the expected, thereby allowing me to reject the null. For each category I report the number of significant and non-significant findings overall as well as the number of instances where the number of significant findings increased, decreased or did not change as a result of increasing statistical power in decreasing the number of lumps in Lump Analysis.

### Results - Chi-Square Test

All categories except taxonomic order appear to be randomly related to patterns of lump membership in a majority of cases as evident in the rates at which I fail to reject the null hypothesis (Table 5-4). The failure to reject was (noted "Significant Findings" in Table 5-4) in 41, 36, 41 and 68 percent of all testable observations of the order, family, substate and fossil categories, respectively. These findings show some sensitivity to the statistical power level used in Lump Analysis. Only in a minority (mean = 33.75 percent of



Table 3-4. Chi square tests of non-random association between membership in jumps and phylogenetic or niche categories of mammals.

Item Description	Phylogeny		Niche Status	
	Order	Family	Substrate	Plant
<b>Tests of All Categories</b>				
at one level of statistical power				
Total Observations Possible	118	382	109	148
Percent of total possible observations				
Total Obs. Categories with = 4 Observations	81	28	48	87
Non-random cases: Categories with = 4 Observations	24	74	81	33
Significant Findings	81	44	18	81
Non-Significant Findings	48	88	81	88
<b>Tests of Influence at statistical power</b>				
Total Observations Possible	24	88	8	28
Percent of total possible observations				
Significant findings increase as power increased	8	21	28	21
Significant findings decrease as power increased	28	14	18	17
No change in significant findings as power increased	87	88	88	88

testable observations) do the numbers of significant findings increase as power increases. In a majority of testable observations I find no change or a decrease in the number of significant findings as I increase power. Therefore, only in a minority of cases might the rejection of the null increase as a result of a different level of statistical power, and even in these cases the rejection rate does not increase dramatically.

### Discussion

These results undermine the Trophic Troph. and Linnéid Morph. hypotheses. In a clear majority of cases associations between categories of jump membership and those of trophic or locomotory mode appear random. I find the least support for the locomotory mode category, but trophic classes fare slightly better, appearing randomly associated with jumps almost 70

percent of taxa. Other tests of the Trophic Trough and Limited Morph hypotheses (Holling 1982) aggregated the number of categories to far fewer numbers than the ones employed here. For example, Holling utilized only two (locusts and herbivores/terrestrial) trophic categories as opposed to six, and two locomotory modes ( volant and non-volant terrestrial) as opposed to eight (Appendix 5). The degree to which my use of a more diverse group of categories increases the chance of finding non-significant results in a Chi-Square test remains to be tested.

The case for the Macro-Phylogeny (M2) hypothesis is more equivocal, as roughly half of the tests I could reject the null hypothesis. While traditional preoccupation with Type I error would cast this result as complete rejection of M2, broader standards which try to account for Type II might interpret this as a *partial* rejection. As such it does not decisively topple the suspicion that jump patterns is the product of multiple causes which include phylogeny as well as landscape structure. Macro-scale phylogenetic patterns may contribute broad, almost cryptic, influences on jump membership. I find the highest rejection rate for the null when testing taxonomic orders, so it appears to be the right level of the taxonomic hierarchy to seek morphological innovations due to the limited resolution of an assumed form.

### Summary

The Limited Morph and Trophic Trough hypotheses failed to main support at the macro-scale of jumps. However, patterns of taxonomic at high levels (Family and Order) show a weak but intriguing affinity for jumps at this grain resolution of jump patterns. I shall now test the power of narrow (Noah's Ark) and broad (Macro-Phylogeny) patterns of taxonomy to macro-landscape hypotheses to predict jump patterns at scales larger than individual

animal communities. Jump patterns commonly within-biomes, super-biomes and at pan-global scales.

### Tests of Noah's Ark and Macro-Phylogeny Hypotheses at Different Scales

The reported finding of jump pattern commonality which is unique to a particular landscape (such as a biome) challenges the Noah's Ark (H1) hypothesis. If limited evolution from a small number of ancestral forms is responsible for gaps in the size distribution, then most jump structures, irrespective of landscape structure, should be relatively similar in that they share ancestry. Helling's (2002) finding of jump structures unique to the boreal forest and to the boreal peatland clearly refutes Noah's Ark. My finding of jump pattern commonality within biomes or "biome signatures" (Chapter 3), jump patterns unique to each of seven  $\text{C}_3$  biomes, makes a more general case for this challenge. However, H1 also predicts that such inter-site pattern similarity within biomes stems from taxonomic similarity at the species or genus level. That is to say that community level jump structure, the location of jumps and gaps, relates to lower level patterns of taxonomy. Therefore, Noah's Ark (H1) predicts that an index of jump pattern similarity should correlate with an index of species similarity, and that is how I will test H1 in this section.

The Macro-Phylogeny hypothesis (H2) posits that jump pattern similarities arise from macro-scale patterns in animal size distributions. This prediction does not focus on individual discontinuities but tries to account for why jumps are found in certain size ranges. In Chapter 3 I identified broad patterns (Figures 3-1F and 3-1G) in mammal jump structures where clusters of jumps are more commonly found. In this chapter I compare these broad jump and body size patterns as a test of H2.

In this section I test predictions of Noah's Ark (NA) and Macro-Ecology (ME) over a variety of landscape types and scales. I shall first test ME by correlating taxonomic similarity indices with measures of lump pattern similarity between landscapes of similar type (commonality). I now discuss data sources and methods for calculating taxonomic similarity.

### Tests of ME, Taxonomic Similarity, and Lump Pattern Commonality

I assembled lists of mammal genera and species for all landscape study sites which I measured in Chapter 3 for lump pattern commonality both within-horae and within-super-horae. Within each horae and super-horae I measured Sorensen's Index of Similarity (S-I) for species and for genera for every matching pair of study site species lists within that spatial extent:

$$I = \frac{2 * SP_{ab}}{SP_a + SP_b} \quad (5.1)$$

Where  $SP_a$  = Number of species or genera in Site a,

$SP_b$  = Number of species or genera in Site b, and

$SP_{ab}$  = Number of species or genera common to Sites a and b.

I tested the Noah's Ark hypothesis ME by correlating similarity index values with indices of lump pattern commonality. At both spatial extents and both taxonomic resolutions (species and genera) I found no significance in the relationship between lower level taxonomy and lump pattern commonality (Figure 5-3).

Overall, this test undermines the Noah's Ark hypothesis. Despite numerous graphic observations in Chapter 3 of expected strong correlations between high taxonomic similarity and lump commonality, the trend is

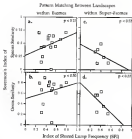


Figure 3-3 Correlations of Soester's index of similarity for species (a & c) and genera (b & d) for pairs of *Isomes* (a & b) and *super-Isomes* (c & d) on indices of pattern correspondence between different systems (Isomes or *super-Isomes*), the index of Shared Lump Frequency (SFL). All correlations are non significant (probability values indicated in the upper right hand corner)

related by similar frequencies of removal or invasion trends, high connectivity / low taxonomic similarity and low connectivity/high taxonomic similarity. This leaves only broad patterns of use associated with higher level taxonomic categories (Family or Order) as possible predictors of lump patterns.

### A Test of Macro-Phylogeny (M2) at Para-Global Scales

The Macro-Phylogeny (M2) hypothesis predicts that patterns of similarity in lump structure correlate with broad patterns of taxonomy associated with taxonomy at the Order or Family levels. In this chapter I used a chi-square test to identify Order as the taxonomic level most closely associated with lump patterns. In Chapter 3 I demonstrated patterns of lump commonality for mammals at the para-global level. I tested the predictions of the Macro-Phylogeny hypothesis by comparing these two broad patterns: lump commonality at para-global scales and size distributions compiled at the level of mammal orders. I randomly sampled the mean adult body masses of 100 randomly selected species of each of the seven most species-mammalian orders to create an estimate of the size distribution of each order. I then graphically compared both broad lump and taxonomic patterns by juxtaposing the zones of highest lump pattern commonality with each mammal order's size distribution (Figure 2-4).

#### Results

Every one of the subset of mammal orders has size frequency peaks associated with one (two in the case of Marsupials) of the zones of para-global lump commonality. This correspondence between broad patterns of taxonomy and lump structure becomes even clearer when I aggregate mean adult body masses of all 7 mammal orders into one size distribution and overlay the patterns of common lump zones (Figure 2-5). A size distribution based on mammal order species is-modal, with a hint of tri-modality, which largely intersects zones of para-global lump commonality.

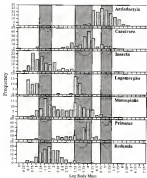


Figure 5-4. Frequency distributions of mean adult body masses of species drawn at random from Sibly and Donning (1992) from 7 mammalian orders. Light gray areas indicate areas of highest matching between lamp structure of different mammalian communities.

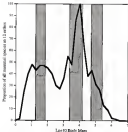


Figure 5-8. Frequency distribution of mass adult body masses expressed as proportion of all species in 10 mammalian orders. Light gray bands identify size ranges where most jump patterns overlap as observed in pattern matches of pairs of mammal super-families.

#### Summary:

The Macro-Phylogeny hypothesis (25) gains support from distinct overlap between broad patterns of taxonomy (mammalian order) and jump structure (paralogized jump pattern). While 10 does not form an community level jump-pattern (the locations of individual gaps and jumps at the landscape level), it does appear to predict the general areas where clusters of jumps are located on the size axis.



## Tests of Trophic Troph Hypothesis

Previous comparisons (Eisenberg 1961) of nonclonal terrestrial mammal communities on different continents graphically suggest some degree of discontinuity in the size distributions of some eight trophic categories. Holling (1960) found similarities in the patterns of discontinuities in the size distributions of two coarse trophic groupings (carnivores vs. herbivores/omnivores) of boreal prairie mammal communities. Both categories were present in each lump. Finding very similar representation of either trophic category across all the lumps challenges the prediction (H1) that differences in trophic status displace body size and create discontinuities in the size distributions.

The generality of this challenge to the Trophic Troph hypothesis would be confirmed by finding similarities in lump patterns for trophic categories in lumps other than the boreal prairie. In this section I apply statistical tests to nonclonal terrestrial mammal data compiled from six lumps. I now describe these data sources and the methods of examining differences of patterns in trophic size distributions.

### Sources of mammal body size data

I assembled species size data at the biome level by compiling body mass data from all landscape study sites I had assembled for a biome and removing redundant species. I then separated each biome species assemblage into two trophic groups: carnivores and herbivores/omnivores. I overlaid graphs of frequency distributions of both trophic categories for each biome.

### Results - Range Comparisons of Body Size Distributions of Trophic Levels

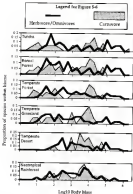
Frequency distributions of body mass for carnivores vs. herbivores/carnivores overlap along almost the entire range of the size axis (Figure 5-6). The only exception is that large body masses of herbivores/carnivores usually extend beyond 50, whereas those of carnivores do not. The size distributions of other trophic category do not exhibit any tendency to aggregate exclusively along any part of the size axis.

### Discussion

These results give a broad explanation for the general observation (Scheffer, unpublished data) that carnivores and herbivores/carnivores are mutually present in almost all large in data sets. This outcome is likely if the size distributions of both trophic categories span the entire size axis. What remains unclear is why the lump structures of different trophic groups in non-forest data sets do not align as precisely as Holling (1992) found for forest data sets. The most likely explanation is that Holling's careful consultation with zoologists with long experience with birds and mammals in the forest biome created robust and comprehensive species lists for birds and mammals. My compilation of a species lists from a number of study sites within each biome may still have too many omissions to constitute adequate representations of biomes at the biome level.

### Chapter Summary

I have tested the predictions of a suite of non-landscape hypotheses which predict lump structure without any reference to landscape structure. I



**Figure 5-6** Size distributions for mass adult body masses of carnivores and herbivores/omnivores expressed as proportions of all species in sub-samples of mammal communities in 6 biomes.

find no support at any level of landscape structure for the North & Ark (10), Limited Morph (14) or Trough Trough (14) hypotheses. Looking at large, birds, and mammals I find no support at the level of an animal community landscape structure for the Competitive Niche and Size Displacement (14), but 10 does result depend on the sub-community level of within-landscape size distributions. Looking only at mammals, I also find that trade linking mammal order size distributions with pan-global patterns of landscape structure similarly support the Macro-Physiology (10) hypothesis.

In total, landscape structure appears best explained by three different hypotheses, the Macro-Physiology, Tectonic-Discontinuity and Competitive Niche and Size Displacement hypotheses, each operating at a different spatial scale. The Macro-Physiology hypothesis posits that broad, long-term processes associated with the evolution of mammalian orders affect local, landscape landscape structure through the process of community organization. Communities are organized by species selection within broad but limited size ranges, or modes of higher species density, associated with adaptive radiation from a common ancestor of each Order. This process increases the likelihood of large being located within these (mode) size ranges.

At the level of animal communities in a landscape, the Tectonic-Discontinuity hypothesis predicts that horizontal landscape structure is a context in which body sizes are selected for from the pool available after selection from the phylogenetic size distribution. The environmental template of landscape architecture is a discontinuous distribution of ranges of scale, and within each scale range resources are apparent to animals. Species body sizes are selected for through competition for resources at each different range of spatial scale. The breaks in landscape structure which separate ranges of spatial scale are the template which is selected by gaps in the animal

community size distribution. These gaps separate body size jumps in community size distributions, as phylogenetic size distributions are disrupted based on animal interactions with landscape structure.

At the sub-community level, within the spatial scale exploited by species within each jump, competition is minimized between species by diversifying their uses of landscape structure. The Competitive Niche and Size Displacement hypothesis predicts that the diversification is aided by expanding and spending the most species' body sizes as evenly as possible along the size axis within the range of sizes which are effective in using the landscape of that scale, namely, the size range of the jump.

I have concluded this chapter with a brief demonstration of how parallel consideration of these hypotheses can bridge interactions across three ranges of scale to explain lumpy animal community macrodiversity. These conclusions rely on findings throughout the study, which I bring into a more comprehensive synthesis in the final chapter.

## CHAPTER 4 SYNTHETIC INFERENCE: FROM TESTS OF CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS WORLD MODELS

### Introduction

This study pits two world models against one another in an exploration of different explanations of how patterns of ecological processes and landscape structure are linked to patterns of animal distribution. Questions which encompass such large scales cannot isolate causation, a host of causes must be addressed, and multiple causation is likely. I approached the large scale, multi-causal questions of this study with two main strategies to address my expectation that multiple causation might obscure the signals my tests report. First, I employed adaptive inference (Wain 1984, Pickett et al. 1992) as a means to test continuous and discontinuous world models in parallel. In this way I hoped that contrasts in results of different, parallel tests of an array of causes, not the results of isolated tests of single causes, might reveal the differences which deepen understanding about the relative importance of each separate cause. Second, I reached for pattern, however faint, across a large collection of animal and landscape data collected from 18 forests on 9 continents.

In this chapter I try to weave the separate threads of these parallel tests of imposing data arrays into a workable synthesis. I briefly review the underlying theory and initial tests which set the stage for this work and then integrate the results and conclusions of the separate chapters.

### *Animal Size Patterns as Evidence of a Discontinuous World*

The process which opened the avenue of inquiry (Holling 1962) is that the clustering of time and space behaviors of ecosystem processes strongly supports a discontinuous world model in which the world is separated into distinct domains of scale (James Mann 1987) over each of which a different set of processes predominates. This sharply contrasts with the Cartesian view prevailing over the last few decades that all environmental variables have continuous spatial distributions over all scales. The study of animal size distributions as indices of the interactions of animals with the operation of these processes attempts to test links between the functioning of ecological processes and mechanisms of evolution or community organization. The specific means of testing in this study follows the example of Holling (1962) in using discontinuous patterns of animal morphology (Lumpiness) as evidence of animal interactions with a world of discontinuously distributed opportunities.

### *How to Test Patterns in Animal Size Distributions?*

Lump analysis, as applied through Gaf Pattern Analysis (Chapter 2, Restrepo et al. 1997) is an approach with practical and theoretical advantages in defining lump structure: It is relatively rapid and defines lump patterns which are broadly consistent with a variety of techniques (Chapter 2) including Holling's (1962) Body Mass Difference Index (BMDI) and some of the more advanced techniques, 'FactorMatcher', developed by Magpies (unpublished results). Lumpiness, as applied with Gaf and BMDI analysis, has shown promise in a number of fishes and a variety of trees (Holling 1962, Restrepo 1995, Restrepo 1997) as an index linking body

size pattern in language structure. *Call Pattern Analysis* is theoretically appealing because it directly attacks the notion that all size distributions are continuous by defining gaps in terms of their probabilities of occurring in data sets derived from continuous body size data.

The promise shown in previous and current work plus my own tests allow me to accept lumps (body size clusters) found in lump analysis as patterns with a number of intriguing properties which may prove useful in testing various world models of ecological processes. I do so despite the ongoing controversy surrounding the hypothesis that lumps reflect modes in size distributions. Masley (1982) challenged the capacity of Holling's HNDI to rigorously show that animal body size clusters reflect modes in a size distribution. However, Myrberg (in submission) addresses that challenge directly by demonstrating what modal distributions potentially underlie body size clusters and reinforcing the suspicion that Masley's negative results stem in part from Type II error. Furthermore, lumps do not appear to be likely products of chance events causing body size data to appear discontinuous when the underlying size distribution is continuous. My simulations (Chapter 3) of synthetic body size data sets drawn from one-modal size distributions show that it is highly unlikely that observed lump structures result from random sampling from continuous body mass size distributions.

### *The Reliability of Lump Analysis*

I reinforced the reliability of lump analysis, as applied through *Call Pattern Analysis*, by demonstrating that it is robust to observed levels of error in the creation of body mass size data sets (Appendix A). These two error sources are incomplete censusing of animal communities because of



temporally variable populations and incomplete accounting of intra-species variation in annual body mass sizes. I found in literature surveys that the variances of both size and temporal abundances for mammals and birds have right skewed distributions.

I initially estimated that such right skewed distributions of observed levels of both size sources had little potential to render lump analysis unreliable. Rather, a right skewed distribution of size variances should reinforce lump structure in ways analogous to the stabilizing influence of hierarchical organization on computer simulations of system dynamics (O'Neill et al. 1996, Allen and Starb 1992). Systems of components linked by interactions of equal significance and intensity are variable (Kauffman 1995, 1993). Right skewed distributions of variances, frequent enough that the vast majority of species exhibit little variation in body mass or in temporal abundances in the populations. The minority of species which exhibit high variation introduce relatively low levels of stochasticity in determining lump structure which are unlikely to significantly undermine the capacity of lump analysis to find the underlying lump structure.

I found that lump analysis is robust partly because of stability inherent in such right skewed distributions of size or abundance variation. I determined this by several probes of lump analysis through simulations of extreme variation scenarios. My computer programs simulated systems with right skewed distributions of variation in that I allowed all species to exhibit the same level of variation, in size or in presence/absence. Lump analysis is robust to extreme simulations of annual size (related to temporal variation in population abundance) for both birds and mammals, and not robust to extreme simulations of size

variation in birds, though marginally so for mammals. The resistance of lump analyses to such severe conclusions of variation supports the hypothesis that it is robust to observed, moderate levels of variation in species size and population fluctuations.

#### Does size variance decouple animals from landscapes?

Variation in animal size may not undermine the robustness of lump analyses, but it may challenge the linkage between animal size and landscape structure. In other words, the analysis technique may be robust, but the connection assumed in animal interactions with landscape may be weak. Size variation may be more than a 'noise' level disrupting the discontinuous landscape signal in mammal sizes. Size variation may be evidence of morphological plasticity which adapts successfully either to spatial continua or to discontinuous structures.

The presence of a variety of sizes in a species does not necessarily mean that all sizes are adaptive and result in successful reproduction. Size variation may simply be a strategy which allows populations to persist by increasing the chances that some individuals will be sized such that their scale of foraging will match the spatio-temporal distribution of resources. That sub-population which is adaptively sized might have the best chance of reproduction, but its surviving progeny may exhibit the same strategy of a body size diversity.

There are indications that species which rely on more heterogeneously distributed resources have greater intra-species size variation which relates to their scale of foraging. For example, the Queen butterfly (*Danaus gilippus* Cramer) utilizes smaller, less diffuse species of milk weeds than do Monarch butterflies (*Danaus plexippus* L.). The

Monarch occupies an ecological niche similar to Queen butterflies: it relies on a common species of milk weed (*Asclepias syriaca*). These plants are relatively large resource patches, with a more regular spatio-temporal distribution. The milk weeds (*Asclepias perennis*, *A. longifolia*, *A. lanceolata*, *A. tuberosa*, *A. speciosa*) which Queen butterflies rely on are relatively small resource patches that are rapidly exhausted by butterfly foraging. The combination of relatively small plant size and very heterogeneous spatial distribution often forces a Queen butterfly to pupate on site rather than continue to forage (they become post-ovipository). The variance of Queen butterfly wing size is high. By comparison, wing size variance of Monarchs is very low as a result of stabilizing selection (Aronow 1996; Aronow and Brown, in prep.)

In this light, size variance is not a 'coarse' level within body size metrics which decouples it from landscape structure and renders it a poor index of environmental geometry. Rather it may reflect population-level adaptations to shifting patterns of resource distribution, e.g. landscape structure. The evidence is supported by evidence (Smith et al. 1997) that in Canadian sub-populations of the same bird species, the little greenlet (*Arrepeopsax sennae*), have significantly different body size and wing size measurements which correlate with differences with landscape structure not with genetic drift. As predicted by The Trenchard Discontinuity Hypothesis, birds in more open habitats (the ecotone between the forest and the savanna) have larger body and wing sizes than birds in the more enclosed habitat (savanna).

Having established that Lump Analysis is a reliable technique for detecting discontinuities in body size distributions I proceeded to apply it

to land and mammal body size data sets to test predictions of a discontinuous world model.

### Tests of the Discontinuous World Model

I found support for the Textural Discontinuity hypothesis in correlations of jump number and landscape complexity, in jump pattern similarities within similar landscapes, in jump pattern contrasts between landscapes of different structure, and in the capacity of jump patterns to predict the scale and nature of landscape used by mammals. I also found evidence which contradicts the Textural Discontinuity hypothesis, namely, that some features of jump patterns are shared by all mammal communities regardless of the type of landscape structure in which they live. That finding suggests that there are several causes of jump structure.

### Scale and Super-Bloom Scales

Predictions of the Textural Discontinuity hypothesis (TDH) are supported by significant trends linking the complexities of jump patterns and of landscape structure. I developed an index (LSC) which I used to quantify landscape structural complexity over three arbitrary ranges (micro-, meso- and macro-) of scale for each study site. I quantified jump structure complexity as the number of jumps and found consistent (strong for birds, moderate for mammals) between both indices of jump and landscape complexity, e.g. jump number and the LSC. Confirmation of TDH on each broad length scale implies that how consistent the similarities in jump structure are within similar landscapes and how different they are between different landscapes

Lump pattern similarities found within systems of similar landscape structure (Islands and super-islands) confirm the predictions of The Neutral Diversity Hypothesis. My computer simulation tests show that these results are not the products of chance associations of animals or groups of animals (communities). I tested this idea by comparing actual large group (Islands or super-islands) lump structures with two kinds of random groups of lump structures. I effected a 'coarse randomization' by selecting actual animal community lump structures at random and then assembling them into groups of 4 which constituted a 'fake' Islands lump structure. I effected a 'fine randomization' by randomizing the location of lumps within each actual community's lump structure and then assembling groups of 4 of these 'fake' community lump structures into a 'fake' Islands lump structure. In both cases I found much higher degrees of lump pattern similarity within actual Islands or super-islands groups of study sites than from groups which are randomized at either level.

Is it possible that indices of lump pattern community can be used as support for the neutral landscape hypothesis? Lump pattern similarities shared by all study sites irrespective of landscape architecture could also produce my observations of high degrees of lump pattern similarity within groups of sites with similar landscape structure. This would seem likely if coarse randomization, randomized collections of study site lump structures, had shown levels of pattern similarity which are close to those found in actual groups. In other words if all animal communities share similar lump pattern but are not associated to landscape structure, then randomizing their associations to form a group should yield pattern community indices quite similar to those found in actual Islands. I did

not find this, but jump pattern similarity within uncolonized groups is surprisingly high, and this suggests some level of pattern consistency which is common to most animal communities. These mixed results raise the possibility that jump patterns reflect multiple (landscape and non-landscape) influences.

The issue of the evidence to this point clearly undermines the Continuous World Model and establishes a robust foundation for a Discontinuous World Model. The Continuous World Model is seriously challenged by the consistency across 150 ecosystems in 18 biomes with which I find discontinuous size distributions for both birds and mammals and the degree to which jump patterns is shared between communities in similarly structured landscapes. However, the evidence of jump pattern consistency does not uniformly and exclusively support landscape-based explanations of jump patterns.

The question now becomes what are the relative importances of landscape and non-landscape influences in determining jump patterns in animal body size distributions found in a Discontinuous World. The hypotheses posed to explain jump structure (Chapter 2) can be sorted into three groups to clarify the principal concepts underlying each (Table 4-1).

### Comparing Jump Patterns Between Large Biotic Systems

I tested the possibility of the dominance of geographic and phylogenetic influences on jump patterns by examining two predictions concerning jump pattern consistency at scales larger than biomes, namely pattern matching (a) across, rather than within biomes or super-biomes. The first prediction is landscape-based and posits that if landscape structure creates a robust signal in jump patterns, then inter-biome pattern

Table 8-1. Two level conceptual organization of hypothetical explorations of discontinuous patterns of animal body size

Base Concepts	Title	Operational Level
<b>Landscape</b>		
Structural	Textures-Discontinuity (H6)	Space-time patterns of architectures in landscape
<b>Non-Landscape</b>		
Phylogenetic	Niche x Arb (H2)	Genus and Species
	Macro-Phylogeny (H3)	Family and Order
Organismic	Competitive Niche (H1)	Community
	Limited Morph (H5)	Locomotorily Modes
	Trophic Through (H4)	Trophic Level

matches should exhibit differences which correspond to differences in landscape architecture. The second prediction is that if non-landscape processes predominate and give us over riding, common signal in all lamp genera, then most inter-base pattern matches should show similar levels of similarity.

Both landscape and non-landscape hypotheses are supported by the mix of my findings. I found that the first prediction is mostly true, the second prediction is false, but that two to three zones are consistently found in most mammal community lamp structures which contain high densities of lamps. These three zones consists to most community lamp

structures reveal little about most gaps separating humps but do explain some of the largest gaps separating groups of humps.

I used the index of landscape structural complexity (LSCI) to order biomes and super-biomes according to rank of complexity. I found that these rankings do predict the values of similarity indices (Shared Lump Frequency index) in pattern matches between pairs of biomes and pairs of super-biome lump structures. Indices of pattern matching were high, medium or low when the groups paired represented landscapes of very similar, slightly similar, or dissimilar landscape structural complexity, respectively. This trend is not the product of qualitative structural differences of the extremes (mountains versus deserts); differences in landscape complexity index (LSCI) predict the index of pattern matching across the entire range of pattern match-ups between biomes or super-biomes. This range of indices is poor index values for pattern matches completely deflates the second prediction.

Landscape complexity predicts the degree of pattern matching in comparison of pairs of animal community lump patterns. However, in the aggregate, patterns of lump pattern matching common to all systems irrespective of landscape type suggest that the Taxon-Diversity hypothesis is an incomplete explanation. I found three regions on the mammal size axis where humps are found in the majority of all mammal study site lump structures. I determined the bounds of these common lump regions by aggregating the cores of lump pattern matching between every possible match-up of pairs of super-biomes. The cores along the size axis where most humps are found which are common to most study site lump structures are 1.2 to 1.8, 3.28 to 4.25, and 6.75 to 5.9  $\log_{10}$  body mass.



### Lump Structure Predicts Animal Use of Environment

In my most exciting test of the Textural Discontinuity hypothesis I found that lump structure predicts the scale and texture of landscape architecture exploited by mammals. Specifically, mammal species in a lump share certain features in the landscape as their exploitation patterns. Species in lumps with smaller mean body mass used finer textures over smaller spatial extents than did animal species in larger sized body lumps. I found these results when I classified landscape structure using a range of resolutions from micro-scale (needles in trees) to macro-scale (mountains). I did not find any correlation between lump structure and patterns of environmental use when the latter was defined only at coarse macro-scale resolutions, such as differences in habitat patch types, for example, *Shocks versus grasslands*.

### Tests of the Organismic and Phylogenetic Hypotheses

None of the non-landscape hypotheses showed any significant amount of power to predict the discontinuities which separate lumps in body size distributions of animal communities. However, I found regularities in body size patterns at sub-community levels (groups within the community) and at levels common to many communities found globally. An organismal hypothesis, the Competitive Niche and Size Displacement Hypothesis (II) predicts the body size patterns at the sub-community level, which I found to be over-dispersions of body sizes within lumps. A phylogenetic hypothesis, the Macro-Phylogeny Hypothesis (III) predicts the lump patterns common to most mammal communities which matched body size distributions at the taxonomic

**Order level.** All other Organismic or Phylogenetic hypotheses showed no power in explaining community jump structure.

### Body Size Distributions Within Lumps

The **Competitive Niche and Size Displacement Hypothesis (H1)** in recent applications does not predict lump structure within an animal community. It predicts the antithesis of discontinuities, which is *over-dispersion*, the interspacing of body sizes which is more even than expected by chance. In collaboration with Craig Allen, I tested H1 and found no evidence of *over-dispersion* of body sizes across the entire community. However, we did find that species body masses are *over-dispersed* within lumps.

If *over-dispersion* is evidence of competition, then this evidence suggests that the arena of operation for competition is within a single range of scale, not across all scales. Species within lumps exploit landscape objects within the same range of scale, and competition is minimized by size dispersion within lumps with minor shifting of the range of scale exploited. Another option might be a regulated jump up or down in size to another lump which exploits the landscape at an entirely different scale range.

### Lumps Body Size Distributions Within Communities

No two-landscape hypothesis showed any power to predict lump structure patterns at the community level, specifically the patterns of membership of species within lumps. I found only random relations between patterns of species membership in lumps and in any of the categories representing hypotheses 1, 4 and 5. I found the least support for

the Limited Bioge (H4) and the Trophic Trough (H5) hypotheses. In more general surveys of memberships in trophic categories I found members of both categories (carnivores vs. herbivore / omnivores) are present in most lumps, and the size distributions of both categories are continuous over most of the size range, but show no clustering. I found more equivocal support for the Macro-Phylogeny (H2) hypothesis in that relations between membership in specific lumps and membership in specific taxonomic orders was random, only 21 percent of the time.

Phylogenetic patterns at the level of species or genera showed no capacity to predict patterns of lump pattern matching within biomas or within super-biomas. I found no support for The Noah's Ark hypothesis (H1) in that there is no significant relationship between indices of similarity (species or genera) and indices of lump pattern commonality (intra-biomas) or lump pattern matching (inter-biomas).

### Lumpy-Body-Size Distributions Common to Most Consumers

I found that phylogenetic patterns at the level of taxonomic Orders can predict lump patterns common to most mammal consumers. These common lump sizes are too coarse to predict individual gaps but do forecast the size ranges where most lumps are found. Of the two phylogeny-based hypotheses (H2 and H3) only The Macro-Phylogeny Hypothesis (H3) showed power to predict patterns of lump pattern matching within and between biomas. This conclusion emerges from the significant overlap between the size distributions of mammal orders and the scores on the size axis with high lump pattern commonality

## Synthesis

Jump structure is not the product of a single process, it reflects the multiple effects of several processes operating at the levels of organisms, landscapes and phylogeny (Figure 6-3). These conclusions stem from the support I found for the Competitive Niche and Size Displacement (SN), the Omernik (SO), and the Textural-Continuity (TC) Hypotheses. Multiple interpretations are possible, but I offer one synthesis to explain jump patterns by integrating these different levels of process operation.

Animal body mass jump structure results from the interplay between sets of processes operating within three domains. Evolutionary realization of body mass at the level of taxonomic orders establishes a roughly bimodal body size distribution. This phylogenetic body size template is the focal context which constrains body size selection opportunities of processes operating at the level of animal communities in specific landscapes. Processes which regulate animal communities draw on this bimodal body size distribution and split it into jumps based on competition for available resources, mediated by a discontinuous landscape architecture. That is to say, competitive selection within limited scale ranges will cause species body masses to converge on a limited number of size ranges (jumps) which reflect the discontinuous set of opportunities offered by the landscape structural heterogeneity. Competition is minimized by shifting the scale of resource exploitation slightly within a scale domain or greatly by invading to a larger or smaller scale domain. This translates to even dispersion of body sizes within jumps as shifting from one body size jump to another.

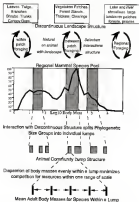


Figure 4-1. Synthetic Model integrating interactions between patterns of phylogeny and landscape structure as mediated through competition.

### Implications for Biological Theory and Conservation

Efforts to protect such things as biodiversity or the capacity of natural systems to persist are stymied by the tension between the imperatives to conserve what appears to be irreplaceably disappearing and to understand systems whose complexity transcends mere numbers. They are dynamic and non-linear in their behavior. Understanding must reduce the complexity of nature to some evaluable subset of processes and actors to give conservation actions an effective focus. That work is part of wider efforts to explore the importance of a discontinuous set of architectures in the environment to animal behavior and survival. To the extent that this work tests that importance, it helps to develop an important set of simplifying concepts for ecological theory and conservation.

If the discontinuities in animal mass reflect the presence of animal communities through interactions with a discontinuous landscape, then animal biomass is a useful index of those interactions. Furthermore, it identifies subsets of the animal community interacting with subsets of the landscape structure. This reduces system complexity from hundreds of species and landscape shapes to a handful of groups. This constitutes a dramatic simplifying step for the conceptualization and execution of conservation actions.

It also ties groups within the animal community to a small set of processes which operate to structure the landscape. Without negating the importance of any other species into the effects on animal survival of temperature, moisture, productivity, disease) or resource use of

processes, the understanding of animal-landscape interactions establishes some very useful conceptual linkages between animal communities, landscape structure and structuring processes. By doing so in the spirit of adaptive inference, it opens the door to richer understanding through parallel testing of the relative contributions to the richness of ecological systems of landscape structure in addition to other key sets of factors already being investigated. As shown in this work this may clarify the contributions of non-landscape factors, such as phylogeny. Systems as large and complex as ecosystems are undeniably multi-causal, so insights into the relative importance of various processes and the manner in which they interact are vital both to theory and conservation.

## APPENDIX A

### TESTING THE SENSITIVITY OF LUMP ANALYSIS TO SOURCES OF BIAS IN WITHIN DATA SETS

#### Introduction

Holling (1962) uses discontinuous patterns of animal microgeometry (Chapman) as evidence of animal interactions with a discontinuous world. These interactions purportedly are functional links between animals and the landscape, potentially enhancing selection either at evolutionary or community organization levels. As such, animal coexistence act as a *hurdle* (Holling 1962) of discontinuous landscape structure. Trait growth is hampered as an index of this hurdle function when one can rule out spurious sources of discontinuities in animal size distributions. In this article I describe two possible sources of spurious humpness and discuss their potential to undermine Lump Analysis.

#### Error Source 1. Inadequate Counting of Animal Populations

Failure to account for all species in a community could create gaps in a size distribution and be a source of spurious humpness. This failure could emerge from inadequate survey methods, significant variability in the open-time dynamics of species populations, or some combination of the two. In the latter case the 'optimal' or 'non-equilibrium' nature of animal communities, wherein the species composition of communities appears to



fluctuate unpredictably from year to year, is a subject of on-going and lively debate (Canwell and Sibly 1983; Wilson 1984; Jolani et al. 1996).

### **Error Source 3. Intra-specific body size variation**

Another source of spurious lumpiness might result from an arbitrarily narrow definition of sexual size. Perhaps the integration of the separate intra-specific size variabilities of all species/populations actually is a continuous distribution for the entire community. However, the choice of a single number, mean adult body mass, to represent each species might ignore much of the actual variability and create a set of arbitrarily discrete data points. Such incomplete accounting of the full variability in sizes might artificially bias the likelihood of finding 'significant' discontinuities in such an arbitrary size data set. Sexual dimorphism is another source of size variability ignored by the use of mean adult body mass for each species. Consideration of each sex separately might result in a community size distribution which is more or less continuous.

The introduction of spurious lumpy patterns undermines Lump Analysis' reliability in several ways. First, if sexual community morphology does indeed possess landscape structure, such a 'true' signal might be masked, distorted or swamped. On the other hand, if no biomass landscape exists, Lump Analysis merely reflects artifacts of sampling error (Source 1) or size definition error (Source 3). The challenge is to determine the actual occurrence of such error sources and then to probe rigorously for their potential to influence Lump Analysis' ability to detect lump patterns. I now describe the design of the tests of Error Source 1 and Error Source 2.

### Testing Implications of Error Sources on Lump Analysis

In this Appendix I test lump analysis for its vulnerability to these two sources of error. For each error source I create a test which uses a known data set's lump structure as a template pattern and seeks to define the pattern-masking error level which will make it unlikely for lump analysis to detect the original lump pattern. The actual risk to lump analysis posed by either error source relates to whether observed error levels exceed the pattern-masking level found in the test. I will assess the actual risk by examining whether the pattern-masking error level is likely or unlikely given a frequency distribution of observed error levels. Using size variation as an example, if the pattern-masking level of size variation is on the extreme upper tail of the distribution of observed size variations, then the risk is low, and lump analysis appears robust to such a source of error.

I establish observed error levels by collecting data from literature on the extent and intensity of both error sources. I report on the test estimates for carrying error in animal census and on measures of instability in annual community species composition. For the second error source I marshal data on size variability and degree of sexual dimorphism in mammals and birds. I then predict the pattern-masking test level based on known characteristics associated with the template data sets. For example, I can use the size of discontinuities in the angular lump structures to predict how much body size variation might alter the location of those discontinuities and cause lump analysis to fail to find the original lump structure.

For the actual tests in this Appendix I create two computer simulation experiments to test the potential of each error source to introduce spurious

pattern in Lump Analysis. I test the accuracy of the test within the computer program design which dictates how to simulate the effects of either error source on lump analysis. Finally, I compare the levels of each error source observed in nature with the simulated error levels (the measured pattern-marking values) associated in my computer experiments with collapse in the reliability of Lump Analysis to find patterns. I now report on the causes and the observed rates for both potential sources of error. I begin with the factors underlying observed error rates in animal censuses.

### **Determining Exact Error Rates in Animal Censuses**

Factors which render mammal species lists incomplete and/or unreliable are numerous. Differences in the kind, quality and duration of census sampling methods are local error sources which undermine each individual list and lower their inter-site comparability. Each sampling approach is biased toward that fraction of the fauna whose morphology and/or behavior makes it susceptible to capture by that particular method. Multiple auxiliary techniques such as trapping (conventional live and pitfall), diurnal and nocturnal hunting or censusing by sight, mist-netting and interviewing local residents, must be used in combination to comprehensively sample mammal communities. While the list of techniques is shorter, major limitations are faced by bird censusing techniques (Ralph and Scott 1982). The desiring to maintain research efforts of sufficient scope and duration is rare. Lack of standardization in terms of application protocols and duration and intensity of effort make it hard to distinguish real faunal differences between localities. One comparison of mammal censuses in Neotropical lowland rainforests (Voss and Emmons

1994) noted disparities in sampling efforts ranging from one year to several decades.

Field censuses are constrained by practical limitations, but even extraordinary efforts cannot overcome certain challenges of tracking spatially diffuse populations. An obvious and inescapable source of error is that rare species are more likely to be missed than common ones (Harbert 1975, Hock et al. 1979, Ishteva et al. 1988, Green and Young 1992). An even more demanding challenge than establishing a species' presence is confirming its absence. Ishteva (1992) points out that a species' presence can be affirmed by detection of one or more individuals, but failure to detect does not necessarily provide any information. Even if a species' presence is confirmed, the reliability of establishing links between species and landscape features may hinge on determining the degree of presence. Comparisons of bird censuses for species richness are often misleading not only due to differences in quality and quantity of sampling effort but also because of failure to distinguish 'true' (resident) from 'marginal' (migrant) species (Rosen 1994).

Large scale sources of error in animal surveys include the geographical and institutional context in which the census is carried out. Local patterns of species distribution can also influence the comparability of bird censuses in that surveyors fail to note that diversity of habitats surrounding a site can influence the number of species observed (Rosen 1994). Other factors contributing to the uncertainty of manual censuses include dependence on occurrence records from institutions like museums. Such data have unknown reliability because sampling probabilities are likely to vary according to what habitat or taxon are investigated (Davis et al. 1992). Other confounding factors include delimitation by barriers, the fact that species accumulation curves are not asymptotic for any fauna, and high inter-site

variability in all aspects of fieldwork (Yost and Emerson 1996). The authors conclude that omission error is prevalent in most mammal censuses:

*Comparisons of inventory results with geographic  
expectations (from range data) suggest that all  
existing inventories are incomplete.*

In addition to detection methodology, the inherent dynamics in space and time of animal populations is another source of error in determinations of animal community species composition. I consider first animal survey accuracy estimates which attempt to quantify the combined effects of both sources. I then discuss attempts to quantify the latter source, population dynamics, as an indirect accuracy estimate of animal community surveys.

#### Sources of Accuracy Estimates for Animal Surveys

I found estimates of the range of error for terrestrial vertebrate population censuses in literature assessing the precision and accuracy of a number of different animal survey research projects. For birds, I examined studies of the Breeding Bird Survey (Robbins et al. 1988, Sauer and Dwyer 1993), and the Christmas Bird Count (DeSman 1980). Mammal community censuses based on range maps in ecological communities are broadly employed without a quantitative assessment of error (Yost and Emerson 1996). I found omissions (false negative) and commissions (false positive) error was estimated for those bird and mammal censuses which are based on extrapolations of geographical range overlap in studies of the Gap Analysis Project (Newell et al. 1996, Edwards et al. 1994).

#### Results—Error Estimates for Bird and Mammal Community Surveys

Few attempts have been made to assess the accuracy of surveys of entire animal communities. The Gap Analysis Program (Baskin 1988, Scott et

et al. 1995) just to be confused with Mayfield's Gelf Pattern Analysis - see Chapter 2) of the National Biological Survey had among its objectives the mapping of species richness in the United States. Species richness estimates were derived from field observations, range maps, and distributional models relating animal abundance (or presence/absence) to vegetational patterns (Corney and Noon 1994). A number of accuracy estimates were generated to assess the rate of sampling error. Edwards et al. (1995) estimate error ranges for animals composed of terrestrial vertebrates to be between 0% and 24% (insects) and 4% to 24% (composites) of the total number of species in the community. The error rates were highest for amphibians and reptiles and lowest for birds and mammals. On the other hand, Lawellyn and Peterson (1994) found higher rates of accuracy of single predictions (89% and 92% for amphibians and reptiles, respectively). These estimates suggest an error range of 0% to 26% for both insects and composites with a median value of 17%.

The paucity of research in this area undermines confidence in most estimates for animal richness. Another approach to assessing error in estimates of community composition is to study the degree to which populations fluctuate in numbers of individuals over time. Communities characterized by relatively stable species densities have been labeled 'equilibrium' (Chesson and Case, 1984). I use the term 'equilibrium' in a sense (limit cycles, strange attractors) wider than that of classical (point-equilibrium) competition theory (Hutchinson 1959). A community is 'equilibrium' if enough species consistently occupy all niches and habitats such that communities are resource limited (Cody 1974a, Schaffer 1976b, Pimm 1982). The absence of equilibrium might suggest such maintenance of association rather inter-organismal or between organisms and landscapes, that any of the hypotheses posed in Chapter 2 becomes irrelevant.

### Are Animal Communities Equilibrial?

Some evidence from structurally simple habitats does not support the equilibrial view. So little covariance was exhibited between habitat types and rates of bird species in shrub steppe ecosystems that Wiens (1984) suggested that these and other ecosystems are 'non-equilibrial'. Specifically, size level comparisons of habitat use by avian ground foraging guilds showed bird populations varying independently of habitat structural features and of density changes of coexisting species. Non-equilibrial properties have been observed for other taxa at other sites as well. Wide fluctuations of species abundance were noted for lizards in the Galapagos (Grant 1986) and for dominant insect herbivores in goldenrod (Kassirer, 1986). Wiens (1984) proposed that the study of community organization rules be related to the inherent spatio-temporal variability of populations by identifying where each natural community is on a continuum from non-equilibrial to equilibrial states.

Random changes in presence from year to year are plausible for some individual species or even groups of species in mammals as well. Brown (1975) reports such levels of population fluctuation for desert rodents. Spatio-temporal population fluctuations are evident in the reindeer in the arctic tundra range. Larger, broad ranging species may return infrequently. For example, local areas in northern Canada are revisited by caribou every 40+ years as a result of migration cycles (Fisher 1988). Small species, such as mountain rodents, may be undetectable during dramatic lows in population cycles. Local extinctions may require consistent recolonization from outside source areas (Pellam 1984, Harris 1991).

The possibility that an animal community is non-equilibrium undermines the reliability of species lists compiled for each landscape, be it a habitat, ecosystem or biome. Since the spatio-temporal variability of populations scales negatively with the size of the area sampled (Clarell and Sibly 1992), placing a community on the equilibrium continuum depends on the scale at which the community is defined. For instance, the same ground foraging guild "communities" which appeared non-equilibrium at smaller scales (habitat floristic) did exhibit equilibrium properties over broader spatial categories such as 'western mesic prairie', 'west shortgrass prairie', and 'western shrubsteppe habitat' (Wiens 1994).

One recent study of changes in population abundances at a single site in Chile suggests the ephemeral nature of groups within such communities and cautions against reliance on non-dynamic, short-term definitions of species composition. Jones et al (1996) examined a relatively stable predator guild (owls, falcons and hawks) at a semi-desert site, Azca in Chile, and found that the species composition fluctuated sufficiently over time to invalidate biodiversity conservation plans based on static (single year) definitions of predator populations. Similarly, while range estimates predicted their presence, weaverhens (*Colapetes*) were not detected for more than 20 years at the Tapa Biological Station in Southeastern Marotóba (Ndj Prutz, pers comm.) Whether this represents a serendipitous encounter with an elusive but ever present species or simply a southern migration cycle which periodically brings weaverhens to that site, the predictability of a species or group of species occurring at a study site still remains in question.

Non-equilibrium has not been demonstrated as a general property of ecosystem-level animal communities. One survey of the equilibrium properties of populations of various taxa at some fifty ecosystem sites found



that the rank order of relative abundances of species remained the same for most sites (Connell and Sibly 1983) but drastic fluctuations without any evident stability were found in several instances. Temporal fluctuations were defined as changes in abundance as measured between two population censuses separated by at least one population turnover. The log transforms of temporal variabilities for population fluctuations were continuously distributed from near 0 to 1.11 standard deviations. Such a continuous does not provide a model with defined statistical parameters to establish bounds of equilibrial behavior. Connell and Sibly (1983) conclude that difficulties in defining equilibria had prevented adequate testing of ideas of community stability based on equilibrium states.

For mammals this question does not apply only to the larger, more low ranging species because the smaller species are elusive, and their population sizes can fluctuate to lows which challenge detection. However, at large enough scales of group size and space/time dimensions of monitoring, mammal presence appears relatively stable at landscape study sites (Connell and Sibly 1983). Avian mobility brings the presence of almost any species in the same kind community into question. But the challenge of detecting mobile birds is lessened by their vociferousness, a behavior which is shared by many species on a predictable (preseasonal) basis. This is evident in that detection resolution is gauged as the ability to measure mean population abundance changes, not presence or absence. For example, *Farmers in Flight*, an organization that monitors population trends in neotropical migrants, defines an effective monitoring scheme as one that has a 99 percent chance of detecting a 20 percent abundance decline in a species over a 25 year period (Weicker et al., 1993). Such standards make determinations of presence or absence seem relatively risk free. The challenge then falls to differentiating

between the 'true' breeding species and the transients (Romain 1994), a task as yet unquantified.

#### Summarizing Birds as Consumers of Community Species Compositions

Most assessments of the accuracy of animal community surveys have been evaluations of large scale (regional and continental) censuses such as the Breeding Bird Survey (Jodanis et al. 2000; Jones and Deegan 1992), the Christmas Bird Count (Dunning 1981), the Gap Analysis Project (Lorelylyn and Peterson 1996; Edwards et al. 1996) or similar efforts as the Neotropics to estimate animal communities by overlapping range maps (Voss and Emlenton 1996). I am unaware of any accuracy estimates for animal population surveys when the census was done in a more intensive manner focused on a single research area, e.g. when an entire animal community was the object of study from an established research center over a number of years.

It is reasonable to assume that site-specific species lists based on relatively continuous observations over a number of years are subject to lower estimate error than species lists synthesized from geographic overlaps in range maps. In the absence of quantitative of single site censusing error rates I choose a conservative interpretation of estimates based on range maps, namely the median value, 12 percent, for the range of error attributed to censuses (Lorelylyn and Peterson 1996; Edwards et al. 1996).

#### Determining How to Summarize Error Source 2

My survey of census data and new studies suggests that most species abundances in mammals and bird communities are relatively stable over time, and that there is little likelihood that population fluctuations or census errors threaten lump analysis. Only a very small minority of cases (6 mammalian study sites exhibited errors in size-spatial population

dynamic as a community-wide trait (Connell and Sousa 1983). The relative lack of population fluctuations by most species at a site suggest a measure of integrity in community organization which is sustained over time and across a variety of events such as disturbances.

It is difficult to imagine that my computer simulation test will find a pattern-marking value of random change in species abundances below the low levels of temporal fluctuation observed for most species. This suggests that only a strong or extreme test will uncover lump analysis sensitivity to population fluctuations or census error. I propose to probe the stabilizing influence of the integrity of community organization on lump analysis by examining near-ordinary levels of population fluctuation, which contrast with the relatively persistent abundances of most species. I shall increase the severity of my test by simulating random temporal changes in abundance not for a community, as observed, but for 222 species in the entire animal community.

I now survey the underlying causes and literature data of observed levels of the second error source so as to establish the severity of my test of its influence on lump analysis.

#### **Determining Known Rates of Annual Body Size Variability**

The second source of error in defining animal community body size distributions may emerge from narrowly defining animal morphometry as mean adult body mass. Though inter-species size variation assured that mean body size might ill represent differences in the animal community size distribution as detected by Lump Analysis. If the underlying community size distribution is continuous, then the choice of arbitrarily discrete size points might increase the evidence of artificial discontinuities and boost detection of

optimal jumps. I first discuss sources of size variation and then report on observed levels of size variation for birds and mammals.

### Sources of Body-Size Variation in Terrestrial Vertebrates

Body size varies within populations for a variety of reasons, ranging from intrinsic (genetic) to extrinsic (environmental). Intrinsic mechanisms which affect body size include 'maternal effects'. Maternal effects are influences on offspring phenotype resulting from non-genetic contributions of parents or even grandparents, or from environmental contributions such as a nutritional, endocrine, behavioral or regulatory (Rousseur 1994). The mean adult size of some species can vary over time as a result of maternal effects. Species whose population sizes undergo cyclic oscillations often exhibit corresponding shifts in mean body morphometrics (Clutton-Brock). For example, meadow voles reach adult body sizes up to 30 to 35 percent larger during population increases and peaks than during declines or lows (Clutton-Brock). Such size changes during peak populations are not functions of increases in age or percent of fat in an individual but of more fundamental changes, namely, skeletal proportions (Kruuk 1998). Analysis of heritability on body weight, growth rate, age and weight at sexual maturity in *Microtus pennsylvanicus* shows that most of the variation was non-genetic in origin (Rousseur and Boag 1987). Increases in mean size and growth rate were attributed to maternal effects, and milk quality and quantity.

For both birds (especially raptors and insectivores) and mammals most of an individual's growth is a function of parental investment (Roff 1988). When parental investment influences growth rate, the age at maturity is proportional to adult body mass raised to 0.3 (Roff 1989). Since the lower the power the younger the animal is at maturity, and since most growth is related to the relatively brief early intervals of parental investment, it follows that

birds and mammals (with the exceptions of some very small species) are at an adult size plateau for a majority of their life span. However, for mammals the number of individuals surviving to subadult stages from species to species, and often the proportion of a population occupied by adults is a mosaic (Bill Frank, pers. comm.). This increases the likelihood that sampling will mix sub-adults with adults and increase the variation of reported mammal adult body masses.

A genetic source of body size variation within populations is indeterminate growth. Growth rates for some species do not decline to a plateau with adulthood but remain positive throughout an organism's life. Short-lived organisms like microtine rodents exhibit indeterminate growth patterns with weight gain continuing until death (Bowness and Hoag 1987). Larger mammals such as male deer (*Ovis montanus*) and elephants (*Loxodonta africana*) subside and remain around a maximal adult size in the last 25 percent of their life spans (Frees, 1985), and birds' growth rates allow them to rapidly achieve adult size. For these reasons as well as the contributions of parental investment it appears that for a majority of mammals and birds large intra-species size variation due to indeterminate growth is not likely.

Another genetic source of size variation in some animal populations is sexual dimorphism. Sexual dimorphism might confer selective advantage for: 1) larger males in inter-male reproductive conflicts (Darwin, 1871; Selander, 1972; Trivers, 1972), 2) larger females with greater reproductive success (Fries, 1988); and 3) smaller females with lower homeostatic demands (Emlage, 1975; Moore, 1981). Sexual dimorphism is more pronounced in larger species, though even the lack of polygyny is associated a clear positive trend between size and dimorphism is evident only in primates and

small mammals (Jones, 1987). The extent of size variation due to sexual dimorphism cannot presently be determined for ecosystem-level communities because of data scarcity (Dunning 1992, Irlin and Downing 1992).

Environmental factors related to the timing of sampling can contribute to variation in the body masses reported for mammals. These factors involve variability in body weights resulting from changes in reproductive status, feeding and general physiological condition (Irlin 1992). Animal weights can shift significantly depending on the phase of pregnancy (females only), time since last meal, current health status, and phase of the feeding season. Quantification of sexual dimorphism can be affected by the latter when weight gain rates during the season are significantly different between males and females (Irlin 1992). Body weights of small mammals can decline overnight by as much as 10-20 percent or more due to dehydration after trap trapping, though this varies greatly as a function of ambient temperature (Josh Leach, Curator of Mammals, Museum of Natural History, University of Georgia, pers. comm.). I now describe my data sources and methods for determining observed ranges of size variability in birds and mammals.

### Characterizing Variability in Avian Body Masses

#### Methods of determining avian body mass size variability

I randomly sampled the size variabilities of 100 bird species from Dunning (1992) by an iterative process. I selected a page number at random and then a species within that page at random, and if the species had data both for mean and standard deviation statistics for species body mass, then I derived a coefficient of variation value by dividing the standard deviation by mean species body mass and selected another species at random. If mean and

standard deviation statistics were not available for a species, then I started the selection sequence again.

### **Results: Frequencies of mean body mass and variability**

I find relatively low values for inter-species variation in mean adult body masses for birds. This pattern is consistent across all local species, irrespective of sex or number of observations. For example, the coefficient of variation (CV), expressed as a percent, is 1.35 for all observations combined (Table A-1), and the CV values of all 9 sub-categories range only 7 percent an either side of that figure. Highly similar summary CV and standard deviation values characterize every category. Within each sub-category I find little variance in the amount of mean variation observed as indicated by the relatively low average values (5.5 percent) of standard deviation statistics for CV values across all sub-categories.

All determinations of mean species body mass face the question of whether sample size ( $n$ ) was adequate to capture the variability of body mass within the population. This question is appropriate here since more than forty percent of the random samples employed to create these summary statistics involved bird species with body mass values derived from relatively few ( $n < 30$ ) observations. I noted the potential that low CV values are associated with low  $n$ . By measuring CV values in the low  $n$  sub-category I find almost no difference between low  $n$  CV values and those of all other sub-categories despite the fact that most of these samples are very small, mean and standard deviation statistics for  $n$  are 24.9 and 5.8, respectively.

If a trend links bird mean body mass and CV values such that larger birds have larger CV values, then another spurious source of low body mass variance might be the under sampling of larger species. I regressed size variance on mean adult body mass for all 1000 samples and found no

significant trend relates CV values to mean bird adult body mass (Figure A-1). A slight increasing slope (4% percent) is evident in a regression of CV values on body mass, but an *r*-squared value (0.002) indicates little explanatory value.

**Table A-1: Variation in Mean Adult Avian Body Masses Disaggregated into Data Source Categories (data drawn randomly from Durston 1983)**

Data Source Category	Mean CV	SD	Number of
	(Percent)		Observations
Males	7.61	3.48	228
Females	8.02	4.00	216
Both Sexes	8.81	4.33	100
Unknown	8.86	7.29	379
< 30 observations	8.82	5.64	473
<b>All Birds</b>	<b>8.15</b>	<b>5.91</b>	<b>951</b>

I developed a sexual dimorphism ratio (SDR) to estimate the amount of body size variance within species contributed by differences in male and female mean body masses. I designed the SDR ratio to normalize this size variance with reference to the mean body mass reported for the species. To do this I calculate the absolute value of the difference in mean male and female body masses and divide by the mean adult body mass value of the species (equation A.1). I calculated mean and standard deviation values for the SDR for each taxonomic order for those species of a taxonomic order for which data was available.



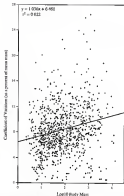


Figure A-5. Variation in adult body masses for 694 species of birds as a function of mean body mass size - Means size and standard deviation statistics data taken from Dunning, 1993.

Data availability for both males and females was not consistent across all orders (Pomery 1993). No data were available for both males and females of a species for three orders: Graculiformes, Phaeocephaliformes, and Trogoniformes. Numbers of male/female size observations in the remaining 25 orders ranged from 2 to 176 with a mean of 33 and a standard deviation of 41.

$$SDR = \frac{\ln[(M_{\text{male}} - M_{\text{female}})]}{M_{\text{female}}} \quad (A.1)$$

Where  $M$  = Mean Adult Body Mass

I found higher values of variance in the Sexual Dimorphism Ratio than I did for overall intra-species body size variation. The mean SDR for these 25 taxonomic orders was 0.123 with a standard deviation of 0.055. With the exceptions of the Falconiformes and Graculiformes, the mean SDR values of all bird taxonomic orders fell below 0.28, with a mean of 0.142 and a standard deviation of 0.08. I did not find a strong trend linking body size to SDR values. I regressed SDR values on mean log body mass (Figure A-3) and find a very slight increasing trend ( $r$ -squared = 0.11) suggesting little difference in SDR between bird species over a broad range of mean body masses found in different orders.

#### Summary-observed variability of avian body mass size

In summary, sexual dimorphism potentially contributes much more intra-species size variation than any other cause. Mean size variation, expressed as percent of mean body mass was 8.4 percent (Standard Deviation

= 5.5 percent) for interspecies size variation and 17.3 percent (Standard Deviation = 5.3 percent) for sexual dimorphism.

### **Observed Size Variability in Mammalian Body Masses**

#### **Methods of determining mammalian body mass size variability**

I took data on the size variation inherent in mammal populations (male and female data combined) minimum and maximum CV values for body mass directly from Yablouev (1974). I assembled data on size variation due to sexual dimorphism in mammals for each of seventeen mammal taxonomic orders using a integrative random search procedure similar to that which I used for birds. For each order, I drew one hundred random samples of species with mean adult body masses reported for both males and females from Silve and Downing (1985). I calculated mean and standard deviation values for a sexual dimorphism ratio in the same manner as I did for birds.

#### **Results: Inequity of mammalian body mass size variabilities**

Body mass size variance in mammalian taxonomic orders, as represented by the coefficient of variation, ranges between 10 and 15 percent with a median value of 12.4 percent for body mass (Table A-1). Mammalian body length, another size metric related to body mass, shows a narrower range (4 to 6.3 percent) around a lower median CV value (5.1 percent).

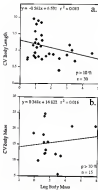
As with birds, if any pattern links mammal mean body mass with body size variance, then larger mammals would have larger intra-species size variance. If I over sampled the small end of the size range I might arrive at an artificially low CV value. I tested the potential for such a skewed CV estimate by regressing the CV values on both body mass and body length and found only slight, non-signified trends in relation to body mass (Figure A-3).



As with body I found higher body mass than variance due to sexual dimorphism (Sexual Dimorphism Ratio: SDR) in mammalian orders than from observations of taxa-specific size variation. SDR values (Table A-3) average 0.27% across 34 mammal orders with a mean standard deviation of 0.203. The most prominent outliers are insectivores (0.59), marsupials (0.41), primates (0.40) and rodents (0.37). The distribution of SDR values has a left skew, with most values falling below the mean. If calculated as a weighted average mean SDR is much higher, 0.3%, however this value may add a bias for those orders for which data exists and may redistribute no information about actual SDR values at nature.

Table A-3: Morphometric Variation in Mammalian Orders (after Yablouin 2014)

Mammal Order	Coefficient of Variation (CV) (percent)							
	Body Length				Body Mass			
	mm		cm		gms		kg	
	min	max	Mean	Order	min	max	Mean	Order
Insectivora	0.0	0.6	0.3	138	0.1	11.3	1.0	79
Lagomorpha	0.7	4.3	1.1	5	0.6	11.3	20.0	2
Rodentia	0.0	0.8	0.7	208	0.3	12.7	20.0	210
Artiodactyla	0.0	0.1	0.1	6	0.0	20.7	14.0	5
Carnivora	0.1	3.3	1.0	36				
Marsupialia	0.0	7.1	0.1	3				
Primates					10.0	17.0	10.0	7
<b>All Orders</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>364</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>18.0</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>200</b>



**Figure 4-3** Coefficient of variation in isopneusteres (a, mass/body length to mass/body mass) of terrestrial species regressed on log mass/body mass.

Table A-5 Size variance due to sexual dimorphism and body mass ranges in mammalian orders (data from Hilde and Downing, 1995)

Taxonomic Order	Male Body Mass		Sexual Dimorphism		Body Mass			
	mean	log(SD)	mean	Ratio	mean	Range		
1. Artibeus	25	1.024	20	0.80	0.25	200	0.407	0.200
2. Canis	15	4.134	10	0.67	0.25	10	0.026	1.00
3. Chiroptera	15	1.211	10	0.67	0.25	10	0.408	0.200
4. Dromopos	1	5.6	1		5.6	1		5.6
5. Helicoglyph	12	2.467	8	0.67	0.75	8	0.005	0.005
6. Insectivora	125	1.05	75	0.6	1.50	41	0.020	1.00
7. Lagenorhina	46	3.36	46	0.95	1.50	44	0.70	1.70
8. Marsupialia	19	1.61	17	0.89	0.61	15	0.41	0.10
9. Mammalia	156	1.05	100	0.64	0.67	100	0.007	1.00
10. Monotremata	2	3.76	2	0.10	0.70	2	0.70	0.50
11. Petaiodactyla	25	3.02	2	0.07	0.10	14	0.14	0.10
12. Pholidota	4	3.70	4	0.94	0.10	4	0.01	0.01
13. Primates	147	0.85	51	0.35	0.52	51	0.01	2.10
14. Proboscidea	3	3.56	2	0.33	0.33	3	0.30	0.01
15. Rodentia	151	1.40	10	0.07	1.05	100	0.04	1.00
16. Sauriata	11	1.91	1	0.09	0.00	1	0.50	0.00
17. Tubulirostra	3	4.91	2	0.60	0.20	2	0.05	0.00
18. Ursidae	11	0.71	4	0.36	0.20	11	0.00	0.05

### Summary of observations of mammal body size variation

Because of a lack of data showing intra-species size variation across sites, values for species adult body mass, I can only report median size variation between mammal orders, expressed as percent of mean body mass, at 12.4 percent. As with birds, sexual dimorphism shows much greater potential to contribute variability in size within species. I averaged intra-species size variation for sexual dimorphism within mammal orders and found it was 27.8 percent, or slightly more than double that of interspecies size variation for all other causes.

### Determining How to Simulate Error Source 2

In this section I estimate the vulnerability of lump analysis to size variation. Recall that I define vulnerability in terms of the 'pattern-masking' error level, the level of size variation at which the original lump structure is not reliably detected by lump analysis. I estimate vulnerability by using what my estimate of pattern-masking levels of size variation is in relation to observed frequencies of size variation at the community level. If the pattern-masking level of size variation is in the extreme upper tail of the distribution of observed size variations, then the risk is low, and I can make the test relatively simple. I will first develop an estimate of the pattern-masking level of size variation. I then develop models of size variation in animal communities based on the data previously presented for bird and mammal species on two parameters of size variation related either specifically to sexual dimorphism or to a combination of all factors influencing size.



### Estimating pattern-making values for size variation in birds and mammals

I use the mean size of discontinuities or gaps which separate lumps in a known body mass data set to estimate the pattern-making level of size variation. This follows from the idea that if the axis of a species' body mass within an animal community size distribution places it near the edge of a lump, and if its inter-species size variation is near such a pattern-making level, the species could be located with equal likelihood at that lump or at the neighboring lump or at the gap in between the two lumps. Pattern-making levels of size variation push lump analysis across the threshold from reliability to unreliability. For example, Figure A-4 shows a hypothetical lump structure and locates the mean-body sizes of two species, a and b, on the edges of lumps 1 and 2, respectively. For each species the drawing also illustrates the marginal sizes, the size range of individuals with body masses which differ positively with the mean by more than one standard deviation. The potential to understand lump analysis is illustrated by the ratio between inter-species size variability and mean gap size. This potential is high when the ratio is high (Gap A) and low when the ratio is low (Gap B).

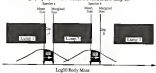


Figure A-4 Hypothetical lump structure and intra-species size distributions of eight species within lumps.

I establish the distribution of known gap sizes for the test by presenting (Table A-4) the mean body masses of edge species in the lamp structure of two known data sets, boreal prairie mammals and birds (Holling 1992). I use these data to estimate the pattern-matching size variation value as the mean value of gap sizes expressed as a fraction of edge species body masses. These values are 0.04 for mammals and 0.14 for birds.

Table A-4. Gap sizes as fractions of edge species body masses in the lamp patterns of boreal prairie mammals and birds. The edges of each lamp are determined by the average body masses of the smallest (leading edge) and largest (trailing edge) species. All edge body masses are in grams.

#### A. Boreal Prairie Mammals

Lamp	Edge Species Body Mass		Gaps	Gap Size	
	Lead	Trail		% of Lead	% of Trail
1	4	13	97		0.99
2	21	48	29.1	0.37	0.61
3	25	158	284.2	0.39	1.76
4	448	3337	1837.0	0.44	0.88
5	2176	14880	9932.7	0.39	0.71
6	23920	91968	72677.4	0.42	
7	189440	888832			

#### B. Boreal Prairie Birds

Lamp	Edge Species Body Mass		Gaps	Gap Size	
	Lead	Trail		% of Lead	% of Trail
1	10	25	2.1		0.09
2	25	74	3.2	0.08	0.09
3	27	47	3.2	0.09	0.11
4	33	77	11.3	0.18	0.25
5	37	137	37.4	0.20	0.21
6	218	386	84.2	0.17	0.18
7	661	673	65.9	0.12	0.19
8	519	1676	209.0	0.13	
9	2288	4704			

Summary statistics for gap sizes as fractions of edge body masses:

#### Mammals & Birds

Mean	0.04	0.14
St. Dev.	0.02	0.03

### Ranking pattern-marking values within land and grassland size variance distributions

How size models variation in size across all species in a community greatly determines the probabilities associated with error values which mark jumps or gaps. Mean statistics are but single parameters in any comprehensive picture of size variation within an entire animal community. I use the previous data (birds) and new data (mammals) to establish frequency distribution models of size variation in mammal and birds (Figure A-6). The mean values of size variation I use as estimates of the pattern-marking error values are clearly in the upper tail of observed distributions of coefficients of variation for both taxa. Even if I extend standard deviation error bars these estimated ranges of values for pattern-marking levels of size variation are in the upper tail, indicating that marking variation in body size is unlikely to mark gap/jump patterns.

### Establishing the integrity of the test

Observed frequencies of animal size variation appear to have a left-skewed distribution which clusters animals into two groups. The majority of species exhibit little size variation resulting in little likelihood of change in their size rank or in jump membership. A minority of species, less than 7 percent of all bird species, for example, exhibit sufficient intra-species size variation that their size rank might fall by chance into another jump or into a gap. The integrity of jumps is protected by the fact that within-species size variance of most species would most likely shuffle species within a jump rather than land it in a gap or another jump.

The pattern-marking level of size variance required to cause an 'edge species' to land in a gap or in another jump might be compared to an 'escape velocity' which liberates a species from a jump's orbit. Against the

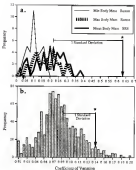


Figure 4. (a) Distributions of coefficients of variation for mean adult body masses for a) mammal species in Florida (Yodanis 1974) and the Savannah River site, South Carolina (Coffman et al. 1991), and b) in 994 random species drawn at random from Darmsig (1992). \* Asterisk marks the pattern-marking value of size variation in boreal ptarmigan animals or birds needed to make it equally likely for edge species to be in gaps or in neighboring jumps, as calculated by expressing mean gap size as a fraction of the mean body mass of edge species.

background of stability conferred on lump structure by the majority of species, large size variations within a minority of species could so easily mask them in another lump as to create a new gap. This suggests that only a minority of species might generate new gaps or significantly alter original ones, and only the largest of that minority are likely to do so. The critical value of this escape-level of size variation is indicated by a starred arrow in each diagram (Figure A-5).

Lump analysis does not appear threatened when a majority of species exhibit size variation below the levels which might mask patterns. This prompts the question: How robust is lump analysis because of this left-skewed distribution of size variation wherein most species vary little in size and a minority varies a great deal? I can test this by using a uniform distribution of size variation, wherein every species is equally likely to show a specific level of size variation, as the pattern of community level size variation which I will simulate as my test. I can clearly establish the robustness of lump analysis if it can detect the original lump pattern under such radical conditions. However, the level of size variations at which lump analysis fails to find the original pattern will set my estimate of how stabilizing left-skewed patterns of size variation are to lump analysis and to the animal community as a whole. I now describe the methods of incorporating such series protocols in the computer programs of my simulation tests.

#### **Methods for Measuring the Sensitivity of Lump Analysis to Error**

This Appendix explores the probabilities that patterns found by lump analysis are spurious because of sensitivity to either of two error sources within animal body mass data sets: random species position and random size

variables. In this section I will test the capacity of either error source to prevent Lump Analysis from detecting an original lump structure. For original data I used two body mass data sets (juv bird and one mammal) from the Insectivore Invertebrate Ofology 1992 because their lump structures are published and recognised. These lump patterns appear robust because a variety of pattern detection methodologies (Chapter 2) have consistently predicted the same or very similar lump structures for both data sets.

I will distort the original body mass size distribution of each known data set in a way which simulates the action of either one of the error sources. I can then examine these simulated or mock body mass data sets to see to what degree Lump Analysis identifies the original lump pattern. At some level of application, an error source will distort the original size data to the point where the lump pattern recognition rate decays or collapses. This is the pattern making error level, the level at which lump analysis passes the threshold from reliability to unreliability.

I apply this test using a computer simulation methodology in a three-stage analysis process. I now describe the methods of each of the three stages for 1) simulating the effects of error sources on animal size data sets, 2) detecting lump patterns in those simulated data sets, and 3) measuring the differences in lump patterns between the simulated and original body mass data sets. The general organization for the analysis process and each of the three stages is shown in Figure A-4. I run the process multiple times to test its sensitivity to different values for parameters used to recognize lump patterns in Stage 2 and correspondence between lump patterns in Stage 3. I now describe the stages of the process and then the methods of the sensitivity analysis.

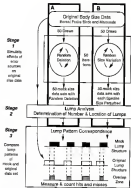


Figure A-4. Overview of the computer-aided analysis process. Two alternate analysis paths are shown: applying random deletion (Path A) to random size variation (Path B) to generate a set of 50 mock data sets for lump analysis (stage 2) and comparison with the original data sets lump pattern (stage 3).

### **Stage 1 - Methods for Simulating the Effects of an Error Source**

I created synthetic or mock versions of the original data to simulate distortions in body mass data in response to either error source. I organized the synthesis of mock data to capture, at two scales, the variation in response to error by original body mass data. The complete assembly of groups of mock data sets embraces large scale variability, the diversity of responses to a broad range of intensities of each error type. Within the data assembly each group of mock data sets embraces small scale variability, the range of responses to each level of intensity of each error type. I now describe the large and small scale organization of my synthesis of mock data.

#### **Large scale: the assembly of all groups of mock data sets**

For each error type I synthesized groups of mock data sets, wherein each group represented the response of the original data to a different intensity level of an error source. I tried to capture large scale response variability by examining a wide range of error intensities, organizing them into 14 discrete levels which ranged from 1 to 90 percent as follows: 1, 2, 5, 8, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80 and 90 percent.

#### **Small scale: each group of mock data sets**

Within each group I simulated the intensity level of an error source by approximating an axis in the original data. I tried to capture small scale (within-group) response variability by repeating the process fifty times to create a distribution of responses. Therefore, for each group I synthesized fifty mock data sets at a particular level of error operation on the original data.

**Random Deletion:** I approximated the distortion of error source 1 by randomly deleting species from the original data set and expressed each level as a percent fraction of the original number of species. For example at the ten



percent level I created 50 mock data sets by 50 iterations of randomly deleting 10 percent of the species from the original data set.

**Random Variation:** I approximated error source 2 by randomly varying the size of each species. I simulated random inter-species size variation by determining a new body mass for each species through a random draw from a Gaussian size distribution. The mean body mass value of the distribution was the body mass for that species given in the original data set. The error intensity level established the size variation (standard deviation) within the distribution. For example, at the ten percent error level I created 50 mock data sets by 50 iterations of randomly selecting a body mass value for each species from a Gaussian distribution with the original data set's mean mass value and a standard deviation set at ten percent of said mean.

Applying the random size variation process created mock data sets with identical numbers of species ( $n$ ) as that of the original data set, but the mean body mass value of each mock species would differ by some random amount within the range of variation set by the error intensity level.

Applying the random deletion process created mock data sets containing body masses identical to those of the real data set but with  $n$  differing by an amount set by the error level of the deletion process.

## Step 2 - Methods for Detecting Jumps in Size Distributions

To identify the number and location of modes (jumps) in a size distribution of mass values for adult body masses of each species, I analyzed each original and each mock body size data set using Gif-Peters Analysis (Chapter 1, Rostropo et al. 1997), a process generally referred to as Leap Analysis in this study.

### Stage 3: Measuring Pattern Correspondence Between Jump Structures

I applied the analysis process to calculate measures of correspondence between the original jump structure and those of mock data sets in two ways: numerical differences (mean and variance of jump number counted), and pattern comparison. Pattern correspondence between the original and mock jump data sets is measured by lining up both jump structures on the log<sub>10</sub> size axis and comparing the degree of overlap using jump edges as reference points (Figure A-7). Each jump is bounded by two edges, the body mass of the smallest species at the jump is designated the 'leading' edge, and the largest species' body mass at the jump is designated the 'trailing' edge. Edge-to-edge comparisons for matchability are confined by these 'leading-trailing' class designations. I matched leading edges in mock data sets only to leading edges of jumps in the original data set, and likewise, original trailing edges to mock trailing edges.

Without a known statistical model for pattern correspondence to help distinguish significant matches from noise, I devised an arbitrary set of measures which captured the categories of fit that I found in visual comparisons of original and mock jump patterns (Figure A-8). I consider an edge of a mock jump 'matched' to an original edge if its body mass value falls within a critical tolerance range (spanned by  $\epsilon$ ) around the original jump edge's body mass value. I sorted mock jumps into categories-of-fit using a conservative rule that jump edges fit closely when they lie within half the average gap width (spanned) of the original data set.

I derived  $\epsilon$ spans by calculating the value for half the width of each gap in the original data set, where the width is the difference between the log<sub>10</sub> body masses of leading and trailing edges of neighboring jumps. I

measured each width by dividing both by the leading and by the trailing edge body masses and taking the average of both measures. I found mean (and standard deviation) species values as 0.118 (0.04) for mountains and 0.022 (0.012) for banks in the jump structures of the original beaver prairie data sets.

The criteria for classifying jumps into various categories for degree of fit are based on multiples of species. For instance, the difference between a relatively tight fit ('match') and a less exact one ('straddle') hinges on whether at least one edge of a rock jump is within one or two species of an original edge. Straddles are further defined as 'Loose' if the distance between its remaining edge and either edge of an original jump is farther than two species.

I calculated overall pattern correspondence between a rock jump data set and the original by aggregating these categories into two groups: 'hits' and 'misses'. I designated as 'misses' four categories which indicate little jump pattern correspondence: 'No overlap', 'Loose Match', 'Loose Straddle' and 'Loose Jump'. All other categories I counted as 'hits'.

### Testing Sensitivity to Different Parameter Values for Pattern Detection

Pattern is detected and measured in Stage 2 (Jump Analysis) and in Stage 3 (Jump pattern correspondence). The resolution at which pattern is detected is controlled by a single parameter specific to each method. For Jump Analysis the parameter is the gap statistic criterion level (Criteria Level), and for jump pattern correspondence the parameter is species.

I tested the analysis process for its sensitivity to limited value ranges of each parameter in a novel group of simulations (Table A-4) which tested each of four possible combinations in as many sets of iterations. These 4 test

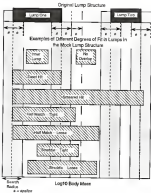


Figure A-11 Correspondence between lump structures of original and derivative mock data sets of forest grain analysis.

Figure A-7 Legend

## Directs: Measuring Correspondence in Lump Structure

Element	Description
Exact Hit	Both mock edges within search radius (radius) of the original edge.
Straddled Hit	Mock edges match leading and trailing edges of two different lumps in the original data set.
Half Match - Tight	One mock edge matched, other edge is within twice the search radius(es) of the original edge.
Half Match - Loose	One mock edge matched, other edge is greater than twice the search radius(es) away from the original edge.
Inner Lump	Neither mock edge matches, but mock lump size range falls within that of original lump.
Straddle - Tight	Both mock edges are within twice the search radius(es), but mock lump size range only partially overlaps that of the original lump size range.
Straddle - Loose	One mock edge is within twice the search radius(es), and the other mock edge is more than twice the search radius(es) away from the original edge.
No Overlap	No part of a mock lump size range overlaps that of any original lump.

order the pairings of parameters from most conservative to most liberal combinations, where conservative means avoiding Type I error. The different definitions for the Stage 2 parameter (*g*value) were conservative (*g*value = half the mean gap size (0.15 for materials, 0.032 for birds), and liberal (*g*value = One median gap size (0.30 for materials, 0.094 for birds)

Table A-4. Different combinations of input parameters to test sensitivity of the analysis process to output of pattern matching statistics

		Type of Criterion Value	
		Conservative	Liberal
Statistical Power Levels		Mean Gap Size	Median Gap Size
Conservative (Low Power)	High Criterion Level	Test 1	Test 2
Neutral (Mid Power)	Mid Criterion Level	Test 3	Test 4
Liberal (High Power)	Low Criterion Level	Test 5	Test 6

In Stage 2 of the analysis process I varied the Criterion Level used in Lump Analysis to test the influence on the lump pattern found of different interpretations of what *g*value = *real gap*. I did this by using different statistical power levels to define the criterion line above which a gap statistic is considered significant. I established the neutral or neutral point between liberal and conservative Criterion Level definitions following the procedure of Skilling (2002). I define the neutral point by selecting a power level which places the criterion line immediately above the 'knee', the range of gap statistic values over which the number of lumps detected sharply increases as the Criterion Line is lowered. This intermediate power level was 0.99 for liberal prone materials and 0.68 for liberal prone birds. For each taxon additional sets of runs were executed at power levels which bracketed

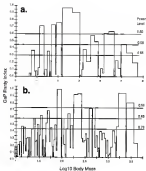


Figure A-4. Interpretations of jump structures derived from Leap Analysis (Gap Detector 2%) at different levels of statistical power for forest primates (a) mammals, and b) birds. Each statistical power level line is used as a Criterion level for interpreting gap statistic values in determining jump structure.

the intermediate power level 0.50 and 0.68 (examined, 0.58 and 0.79 (study). I visually determined these bracketing power levels by placing criterion lines on graphs of the boxed points method and lead lamp structures (Figures A-8) so as to approximate three interpretations of some levels of jump analysis, low, intermediate, and high.

#### Assessing Jump Analysis Sensitivity to Error

I applied random deletion and random size variation as error approximation mechanisms within the analysis process to boxed points method and lead data sets at three power levels. I report on results of the mid-power level simulations first as a test of the general case. I then report on simulation runs which test sensitivity to higher and lower values of both power as per Table A-4. I do not report on tests using liberal values of epsilon because these results did not differ significantly from conservative epsilon values.

#### Methods of Graphic Presentation

I present graphic results of visual and numeric comparisons of pattern correspondence between the original and mock jump structures. I created graphs (Figures A-5, A-10, A-12, and A-13) for visual comparison of the general case (mid-power simulations). These graphs present the original jump structure at the bottom with five clusters of mock data sets stacked above. Each cluster of five mock data sets is a sub-sample of a group of 30 which represents the results of applying a specific error level. The shading within each polygon (jump) indicates species data density. Darker polygons represent jumps with relatively more species. Visual comparison between



the original and mock lamp structure is enhanced by extension of the original lamp structure vertically with stepped lines through the areas with clusters of mock lamp structures.

For numerical tests of the effects of increasing error levels on correspondence between the original and mock lamp patterns I quantify an index of Lamp Pattern Recognition (LPR) as a proportion of the original lamp pattern. I do this by taking the difference between hits and misses (see Stage 3 and Figure A-7) and dividing it by the number of lamps in the original data set. I graph the LPR index against error level for all three statistical power levels listed in Table A-4.

Within each graph I define two regions which represent conservative and liberal interpretations of robustness in lamp pattern recognition. For the liberal interpretation I use a gray box with the lower y-axis boundary arbitrarily set at 80 percent of the original lamp pattern recognized. I set the x-axis boundary by the error level at which the frequency of indices of lamp pattern mismatches (misses) is consistently high, as indicated by a sharp decline in the variance in the frequency of misses. This signifies that lamp pattern recognition is clearly lost. A white box defines a conservative interpretation based on visual observation of reflection points in the curves of the LPR index and of graphs of clusters of mock lamp structures (Figures A-9, A-10, A-11, A-12). I do not report on tests 2, 4 and 8 because I found little difference in results using either value for the species parameter.

### Tests to Find the Pattern-masking Level of Random Species Deletion

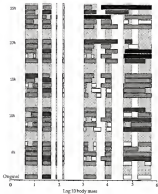
#### Random species deletions: graphs, comparisons of mid-power simulations

**Message:** The pattern-masking error levels associated with significant loss of pattern recognition are between 15 and 20 percent random species deletion.

Mismatch between the original and mock jump patterns is already evident (Figure A-6) at random deletion error levels greater than 10 percent. The overall degree of pattern matching between the original and mock jump structures dramatically declines by the 20 percent deletion error range. Mock jump patterns in the smaller size range (mean  $\log_{10}$  body mass < 2) retains its fidelity to the original up to the 20 percent deletion level. Mock jump patterns in the larger size range (mean  $\log_{10}$  body mass > 2) shows significant mismatch with the original jump patterns by the 20 percent deletion level.

**Insights.** The pattern-matching error levels associated with collapse of pattern recognition between real mock jump patterns and the original occur at random species-deletion error levels between 10 percent and 20 percent (Figure A-15). Beginning at that range of error levels striking increases occur in the degree of mismatch between the original and mock jump size ranges. This decay trend is first evident at lower deletion error levels in mock jumps in the smaller size range (mean  $\log_{10}$  body mass < 2) and becomes general at error levels above 15 percent. The larger size range (mean  $\log_{10}$  body mass > 2) of mock jump data sets retains much of the original jump structure to higher (20 to 25 percent) deletion error levels.

**Summary of graphic results.** Simulated increases in random deletion of species above those levels found in various eliminate some of the original gaps. Increasing deletion intensity above those error levels creates mock data sets composed of fewer jumps with larger body mass size ranges than those jumps in the original data set. These "wider jumps" overlap one or more original gaps with greater frequency as the level of random deletion increases. This effect occurs over different size ranges for bird and mammal jump structures despite the similarity in the range of deletion error levels over which jump patterns decay. Escape of larger land species are robust up to



**Figure A-9** Lump structure of the original basal primate mammal data set with 5 sets of subsamples of mock lump structures created by random size deletion over at levels of 4, 10, 20, 30 and 45 percent. The pattern of the original lump structure is extended vertically from the bottom of the graph by stippled rectangles.

higher (20 %) levels of deletion, while jump pattern decay is evident at low (10 %) deletion levels for small birds ( $\log_{10}$  body mass < 2). The situation is reversed for mammals. Robust jump recognition occurs at higher deletion intensities for smaller species, gap crossing by widening of jumps is evident earlier for species with  $\log_{10}$  body mass greater than 2. For both birds and mammals the same region around 2.0  $\log_{10}$  body mass divides the robust and non-robust regions of jump pattern.

#### **Random species deletion, extreme comparisons for all simulations**

Numerical results (Figure A-11) generally agree with visual interpretations (Figures A-5 and A-12) for both mammals and birds. In the case of mammals (Figure A-11a) inflection and decline of indices of pattern recognition occur between 15 and 20 percent random deletion levels, though the pattern-marking deletion level is lower (~12 percent) for low power simulation runs. For birds, simulations at all three power levels show values of pattern recognition passing a threshold at deletion levels around 15 percent. In this case, matching power simulations exhibited declines in pattern recognition at the lowest deletion levels, but the overall trends are fairly similar for all three levels of statistical power. For both taxa the loss of robustness over the deletion error range stems from dramatic decreases in indices of pattern matching (rate) and increases in indices of pattern mismatch (noise) accompanied by sharp declines in transition (TV) values for noise. As deletion error levels increase further frequency of noise remains consistently high, and variance of noise remains low suggesting persistent loss of pattern recognition.

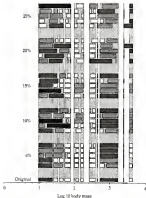


Figure A-10. Kump structure of the original basal poxina bird data set with 3 sets of subsamples of mock kump structures created by random mass deletion, once at levels of 8, 10, 15, 20 and 25 percent. The portion of the original kump structure is extended vertically from the bottom of the graph by stippled rectangles.

### Discussion - Is lump analysis robust to random species deletion?

Existing error levels in consensus are not sufficient to affect the reliability of lump analysis. For mammalian pattern-marking error levels associated with collapse of pattern recognition occur at the 18 percent level, a percent higher than the observed value (12 percent) for omission error. For birds the pattern-marking error levels associated with lump pattern decay occur around 15 percent, but since bird consensus have qualitatively more stringent standards than do those for mammals, it is reasonable to assume that omission error in bird consensus is below 12 percent. The slight differences in pattern-marking deletion error values found at different power levels suggest that the analysis process is somewhat sensitive to power. However, these differences do not change the overall conclusions about the levels at which deletion error rates mask patterns in lump analysis for birds or mammals.

### Summary: sensitivity of lump analysis to consensus error

Lump analysis appears robust to random error even when tested using conservative (to Type I error) estimates of consensus error and unrealistically variable simulation scenarios of temporal fluctuations in species populations. Lump analysis reliably detected the original pattern at simulated error levels which are higher than observed in nature even when subjected to the extreme simulation of randomized species abundances, whereas the abundance of any species could vary randomly. Simulation of more realistic scenarios of temporal fluctuations of species abundances would probably show robust lump pattern recognition at even higher levels of random species deletion.

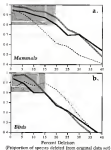


Figure 4-11. Lump pattern correspondence between best (purple) and mammal) lump structures and mock lump structures. Correspondence is indexed as the proportion of the original lump structures still recognized by lump analyses at various levels of random deletion of species.

### Tests to Find the Factors marking Level of Random Variation in Body Size

I used the lump pattern analysis process (Figure A-4) on the same original boreal peatbog data sets (filling 100) to test the sensitivity of lump analysis to the influence of error source 2, intra-species size variation on body size data sets. I applied random size variation within the analysis process in exactly the same series of steps used for random deletion. I approximated error source 2 by randomly varying the size of each species in the creation of synthetic or mock data sets, wherein the degree of variation a species' body size might exhibit on a mock data set corresponded to the intensity level of the size variation error. In this manner I used random size variation as a error approximation mechanism to modify boreal peatbog mammal and bird data sets and create mock data sets. I analyzed these mock data sets for their lump structures and compared these mock lump structures with the originals to measure the degree of lump pattern correspondence.

I report on results of the mid-power level simulations first as a test of the general case. I then report on simulation runs which test sensitivity to higher and lower values of both power as per Table A-4. Results are as follows:

#### Random size variation, graphic comparisons of mid-power simulations

I created graphs (Figures A-11 and A-12) for visual comparison of original and mock lump structures, which were interpreted by lump analysis at middle levels of power. These graphs present the original lump structure at the bottom with five clusters of mock data sets stacked above. Each cluster of five mock data sets is a sub-sample of a group of 50 which represents the results of applying a specific error level of random variation of body size



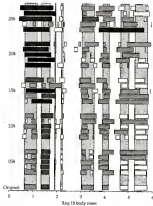


Figure A-12. The lamp structure of the original boreal porcupine muskox data set with 5 sets of subsamples of mock lamp structures created by random size variation error levels of 5, 10, 20 and 25 percent. The pattern of the original lamp structure is extended vertically from the bottom by stippled rectangles.

**Mammals:** Mammal mock jump structures show marked declines in jump pattern correspondence with the original jump structure at random size variation error levels between 10 and 25 percent (Figure A-12). Jump pattern analysis crosses the threshold from reliable to unreliable by the 15 percent size variation error level. At these error levels decay in jump pattern correspondence is equally evident across all body sizes in mammal mock jump structures.

**Birds:** The pattern matching error level of random variation of body size is much lower in birds than in mammals. Bird mock jump structures begin to show visual pattern mismatches with the original jump structure around the 5 percent random size variation error level (Figure A-13). The increase in pattern mismatch is so precipitous that jump analysis no longer seems robust by the 5 percent size variation error level. Decay in jump pattern is equally evident across all body sizes in bird mock jump structures.

*Random size variation, numeric comparisons for all simulations*

I test the effects of increasing size variation error levels numerically by quantifying the correspondence between the original and mock jump patterns. I quantify an index of decay in jump pattern recognition as the proportion of the original jump pattern which I find. Within each graph I define two regions which represent conservative (white line) and a liberal (gray line) interpretation of robustness in jump pattern recognition.

Numeric results (Figure A-14) suggest pattern-matching error levels slightly lower than those indicated by graphic comparisons. For mammals the index of jump pattern recognition declines below robust levels on the 10 to 15 percent range of error due to random variation in body size (Figure A-14a). For birds jump pattern correspondence declines below acceptable levels at or below the 5 percent level of random size variation error (Figure A-14b).

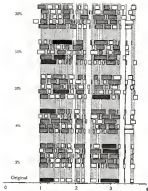


Figure A-13 The loop structure of the original fossil profile blade data set with 5 sets of subsamples of each loop structure created by random user version since levels of 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 percent. The pattern of the original loop structure is revealed vertically from the bottom by stippled rectangles.

Lump analysis is not robust as error intensity levels increase beyond my visual estimates of a pattern-masking error value for both birds and mammals. At these and higher levels of size variation correspondence between the original and mask lump patterns appears to lock in to persistent and unvarying degrees of mismatch. This conclusion is supported by the observation that the frequency of misses becomes less variable (steep declines in the coefficients of variation) and the frequency of hits becomes more variable as the pattern-masking value of error is surpassed.

In determining pattern-masking error levels of size variation I found taxon-specific sensitivities to statistical power similar to those found for error source 1, random species deletion. Minimal pattern-masking error values showed greater sensitivity than did birds to differences in statistical power levels used in determining lump structure. However, these sensitivities to power appear slight, because the differences in pattern-masking error levels determined at each power level were not so great as to change the overall conclusions.

#### Discussion - Is lump analysis robust to random variation in body size?

Robustness of lump analysis decreases at higher random size variation error levels for broad poikilothermic mammals than for birds. The pattern-masking levels of size variation error associated with declines in indices of lump pattern recognition are 12 percent for mammals and around 5 percent for birds. The decline in robustness over these pattern-masking levels is confirmed by dramatic changes in the variance of frequency indices of pattern matching (hits) and of pattern mismatching (misses). Specifically, frequency and dependability decline for hits and increase for misses as the pattern-masking level of size variation is surpassed. These trends suggest that the degree of pattern correspondence between mask data sets and the original

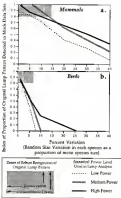


Figure A-24. Lamp pattern correspondences between local (petrae field and mammal) lump structures and rock lump structures. Correspondence is indexed as the proportion of the original lump structures still recognized by lump analysis at various levels of random variation in species body size.

remains consistently low at random size variance levels higher than the pattern-marking levels identified here.

Simulated random variance in body size creates novel gaps in mark lump structures, resulting in more lumps with narrower body mass size ranges than those found in the original lump structure. Visual comparison (Figure A-13) of bird data sets suggests that a majority of the original gaps are evident in the mark lump structures created by 10 percent size variation. On the face, even lump analysis still seems somewhat more robust than indicated by numeric indices of pattern correspondence. However, decay in lump pattern recognition results from the novel gaps in mark data which now split the size ranges of the original lumps. Similar conclusions can be drawn from comparisons of original and mark maximal lump structures with the noted observation that increasing random size variation creates novel lumps which fill the relatively large gaps in the original maximal lump structure.

#### ***Summary: Sensitivity of Lump Analysis to Variance in Body Size***

Lump analysis is marginally robust for mammals and not at all for birds when I apply a severe simulation of random size variation. I identified pattern-marking levels of size variance error which are just at observed levels of size variance for mammals (13 percent) and below those levels observed in birds (< 5 percent versus 8 percent observed). This simulation of size variance is explicitly severe to try to identify the limits of lump analysis robustness because lump analysis did not initially appear vulnerable to observed frequency distributions of variation in animal size. In this test I allowed the size of any species, not the diversity observed in nature, to vary as much as any other species.

Lump analysis may be more robust to body size variation in mammals than birds because gaps in mammal lump structures occupy a larger fraction of the size axis than do those of birds. It may require higher levels of inter-species size variation to fill the relatively wider mammal gaps. The identified pattern-marking levels of size variation are far below those observed because of sexual dimorphism. The possibility that each sex in strongly dimorphic species occupies distinct landscape size ranges and the consequential effects on lump structure deserves further consideration. In conclusion, for lump analysis to appear robust, even marginally, under such extreme conditions is clear evidence that it can reliably detect lump patterns at the face of known levels of inter-species size variation.

#### Appendix Summary

I confirmed the reliability of lump analysis, as applied through Gaf Pattern Analysis, by demonstrating that it is robust to observed levels of error in the creation of body mass size data sets. I found in literature surveys that the variances of both sex and temporal abundances for mammals and birds have left-skewed distributions. I found that lump analysis is robust partly because of overlap inherent in such distributions of size or abundance variation. I determined this by several probes of lump analysis through simulations of extreme variance scenarios. Lump analysis is robust to extreme simulations of census error for both birds and mammals, and not robust to extreme simulations of size variation in birds, though marginally so for mammals. It is quite likely that lump analysis is robust to observed error levels if it shows reliability under such extreme conditions.

**APPENDIX B**  
**SPECIES LISTS FOR BIRD OR MAMMAL COMMUNITIES FOUND AT**  
**STUDY SITES**

**DIRECTORY OF SPECIES LISTS FOR EACH TAXON COMPILED BY INOME**

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*NOTE:* The literature references for each animal community species list is included at the top of each of these sub-directories of species lists.





No	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Mean length							
		Body	1		2		3		4
26	<i>Arilus argenteus</i>	1423							1
27	<i>Agabus bipunctatus</i>	1423		1					1
28	<i>Amphiceros vesticus</i>	1507	1	1	1	1	1		1
29	<i>Arhis femoralis</i>	1484						1	1
30	<i>Arhis laevicornis</i>	1481						1	1
31	<i>Arhis rufus</i>	1404						1	1
32	<i>Arhis ruficornis</i>	1514							1
33	<i>Aglyptis albata</i>	1411						1	1
34	<i>Aglyptis americana</i>	1328						1	1
35	<i>Aglyptis ruficornis</i>	1401						1	1
36	<i>Aglyptis rubricornis</i>	1361						1	
37	<i>Brachinus longimanus</i>	1315		1					
38	<i>Brachinus crepitans</i>	1311	1		1			1	
39	<i>Brachinus crepitans</i>	1379	1	1		1		1	1
40	<i>Brachinus longimanus</i>	1441	1					1	
41	<i>Brachinus crepitans crepitans</i>	1351	1					1	1
42	<i>Brachinus crepitans crepitans</i>	1441	1					1	1
43	<i>Bracon ruficornis</i>	1437	1	1				1	1
44	<i>Pentaneura litae</i>	1521						1	
45	<i>Scaphisoma obscurus</i>	1447						1	1
46	<i>Scaphisoma elongatum</i>	1371						1	
47	<i>Scaphisoma obscurus</i>	1401							1
48	<i>Bracon procerus</i>	1521	1		1			1	1
49	<i>Bracon lineator</i>	1371	1	1	1			1	1
50	<i>Bracon plagiator</i>	1487	1	1	1			1	
51	<i>Bracon ruficornis</i>	1481							1
52	<i>Bracon ruficornis</i>	1331	1		1			1	
53	<i>Cardiobolus ruficornis</i>	1351	1	1	1			1	
54	<i>Cardiobolus</i>	1144						1	1
55	<i>Cardiobolus obscurus</i>	1111	1		1			1	1
56	<i>Copidocercus acutus</i>	1421							1
57	<i>Copidocercus variator</i>	1371	1		1				
58	<i>Copidocercus porphyreus</i>	1321	1		1				1
59	<i>Camponotus ethoi</i>	1341						1	
60	<i>Colletes rufus</i>	1321	1		1			1	
61	<i>Colletes haemorrhoidalis</i>	1471	1		1			1	1
62	<i>Colletes ruficornis</i>	1401	1		1			1	1
63	<i>Colletes ruficornis</i>	1481							1
64	<i>Corymbotarsus aculeatorius</i>	1427						1	1
65	<i>Corymbotarsus</i>	1371	1		1			1	1
66	<i>Coryla alpestris</i>	1371	1		1			1	1
67	<i>Chalcidophaga</i>	1321	1					1	1
68	<i>Chalcidophaga ruficornis</i>	1391			1			1	1
69	<i>Chalcidophaga</i>	1411						1	1
70	<i>Chalcidophaga ruficornis</i>	1421						1	1
71	<i>Chalcidophaga ruficornis</i>	1371						1	1
72	<i>Chalcidophaga ruficornis</i>	1371						1	1











## 1. BIRTH OF QUANTUM-ROBUST FOREST STATES IN FINLAND AND SWEDEN

No.	SITE NAME	CONTINENT
1	Chamber Valley, Sweden, spruce	SWEDEN, c. 1974
2	Same	Sweden, c. 1976, Norway spruce, p. 19, 1993
3	Northern Svalbard National Park, Svalbard, spruce	Spitzbergen, c. 1980, Norway spruce, p. 13, 1993

## SPECIES LIST

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Site Number		
		1	2	3
1	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
2	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
3	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
4	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
5	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
6	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
7	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
8	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
9	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
10	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
11	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
12	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
13	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
14	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
15	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
16	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
17	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
18	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
19	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
20	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
21	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
22	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
23	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
24	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
25	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
26	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
27	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
28	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
29	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
30	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
31	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
32	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
33	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
34	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
35	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
36	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
37	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
38	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	
39	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
40	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
41	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	1
42	<i>Aspidosiphon</i>	1000	0	



No.	Nomen/Nomen Latin	Men/Length		
		Men	No. Member	
41	<i>Orfelia muscivora</i>	1762	1	
42	<i>Orfelia rufus</i>	1761	1	
43	<i>Orfelia taeniorhina</i>	1762	1	
44	<i>Orfelia vernalis</i>	1476	1	
45	<i>Oreogala hirsuta</i>	1762	1	1
46	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1762	1	1
47	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1287	1	1
48	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1762	1	1
49	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
50	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
51	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
52	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
53	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
54	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
55	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
56	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
57	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
58	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
59	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
60	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
61	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
62	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
63	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
64	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
65	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
66	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
67	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
68	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
69	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
70	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
71	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
72	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
73	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
74	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
75	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
76	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
77	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
78	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
79	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
80	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
81	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
82	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
83	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
84	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
85	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
86	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
87	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
88	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
89	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	
90	<i>Oreogala ruficornis</i>	1489	1	

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Mean Length		
		Body mm	1	2
64	<i>Uca bicincta</i>	1,123	1	
65	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,071	1	
66	<i>Ucaeppia seta</i>	1,143	1	
67	<i>Ucaeppia perspicillata</i>	1,090	1	1
68	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,103	1	
69	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,184	1	
70	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,175	1	
71	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,014	1	
72	<i>Ucaeppia seta</i>	1,100	1	
73	<i>Ucaeppia seta</i>	1,120	1	1
74	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,010	1	1
75	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,050	1	1
76	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,017	1	
77	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
78	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,085	1	
79	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,107	1	
80	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	1
81	<i>Ucaeppia seta</i>	1,100	1	1
82	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,104	1	
83	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,082	1	
84	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	1
85	<i>Ucaeppia seta</i>	1,100	1	
86	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
87	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,107	1	
88	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
89	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,111	1	1
90	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
91	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
92	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,111	1	
93	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
94	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
95	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
96	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
97	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
98	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
99	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
100	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
101	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
102	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
103	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
104	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
105	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
106	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
107	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
108	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
109	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
110	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
111	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
112	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
113	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
114	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
115	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
116	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
117	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
118	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
119	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
120	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
121	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
122	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
123	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
124	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
125	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
126	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
127	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
128	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
129	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
130	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
131	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
132	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
133	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
134	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
135	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
136	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
137	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
138	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
139	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
140	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
141	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
142	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
143	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
144	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
145	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
146	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
147	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
148	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
149	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	
150	<i>Ucaeppia setosa</i>	1,100	1	

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Mean Log <sub>10</sub>		
		Body	Site Number	
10	<i>Yersinia enterocolitica</i>	0.76	1	1
11	<i>Vibrio cholerae</i>	1.27	1	1
12	<i>Shigella flexneri</i>	0.88	1	1
13	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	1.07	1	1
14	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	1.88	1	1

## A BIRD OF BIRBAAL-GILGATLANDSUTER IN NORTH AMERICA.

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	REFERENCE
1	Saint Paul, Martin	Cobb, C. W. U.S. Journ. Orn.

## 2. BIRD OF BIRBAAL-GILGATLANDSUTER IN NORTH AMERICA.

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Male Log 11			No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Male Log 11		
		Mean	1	2			Mean	1	2
1	<i>Actitis hypoleucos</i>	1.52	1	2	<i>Colinus bairdii</i>	1.64	1	1	
2	<i>Agelaius phoeniceus</i>	1.52	1	2	<i>Coryphopterus amabilis</i>	1.62	1	1	
3	<i>Actitis macularia</i>	1.49	1	2	<i>Chondestes pelagicus</i>	1.55	1	1	
4	<i>Actinophalarus cristatus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Chondestes ustulatus</i>	1.72	1	1	
5	<i>Agelaius phoeniceus</i>	1.51	1	2	<i>Chondestes ustulatus</i>	1.68	1	1	
6	<i>Agelaius phoeniceus</i>	1.57	1	2	<i>Chlorostreptopelia</i>	1.61	1	1	
7	<i>Actitis hypoleucos</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Chondestes parvus</i>	1.61	1	1	
8	<i>Actinophalarus cristatus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Chondestes ustulatus</i>	1.72	1	1	
9	<i>Actinophalarus cristatus</i>	1.37	1	2	<i>Chondestes</i>	1.54	1	1	
10	<i>Actinophalarus cristatus</i>	1.40	1	2	<i>Chondestes pelagicus</i>	1.61	1	1	
11	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.51	1	2	<i>Chondestes pelagicus</i>	1.54	1	1	
12	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.47	1	2	<i>Chondestes pelagicus</i>	1.72	1	1	
13	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.59	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
14	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
15	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.47	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
16	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.47	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
17	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
18	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
19	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
20	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
21	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
22	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
23	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
24	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
25	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
26	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
27	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
28	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
29	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
30	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
31	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
32	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
33	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
34	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
35	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
36	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
37	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
38	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
39	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
40	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
41	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
42	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
43	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
44	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
45	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
46	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
47	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
48	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
49	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	
50	<i>Actinophalarus</i>	1.41	1	2	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1.52	1	1	



LIST OF TROPICAL AND SUBTROPICAL TREE SPECIES  
AND THEIR HEIGHTS

No.	SINNENNA NAME	HEIGHT		SINNENNA NAME	HEIGHT	
		Feet	M.		Feet	M.
1	<i>Adiantum biforme</i>	110	33	<i>Miconia longipes</i>	150	46
2	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	114	35	<i>Miconia leucantha</i>	154	47
3	<i>Amelita acida</i>	115	35	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
4	<i>Amelita grandis</i>	116	35	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
5	<i>Alseodaphne latifolia</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
6	<i>Am. umbellata</i>	121	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
7	<i>Amelita dentata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
8	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
9	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
10	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
11	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
12	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
13	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
14	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
15	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
16	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
17	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
18	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
19	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
20	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
21	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
22	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
23	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
24	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
25	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
26	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
27	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
28	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
29	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
30	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
31	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
32	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
33	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
34	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
35	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
36	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
37	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
38	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
39	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
40	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
41	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
42	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
43	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
44	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
45	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
46	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
47	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
48	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
49	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47
50	<i>Alseodaphne umbellata</i>	120	36	<i>Miconia mutata</i>	155	47

No.	ICBOPC NAME	Mass Log <sub>10</sub>		ICBOPC NAME	Mass Log <sub>10</sub>	
		Mean	St.		Mean	St.
61	<i>Cardinalis cardinalis</i>	1.071	1.00	<i>Salix alba</i>	1.047	1.00
62	<i>Carpinus betulus</i>	1.077	1.04	<i>Salix caprea</i>	1.076	1.00
63	<i>Corylus avellana</i>	1.107	1.07	<i>Sarracenia purpurea</i>	1.066	1.00
64	<i>Cystis alba</i>	0.970	1.06	<i>Saxifraga hypnoides</i>	1.071	1.00
65	<i>Cystis bala</i>	1.044	1.07	<i>Sedum album</i>	1.061	1.00
66	<i>Dactylis glomerata</i>	1.064	1.04	<i>Sisymbrium officinalis</i>	1.144	1.00
67	<i>Dandelion officinalis</i>	1.040	1.01	<i>Spiraea alba</i>	1.094	1.00
68	<i>Datura innoxiosa</i>	1.101	1.03	<i>Spiraea germanica</i>	1.054	1.00
69	<i>Daphne laureola</i>	1.070	1.04	<i>Spiraea maritima</i>	1.088	1.00
70	<i>Daphne genkwa</i>	1.114	1.04	<i>Spiraea ulmaria</i>	1.058	1.00
71	<i>Deschampsia cespitosa</i>	0.933	1.07	<i>Staphylea trifolia</i>	1.090	1.00
72	<i>Ficus virens</i>	1.084	1.01	<i>Staphylea trifolia</i>	1.088	1.00
73	<i>Ficus virens</i>	1.070	1.07	<i>Staphylea trifolia</i>	1.061	1.00
74	<i>Ficus virens</i>	1.097	1.04	<i>Staphylea trifolia</i>	1.098	1.00
75	<i>Ferula ascyron</i>	1.190	1.04	<i>Staphylea trifolia</i>	1.074	1.00
76	<i>Ferula ascyron</i>	1.120	1.00	<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	1.033	1.00
77	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.117	1.01	<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	1.061	1.00
78	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.07	<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	1.077	1.00
79	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.021	1.03	<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	1.059	1.00
80	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.064	1.06	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.050	1.00
81	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
82	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.091	1.04	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.084	1.00
83	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
84	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
85	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
86	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
87	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
88	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
89	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
90	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
91	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
92	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
93	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
94	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
95	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
96	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
97	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
98	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
99	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00
100	<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	1.076	1.03	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	1.064	1.00









1. BIRD OF HONORIFICAL GRADUATE CITY IN WISCONSIN AMERICA

NO.	OFF NAME	RESIDENCE
1	Lowell B. Hall, Duluth, Minn.	Palmer St., E. W. Corning, Jr., St. Paul
2	John A. Hall, Duluth	Palmer St., E. W. Corning, Jr., St. Paul

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Male Length		No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Male Length	
		Wing	Tail			Wing	Tail
1	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.90	1.25	21	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	2.90	1.15
2	<i>Atlapetes</i>	2.80	1.15	22	<i>Contopus richardsonii</i>	2.85	1.15
3	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.80	1.15	23	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
4	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	24	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
5	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	25	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
6	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	26	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
7	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	27	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
8	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	28	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
9	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	29	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
10	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	30	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
11	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	31	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
12	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	32	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
13	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	33	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
14	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	34	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
15	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	35	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
16	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	36	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
17	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	37	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
18	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	38	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
19	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	39	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
20	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	40	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
21	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	41	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
22	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	42	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
23	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	43	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
24	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	44	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
25	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	45	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
26	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	46	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
27	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	47	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
28	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	48	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
29	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	49	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
30	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	50	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
31	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	51	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
32	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	52	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
33	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	53	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
34	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	54	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
35	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	55	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
36	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	56	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
37	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	57	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
38	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	58	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
39	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	59	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
40	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	60	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
41	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	61	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
42	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	62	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
43	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	63	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
44	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	64	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
45	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	65	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
46	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	66	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
47	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	67	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
48	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	68	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
49	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	69	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15
50	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	2.75	1.15	70	<i>Empidonax hammondi</i>	2.85	1.15







TABLE 10. BOTANICAL NAME, HEIGHT LIFE IN METER, WEIGHT

No.	BOTANICAL NAME	HEIGHT		BOTANICAL NAME	WEIGHT	
		Max	Min		Max	Min
1	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
2	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
3	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
4	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
5	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
6	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
7	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
8	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
9	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
10	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
11	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
12	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
13	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
14	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
15	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
16	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
17	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
18	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
19	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
20	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
21	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
22	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
23	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
24	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
25	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
26	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
27	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
28	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
29	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
30	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
31	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
32	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
33	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
34	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
35	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
36	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
37	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
38	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
39	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
40	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
41	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
42	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
43	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
44	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
45	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
46	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
47	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
48	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
49	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00
50	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00	<i>Arundinaceae</i>	1.00	1.00

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Mean Length		SCIENTIFIC NAME	Mean Length	
		Male	Female		Male	Female
84	<i>Acrida phoenicea</i>	1188	1126	<i>Stenobothrus tenuis</i>	1182	1122
85	<i>Acrida pygmaea</i>	1184	1120	<i>Stenobothrus tenuis</i>	1182	1122
86	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1177	1123	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1180	1120
87	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1170	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1172	1120
88	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1167	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
89	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1170	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
90	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
91	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1170	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
92	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
93	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
94	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
95	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1167	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
96	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
97	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
98	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
99	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
100	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
101	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
102	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
103	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
104	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
105	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
106	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
107	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
108	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
109	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
110	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
111	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
112	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
113	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
114	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
115	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
116	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
117	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
118	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120
119	<i>Acrida senegalensis</i>	1166	1120	<i>Tropia ornatrix</i>	1165	1120





Date	Description	Debit	Credit	Balance
1890				
Jan 1	Balance forward			100.00
Jan 5	Wages	50.00		50.00
Jan 10	Expenses	20.00		30.00
Jan 15	Income		100.00	130.00
Jan 20	Wages	40.00		90.00
Jan 25	Expenses	15.00		75.00
Jan 30	Income		80.00	155.00
Feb 1	Balance forward			155.00
Feb 5	Wages	60.00		95.00
Feb 10	Expenses	30.00		65.00
Feb 15	Income		120.00	185.00
Feb 20	Wages	50.00		135.00
Feb 25	Expenses	25.00		110.00
Feb 30	Income		90.00	200.00
Mar 1	Balance forward			200.00
Mar 5	Wages	70.00		130.00
Mar 10	Expenses	40.00		90.00
Mar 15	Income		150.00	240.00
Mar 20	Wages	60.00		180.00
Mar 25	Expenses	35.00		145.00
Mar 30	Income		110.00	255.00
Apr 1	Balance forward			255.00
Apr 5	Wages	80.00		175.00
Apr 10	Expenses	50.00		125.00
Apr 15	Income		180.00	305.00
Apr 20	Wages	70.00		235.00
Apr 25	Expenses	45.00		190.00
Apr 30	Income		130.00	320.00
May 1	Balance forward			320.00
May 5	Wages	90.00		230.00
May 10	Expenses	60.00		170.00
May 15	Income		200.00	370.00
May 20	Wages	80.00		290.00
May 25	Expenses	55.00		235.00
May 30	Income		150.00	385.00
Jun 1	Balance forward			385.00
Jun 5	Wages	100.00		285.00
Jun 10	Expenses	70.00		215.00
Jun 15	Income		250.00	465.00
Jun 20	Wages	90.00		375.00
Jun 25	Expenses	65.00		310.00
Jun 30	Income		200.00	510.00
Jul 1	Balance forward			510.00
Jul 5	Wages	110.00		400.00
Jul 10	Expenses	80.00		320.00
Jul 15	Income		300.00	620.00
Jul 20	Wages	100.00		520.00
Jul 25	Expenses	75.00		445.00
Jul 30	Income		250.00	695.00
Aug 1	Balance forward			695.00
Aug 5	Wages	120.00		575.00
Aug 10	Expenses	90.00		485.00
Aug 15	Income		350.00	835.00
Aug 20	Wages	110.00		725.00
Aug 25	Expenses	85.00		640.00
Aug 30	Income		300.00	940.00
Sep 1	Balance forward			940.00
Sep 5	Wages	130.00		810.00
Sep 10	Expenses	100.00		710.00
Sep 15	Income		400.00	1110.00
Sep 20	Wages	120.00		990.00
Sep 25	Expenses	95.00		895.00
Sep 30	Income		350.00	1245.00
Oct 1	Balance forward			1245.00
Oct 5	Wages	140.00		1105.00
Oct 10	Expenses	110.00		995.00
Oct 15	Income		450.00	1445.00
Oct 20	Wages	130.00		1315.00
Oct 25	Expenses	105.00		1210.00
Oct 30	Income		400.00	1610.00
Nov 1	Balance forward			1610.00
Nov 5	Wages	150.00		1460.00
Nov 10	Expenses	120.00		1340.00
Nov 15	Income		500.00	1840.00
Nov 20	Wages	140.00		1700.00
Nov 25	Expenses	115.00		1585.00
Nov 30	Income		450.00	2035.00
Dec 1	Balance forward			2035.00
Dec 5	Wages	160.00		1875.00
Dec 10	Expenses	130.00		1745.00
Dec 15	Income		550.00	2295.00
Dec 20	Wages	150.00		2145.00
Dec 25	Expenses	125.00		2020.00
Dec 30	Income		500.00	2520.00
Total		10000.00	10000.00	2520.00





No.	Description	1911		1912	
		Jan.	Dec.	Jan.	Dec.
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63	...	...	...	...	...
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66	...	...	...	...	...
67	...	...	...	...	...
68	...	...	...	...	...
69	...	...	...	...	...
70	...	...	...	...	...
71	...	...	...	...	...
72	...	...	...	...	...
73	...	...	...	...	...
74	...	...	...	...	...
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91	...	...	...	...	...
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95	...	...	...	...	...
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99	...	...	...	...	...
100	...	...	...	...	...

## A LIST OF ENTOMOLOGICAL COLLECTIONS FROM SOUTH AMERICA

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	MUSEUM		No. (TYPE)	No. (TYPE)
		Year	Site		
1	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
2	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
3	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
4	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
5	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
6	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
7	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
8	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
9	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
10	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
11	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
12	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
13	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
14	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
15	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
16	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
17	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
18	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
19	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
20	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
21	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
22	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
23	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
24	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
25	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
26	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
27	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
28	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
29	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
30	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
31	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
32	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
33	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
34	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
35	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
36	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
37	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
38	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
39	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
40	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
41	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
42	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
43	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
44	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
45	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
46	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
47	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
48	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
49	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1
50	<i>Acrida viridis</i>	1952	1	1	1







No.	KUNYANG (code)	Mean Length			KUNYANG (code)	Mean Length		
		Male	Sex	Sex		Male	Sex	Sex
101	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.91	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
102	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.94	1	1.91	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.95	1	1
103	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.96	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.92	1	1
104	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.96	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.99	1	1
105	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.95	1	1
106	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.99	1	1.97	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.98	1	1
107	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.99	1	1
108	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.99	1	1
109	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
110	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
111	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
112	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
113	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
114	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
115	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
116	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
117	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
118	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
119	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
120	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
121	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
122	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
123	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
124	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
125	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
126	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
127	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
128	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
129	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
130	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
131	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
132	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
133	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
134	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
135	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
136	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
137	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
138	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
139	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1
140	<i>Chamaea fasciculata</i>	1.91	1	1.96	<i>Trigonostema</i>	1.91	1	1









No.	Scientific name	Sex (♂)							No.	Scientific name	Sex (♀)						
		Wt.	1	2	3	4	5	6			Wt.	1	2	3	4	5	6
141	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							141	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
142	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							142	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
143	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							143	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
144	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							144	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
145	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							145	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
146	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							146	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
147	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							147	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
148	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							148	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
149	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							149	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
150	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							150	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
151	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							151	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
152	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							152	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
153	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							153	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
154	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							154	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
155	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							155	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
156	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							156	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
157	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							157	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
158	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							158	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
159	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							159	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
160	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							160	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
161	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							161	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
162	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							162	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
163	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							163	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
164	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							164	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
165	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							165	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
166	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							166	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
167	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							167	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
168	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							168	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
169	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							169	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
170	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							170	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
171	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							171	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
172	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							172	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
173	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							173	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
174	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							174	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
175	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							175	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
176	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							176	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
177	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							177	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
178	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							178	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
179	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							179	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
180	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							180	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
181	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							181	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
182	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							182	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
183	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							183	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
184	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							184	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
185	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							185	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
186	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							186	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
187	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							187	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
188	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							188	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
189	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							189	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
190	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							190	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
191	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							191	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
192	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							192	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
193	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							193	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
194	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							194	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
195	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							195	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
196	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							196	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
197	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							197	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
198	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							198	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
199	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							199	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						
200	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.20							200	<i>Spizella socialis</i>	1.10						

No.	Name of the work	Main work							No.	Name of the work	Main work						
		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July			Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July
101	Amalgam work								Amalgam work								
102	Amalgam work								Amalgam work								
103	Amalgam								Amalgam								
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200	Amalgam								Amalgam								







## 11. BIRD-OF-THE-FLIGHT ORNITHOMYXIN IN NORTH AMERICA

No.	ITY NAME	REFERENCE
1	Redstart/Vermilion Fly	King, L. H., 1957 <i>Condor</i> (n. s.) 59: 199.
2	Colaptes-CFB	Prater, A.H. and Ryan, R. G., 1976, <i>Colaptes, Rocky Mountain Region, 1976</i> <i>Condor</i> 5: 175, 198.
3	Brewer	Greenwood, J.L., 1977 <i>Condor</i> (n. s.) 59: 199.
4	Tanager	1976a, <i>Rocky Mountain Region, 1976</i> , <i>Condor</i> (n. s.) 5: 199.
5	Wren	Monte, W.D., <i>Distributional Report No. 27</i> <i>Condor</i> (n. s.) 5: 199.
6	Titmouse	Collins, D., <i>Fieldwork Report No. 86</i> <i>Condor</i> (n. s.) 5: 199.

## Mean Length

No.	BIRD'S NAME	Mean	Sex					
			♂	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀
1	<i>Agelaius phoeniceus</i>	1.07			1	1		
2	<i>Agelaius phoeniceus</i>	1.07		1		1		1
3	<i>Ammodramus occidentalis</i>	0.94				1		
4	<i>Ammodramus occidentalis</i>	1.07				1		
5	<i>Agelaius phoeniceus</i>	1.17	1		1	1	1	
6	<i>Ammodramus occidentalis</i>	1.07				1		
7	<i>Act. sp.</i>	1.01			1		1	
8	<i>Adelurus flavus</i>	0.91						1
9	<i>Ammodramus occidentalis</i>	1.00		1				
10	<i>Ammodramus occidentalis</i>	1.17			1			
11	<i>Ammodramus occidentalis</i>	1.09	1		1	1	1	
12	<i>Ammodramus occidentalis</i>	1.06		1				
13	<i>Ammodramus occidentalis</i>	1.01		1				
14	<i>Ammodramus</i>	0.91	1			1	1	
15	<i>Act. sp.</i>	1.07				1		
16	<i>Act. sp.</i>	1.09	1			1		
17	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.94	1			1	1	
18	<i>Act. sp.</i>	1.00				1		
19	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.97	1		1	1	1	
20	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.94	1		1	1	1	
21	<i>Act. sp.</i>	1.09	1			1	1	
22	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.97		1		1	1	
23	<i>Act. sp.</i>	1.01		1				
24	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.91	1			1	1	1
25	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.97			1	1	1	
26	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.97	1			1	1	
27	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.94		1		1	1	
28	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.94	1			1	1	
29	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.97	1			1	1	
30	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.97		1		1	1	
31	<i>Act. sp.</i>	0.99		1		1	1	
32	<i>Buteo swainsoni</i>	0.77	1	1	1	1	1	
33	<i>Buteo swainsoni</i>	1.01		1		1	1	
34	<i>Buteo swainsoni</i>	0.98				1	1	
35	<i>Buteo swainsoni</i>	0.98	1			1	1	
36	<i>Buteo swainsoni</i>	0.98				1	1	
37	<i>Buteo swainsoni</i>	0.91				1	1	
38	<i>Buteo swainsoni</i>	0.91	1		1	1	1	1

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Mean Length					
		Body			Wing		
38	<i>Sitta carolinensis</i>	135					
39	<i>Sitta pygmaea</i>	127					
40	<i>Sitta carolinensis</i>	140					
41	<i>Sitta carolinensis</i>	138					
42	<i>Sitta carolinensis</i>	132					
43	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	137					
44	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	132					
45	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	135					
46	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	130					
47	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	135					
48	<i>Caprimulgus vociferus</i>	172					
49	<i>Caprimulgus vociferus</i>	165					
50	<i>Ceryle alcyon</i>	188					
51	<i>Ceryle alcyon</i>	182					
52	<i>Ceryle alcyon</i>	188					
53	<i>Ceryle alcyon</i>	180					
54	<i>Comandula alba</i>	210					
55	<i>Colinus c. c. s. s.</i>	168					
56	<i>Colinus c. c. s. s.</i>	148					
57	<i>Colinus c. c. s. s.</i>	148					
58	<i>Colinus c. c. s. s.</i>	148					
59	<i>Colinus c. c. s. s.</i>	152					
60	<i>Ceryle alcyon</i>	188					
61	<i>Ceryle alcyon</i>	188					
62	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	132					
63	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	128					
64	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
65	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	132					
66	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	132					
67	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
68	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
69	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
70	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
71	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
72	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
73	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
74	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
75	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
76	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
77	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
78	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
79	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
80	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
81	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
82	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
83	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
84	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
85	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
86	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
87	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
88	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
89	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					
90	<i>Chondestes motacilla</i>	130					

No.	LITHUANIAN NAME	Molecular Weight	Site					
			1	2	3	4	5	6
84	<i>Urtica dioica</i>	1 100		1	1	1		
85	<i>Urtica urens</i>	1 107	1		1	1		
86	<i>Urtica stolon</i>	1 109				1		
87	<i>Urtica dioica</i>	1 106						1
88	<i>Urtica dioica</i>	1 107						1
89	<i>Urtica dioica</i>	1 106		1	1			
90	<i>Urtica dioica</i>	1 109	1		1	1		1
91	<i>Urtica dioica</i>	1 105	1			1	1	
92	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101	1					
93	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101		1				
94	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101				1		
95	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
96	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
97	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
98	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
99	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
100	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
101	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
102	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
103	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
104	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
105	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
106	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
107	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
108	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
109	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
110	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
111	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
112	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
113	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
114	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
115	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
116	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
117	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
118	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
119	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
120	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
121	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
122	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
123	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
124	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
125	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
126	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
127	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
128	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
129	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
130	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
131	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
132	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
133	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
134	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
135	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
136	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
137	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
138	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
139	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
140	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
141	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
142	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
143	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
144	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
145	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
146	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
147	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
148	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
149	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1
150	<i>Ficus verna</i>	1 101						1

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Mean Length					
		Body			Wing		
		mm	g	g	g	g	g
129	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.95			1		
130	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.27		1		1	1
131	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.74				1	
132	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.98		1			
133	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.28		1			
134	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.96				1	
135	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.05		1			
136	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.95			1		
137	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.97					1
138	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.29				1	
139	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.98	1	1		1	
140	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.95		1			
141	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.94			1		
142	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.02	1		1	1	
143	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.94			1		
144	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.08					1
145	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.62	1		1	1	
146	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.94				1	
147	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.97		1			1
148	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.98				1	1
149	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.94			1	1	1
150	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.94			1		
151	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.00				1	
152	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.94					1
153	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.07	1		1	1	
154	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.95		1			
155	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.92	1			1	1
156	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	2.29	1			1	1
157	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.94					1
158	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.92			1	1	1
159	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.97					1
160	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.97	1		1	1	1
161	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.71		1			1
162	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.49	1		1	1	
163	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.49	1			1	1
164	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.44			1		
165	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.70		1			
166	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.49		1			
167	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.45	1		1		
168	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.78			1		
169	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.99			1	1	1
170	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.77			1	1	1
171	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.09		1	1		
172	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.95	1		1	1	
173	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.02			1		
174	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.91				1	1
175	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	0.79					1
176	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.04	1		1	1	
177	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.04	1			1	1
178	<i>Myiophobastria</i>	1.27	1		1	1	1

No.	Worm Name (Family)	Mean Log 10					
		Body	1	2	3	4	5
181	<i>Aphelenchus glaber</i>	1.29					
182	<i>Aphelenchus nigri</i>	1.22					
183	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
184	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
185	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
186	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
187	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
188	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
189	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
190	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
191	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
192	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
193	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
194	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
195	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
196	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
197	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
198	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
199	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
200	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
201	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
202	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
203	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
204	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
205	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
206	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
207	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
208	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
209	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
210	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
211	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
212	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
213	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
214	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
215	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
216	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
217	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
218	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
219	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
220	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
221	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
222	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
223	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
224	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
225	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
226	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
227	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
228	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
229	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
230	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
231	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
232	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
233	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
234	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
235	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
236	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
237	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
238	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
239	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
240	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
241	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
242	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
243	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
244	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
245	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
246	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
247	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
248	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
249	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
250	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
251	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
252	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
253	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
254	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
255	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
256	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
257	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
258	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
259	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
260	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
261	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
262	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
263	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
264	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
265	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
266	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
267	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
268	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
269	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
270	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
271	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
272	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
273	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
274	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
275	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
276	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
277	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
278	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
279	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
280	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
281	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
282	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
283	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
284	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
285	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
286	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
287	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
288	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
289	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
290	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
291	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
292	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
293	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
294	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
295	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
296	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
297	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
298	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
299	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					
300	<i>Aphelenchus rufus</i>	1.29					

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Male Length		Sex			
		Mean	S	♀	♂	S	♀
127	<i>Vireo altiloquax</i>	1.137		1			
128	<i>Wilsonia pusilla</i>	0.824	1	1			
129	<i>Wilsonia pusilla</i>	0.860					1
130	<i>Geothlypis trichas</i>	1.171	1	1	1	1	
131	<i>Geothlypis trichas</i>	1.120	1	1	1	1	1
132	<i>Geothlypis trichas</i>	1.120					1
133	<i>Geothlypis trichas</i>	1.161		1			

## 13. BIRDS OF FOREALFOREST TYPES IN NORTH AMERICA

	HYPERNAME	REFERENCE
1	Great Lakes Forest (Great Lakes Forest Park, Saskatchewan, Canada)	Wilson, A.J., 1976
2	Great River Flow Forests	Great River Forest Experiment Station, St. J. R., 1970
3	Highway Forested Park, Manitoba	A Preliminary Field and Forest Inventory 1976, St. J. R., 1976
4	Tree Biological Station, Manitoba	Forest 1973-1983 Inventory, St. J. R., 1976
5	Wood Buffalo NP, Alberta, 1974 Inventory	Wood Buffalo National Park, Canada, 1974, St. J. R., 1976

## Missouri

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Body		Wing		
		Mean	1	2	3	4
1	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.227	1	1	1	1
2	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.217	1	1	1	1
3	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
4	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
5	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
6	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
7	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
8	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
9	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
10	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
11	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
12	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
13	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
14	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
15	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
16	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
17	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
18	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
19	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
20	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
21	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
22	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
23	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
24	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
25	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
26	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
27	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
28	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
29	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
30	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
31	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
32	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1
33	<i>Asiopteryx vociferans</i>	2.220	1	1	1	1



## Mean Length

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Body		Eye		
		Min.	1	2	3	4
18	<i>Bracon areolaris areolaris</i>	2.04	1	1	1	1
19	<i>Bracon areolaris areolaris</i>	2.00	1	1	1	1
20	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	2.00	0	1	1	1
21	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	2.07	0			1
22	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	2.04	0	1	1	1
23	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	2.00	0	1	1	1
24	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	2.00	0	1	1	1
25	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	2.00	0	1	1	1
26	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	2.07	0	1	1	
27	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.95	0			1
28	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0			1
29	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
30	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.93	0	1	1	1
31	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
32	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
33	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
34	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
35	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
36	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
37	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
38	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
39	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
40	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
41	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
42	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
43	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
44	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
45	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
46	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
47	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
48	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
49	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
50	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
51	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
52	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
53	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
54	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
55	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
56	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
57	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
58	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
59	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1
60	<i>Bracon areolaris</i>	1.94	0	1	1	1

## Mini List#1

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Body		Sex		
		Min	1	2	3	4
01	<i>Cypripedium</i>	1,750				1
02	<i>Podophyllopsis</i>	2,075	1	1	1	1
03	<i>Panicum pilosum</i>	1,000		1		
04	<i>Thymus thymifolia</i>	1,000	0		1	1
05	<i>Panicum holmianum</i>	1,000	0		1	1
06	<i>Panicum diemianum</i>	1,400	0	1		1
07	<i>Panicum canadense</i>	1,000	0	1		1
08	<i>Panicum sp.</i>	1,000	0	1		1
09	<i>Panicum stramonifolium</i>	1,000	1			1
10	<i>Panicum canadense</i>	1,000	0		1	1
11	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	0	1		1
12	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
13	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
14	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
15	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
16	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
17	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
18	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
19	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
20	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
21	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
22	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
23	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
24	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
25	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
26	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
27	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
28	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
29	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
30	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
31	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
32	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
33	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
34	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
35	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
36	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
37	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
38	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
39	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
40	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
41	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
42	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
43	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
44	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
45	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
46	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
47	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
48	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
49	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
50	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
51	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
52	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
53	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
54	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
55	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
56	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
57	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
58	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
59	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
60	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
61	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
62	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
63	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
64	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
65	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
66	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
67	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
68	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
69	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
70	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
71	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
72	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
73	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
74	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
75	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
76	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
77	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
78	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
79	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
80	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
81	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
82	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
83	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
84	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
85	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
86	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
87	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
88	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
89	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
90	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
91	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
92	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
93	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
94	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
95	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
96	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
97	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
98	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
99	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1
100	<i>Phlox pilularis</i>	1,000	1	1	1	1

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Measure 1		Measure 2	
		July	Aug	July	Aug
126	<i>Carduelis palmarum</i>	1,113	1	1	1
127	<i>Carduelis pensilvanica</i>	4,984	1	1	1
128	<i>Carduelis pusilla</i>	4,984	1	1	1
129	<i>Carduelis strata</i>	1,113	1	1	1
130	<i>Carduelis virens</i>	1,113	1	1	1
131	<i>Carduelis virens</i>	4,984	1	1	1
132	<i>Chondestes septentrionalis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
133	<i>Dryocopus pileatus</i>	1,457	1	1	1
134	<i>Geothlypis trichas</i>	1,457	1	1	1
135	<i>Empidonax alpinus</i>	1,457	1	1	1
136	<i>Empidonax flaviventris</i>	1,457	1	1	1
137	<i>Empidonax traillii</i>	1,113	1	1	1
138	<i>Empidonax traillii</i>	1,457	1	1	1
139	<i>Empidonax traillii</i>	1,457	1	1	1
140	<i>Falco sparverius</i>	1,799	1	1	1
141	<i>Falco sparverius</i>	1,457	1	1	1
142	<i>Falco sparverius</i>	1,457	1	1	1
143	<i>Falco sparverius</i>	1,457	1	1	1
144	<i>Falco sparverius</i>	1,457	1	1	1
145	<i>Falco sparverius</i>	1,457	1	1	1
146	<i>Falco sparverius</i>	1,457	1	1	1
147	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	1,457	1	1	1
148	<i>Geothlypis trichas</i>	1,457	1	1	1
149	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
150	<i>Geothlypis trichas</i>	1,457	1	1	1
151	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
152	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
153	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
154	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
155	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
156	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
157	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
158	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
159	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
160	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
161	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
162	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
163	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
164	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
165	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
166	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
167	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
168	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
169	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
170	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
171	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
172	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
173	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
174	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
175	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
176	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
177	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
178	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
179	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1
180	<i>Carduelis</i>	1,457	1	1	1

No.	SCIENTIFIC LABEL	Bowl Length		Size			
		Min	1	2	3	4	5
131	<i>Senna sкупа</i>	1073					1
132	<i>Senna blanda</i>	1079	1		1	2	3
133	<i>Senna parviflora</i>	1089					3
134	<i>Stellaria media</i>	1097	1			1	2
135	<i>Stellaria rosea</i>	1098	1	1	1	1	
136	<i>Stachys recta</i>	1104	1		1		
137	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1105	1	1			1
138	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1106					1
139	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1108	1	1	1		3
140	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1109			1	1	
141	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1110	1				1
142	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1111	1				1
143	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1112	1				1
144	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1113	1				1
145	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1114	1				1
146	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1115	1				1
147	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1116	1				1
148	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1117	1				1
149	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1118	1				1
150	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1119	1				1
151	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1120	1				1
152	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1121	1				1
153	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1122	1				1
154	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1123	1				1
155	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1124	1				1
156	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1125	1				1
157	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1126	1				1
158	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1127	1				1
159	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1128	1				1
160	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1129	1				1
161	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1130	1				1
162	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1131	1				1
163	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1132	1				1
164	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1133	1				1
165	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1134	1				1
166	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1135	1				1
167	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1136	1				1
168	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1137	1				1
169	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1138	1				1
170	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1139	1				1
171	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1140	1				1
172	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1141	1				1
173	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1142	1				1
174	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1143	1				1
175	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1144	1				1
176	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1145	1				1
177	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1146	1				1
178	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1147	1				1
179	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1148	1				1
180	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1149	1				1
181	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1150	1				1
182	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1151	1				1
183	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1152	1				1
184	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1153	1				1
185	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1154	1				1
186	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1155	1				1
187	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1156	1				1
188	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1157	1				1
189	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1158	1				1
190	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1159	1				1
191	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1160	1				1
192	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1161	1				1
193	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1162	1				1
194	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1163	1				1
195	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1164	1				1
196	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1165	1				1
197	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1166	1				1
198	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1167	1				1
199	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1168	1				1
200	<i>Stachys alpina</i>	1169	1				1











No.	City	Incorporated	Area	Pop.	Year Built										Tot. Inv.		
					1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	
1	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
2	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
3	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
4	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
5	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
6	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
7	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
8	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
9	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
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11	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
12	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
13	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
14	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
15	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
16	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
17	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
18	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
19	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
20	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
21	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
22	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
23	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
24	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
25	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
26	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
27	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
28	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
29	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
30	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
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32	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
33	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
34	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
35	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
36	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
37	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
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103	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
104	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
105	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
106	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
107	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
108	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
109	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
110	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
111	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
112	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
113	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
114	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
115	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
116	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
117	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
118	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
119	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
120	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
121	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
122	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
123	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
124	Abbeville	1870	100	100													
125	Abbeville	1870	100	100	</												



## 3 MAMMALS OF TROPICAL WET FOREST AREAS IN CENTRAL AMERICA

No.	SITE NAME	ALTITUDE
1	Columbian Blue Face Squirrel	Barro Colorado, 1965
2	Melinis	Barro Colorado, 1965

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Measurements		SEX	AGE	REMARKS
		GENUS	SPECIES	Weight	Sex			
1	Artibeus	Myotis	myotis	4.25	♂			
2	Artibeus	Myotis	myotis	4.70	♂			
3	Artibeus	Myotis	myotis	4.55	♂			
4	Artibeus	Myotis	sp.	6.00	♂			
4	Artibeus	Myotis	sp.	4.50	♂			
6	Castor	Reithrodon	reithrodon	3.54	♂			
7	Castor	Citellus	leucurus	4.10	♂			
8	Castor	Citellus	leucurus	2.50	♂			
9	Castor	Reithrodon	leucurus	3.40	♂			
10	Castor	Lepus	sylvaticus	4.20	♂			
11	Castor	Myotis	myotis	3.90	♂			
12	Castor	Myotis	myotis	3.70	♂			
13	Castor	Myotis	myotis	2.90	♂			2.60 1
14	Castor	Myotis	myotis	3.00	♂			
15	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	4.40	♂			
16	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
17	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
18	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
19	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
20	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
21	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
22	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
23	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
24	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
25	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
26	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
27	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
28	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
29	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
30	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
31	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
32	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
33	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
34	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
35	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
36	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
37	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			
38	Castor	Peromyscus	leucurus	3.40	♂			

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Male Log 10		ACTIV.	
		GENUS	SPECIES	Mean	Stdev	MASS	SIZE
39	Colletidae	Man	maculipes	2.239	1		
40	Colletidae	Meloboris	gibbosus	2.240	1		
41	Colletidae	Meloboris	leucipes	2.275	1		
42	Colletidae	Meloboris	obovatus	2.280	1		
43	Colletidae	Odyneropsis	lapidaria	2.285	1		
44	Colletidae	Odynerops	affinis	2.475	1		
45	Colletidae	Odynerops	ovatus	2.481	1		
46	Colletidae	Odynerops	schroederi	2.490	1		
47	Colletidae	Odynerops	sericeus	2.479	1		
48	Colletidae	Pogonomyza	gymniventris	2.482	1		
49	Colletidae	Pogonomyza	cyathorum	2.487	1		
50	Colletidae	Pogonomyza	viridis	2.490	1		
51	Colletidae	Pentapleura	caesia	2.585	1		
52	Colletidae	Pentapleura	fulvicornis	2.591	1		
53	Colletidae	Pentapleura	trifida	2.596	1		
54	Colletidae	Pentapleura	maculicollis	2.597	1		
55	Colletidae	Pentapleura	fulvipes	2.571	1		
56	Colletidae	Pentapleura	fulvicollis	2.575	1		
57	Colletidae	Pentapleura	gambelii	2.580	1		
58	Colletidae	Pentapleura	trifida	2.487	1		
59	Colletidae	Pezomachus	caesus	2.590	1		
60	Colletidae	Psithyrus	obryzoides	2.114	1		
61	Colletidae	Psithyrus	fulvicornis	2.122	1		
62	Colletidae	Psithyrus	marginatus	2.114	1		
63	Colletidae	Scutellus	marginatus	2.575	1		
64	Colletidae	Scutellus	clavipes	2.573	1		
65	Colletidae	Sigambra	marginatus	2.413	1		
66	Colletidae	Sigambra	schroederi	2.521	1		
67	Colletidae	Spartopis	caesia	2.474	1		
68	Colletidae	Spartopis	marginatus	2.476	1		
69	Colletidae	Stenomacrus	caesia	2.235	1		
70	Colletidae	Tylomya	schroederi	2.447	1		
71	Colletidae	Zygomyza	leucipes	2.433	1		
72	Colletidae	Zygops	maculicollis	2.495	1		

4. MAMMALS OF HISTORICAL DISTRIBUTION IN  
CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA

No.	SCIENTIFIC NAME	REFERENCE
1	Urocyon	MORON, R.A. 1951.
2	Felis tigris (Felis tigris)	ROBERTS, L. and F. JONES, 1951.

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		New Log 10		ALTERED		
		GENUS	SPECIES	Body Mass	Sex	SCORE	WTL	
1	Artibeus	Artibeus	artibeus	4.57	1	1		
2	Artibeus	Chiroptera	nyctinomus	4.60	1	1		
3	Artibeus	Trox	trox	4.57	1	1		
4	Canis	Canis	canis	5.04	1	1		
5	Canis	Canis	canis	4.94	1	1		
6	Canis	Canis	canis	5.21	1	1		
7	Canis	Canis	canis	5.22	1	1		
8	Canis	Canis	canis	5.00	1	1		
9	Canis	Canis	canis	4.98	1	1		
10	Canis	Canis	canis	4.91	1	1		
11	Canis	Canis	canis	4.97	1	1		
12	Canis	Canis	canis	4.97	1	1		
13	Canis	Canis	canis	4.97	1	1	2.00	1
14	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
15	Canis	Canis	canis	4.97	1	1		
16	Canis	Canis	canis	4.97	1	1		
17	Canis	Canis	canis	4.94	1	1		
18	Canis	Canis	canis	4.94	1	1		
19	Canis	Canis	canis	4.97	1	1	2.00	1
20	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
21	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
22	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
23	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
24	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
25	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
26	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
27	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
28	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
29	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
30	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
31	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
32	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
33	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
34	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
35	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
36	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
37	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
38	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
39	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
40	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
41	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
42	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
43	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
44	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
45	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
46	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
47	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
48	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
49	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
50	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
51	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
52	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
53	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
54	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
55	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
56	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
57	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
58	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
59	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
60	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
61	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
62	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
63	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
64	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
65	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
66	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
67	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
68	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
69	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
70	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
71	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
72	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
73	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
74	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
75	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
76	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
77	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
78	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
79	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
80	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
81	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
82	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
83	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
84	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
85	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
86	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
87	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
88	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
89	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
90	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
91	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
92	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
93	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
94	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
95	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
96	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
97	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
98	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
99	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		
100	Canis	Canis	canis	4.95	1	1		

No.	CROSS	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Mean Length		ALTER-NATIVE	
		GENUS	SPECIES	Male	Size	MALE	FEMALE
37	Bulweria	Nyctonyx	indianus	1720	3		
38	Bulweria	Ceryle	alber	1470	3		
40	Bulweria	Ceryle	melanotos	1470	3		
41	Bulweria	Ceryle	palustris	1370	3		
42	Bulweria	Ceryle	corollata	1400	3		
43	Bulweria	Agelaius	indianus	1400	3		
44	Bulweria	Perisoreus	canadensis	1350	3		
45	Bulweria	Perisoreus	graculus	1400	3		
46	Bulweria	Amphispiza	sp.	1400	3		
47	Bulweria	Polioptila	caerulea	1300	3		
48	Bulweria	Sitta	collaris	1070	3		
49	Bulweria	Sitta	pygmaea	1100	3		
50	Bulweria	Sitta	chamaea	1277	3		
51	Bulweria	Sitta	carolinensis	1100	3		
52	Bulweria	Merula	alba	1100	3		
53	Bulweria	Chondestes	alpestris	1100	3		
54	Bulweria	Caprimulgus	americanus	1400	3		
55	Bulweria	Turdus	americanus	1370	3		

## 5. MAMMALS OF NEOTROPICAL-ORINO AND CERRADO BIOTES IN SOUTH AMERICA.

No.	TYPE NAME	SYNONYMS
1	Caryacus Mitter	Ferriss L. 1911
2	Deltosom	Bassett L. 1911
3	Ceryg	Mart. N.A. (1911) Downing J. A. 1911 1000 1911

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Mammals				OTHER			
		GENUS	SPECIES	Body	Size	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Artibeus	Artibeus	argutus	4.54	1						
2	Artibeus	Lasiurus	gambeli	3.54							
3	Artibeus	Mus	gambeli	3.75	1			1	1	4.70	5
4	Artibeus	Chiroptera	argutus	4.40			1				
5	Artibeus	Chiroptera	argutus	4.40							
6	Artibeus	Taxus	argutus	4.70	1						
7	Artibeus	Taxus	argutus	4.70	1						
8	Ceryg	Ceryg	argutus	3.75	1					3.40	5
9	Ceryg	Ceryg	argutus	3.75	1						
10	Ceryg	Ceryg	argutus	3.75	1						
11	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
12	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
13	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
14	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1					3.40	5
15	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
16	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
17	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
18	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1					3.70	5
19	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
20	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
21	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
22	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
23	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
24	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
25	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
26	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
27	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1					3.70	5
28	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
29	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
30	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
31	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
32	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
33	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
34	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
35	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
36	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
37	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
38	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
39	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
40	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
41	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
42	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
43	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
44	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
45	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
46	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
47	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
48	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
49	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						
50	Ceryg	Chiroptera	argutus	3.75	1						

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME	GENUS	SPECIES	Mean Log 10				ALLEN RATING		
					Body	Wing	1	2	3	4	MASS
39	Aculeata	Colletes	Colletes	salicis	1.853	1				1.75	1
40	Aculeata	Cole	Cole	sp.	2.000	1	1				
41	Aculeata	Cremat	Cremat	pratensis	2.020	1		1			
42	Aculeata	Chromop	Chromop	sp.	2.080	1		1			
43	Aculeata	Dacnusa	Dacnusa	nitens	2.080		1				
44	Aculeata	Dacnusa	Dacnusa	pyrenoclypea	2.077				1		
45	Aculeata	Odyner	Odyner	maculipes	2.162		1				
46	Aculeata	Odyner	Odyner	sp.	2.000				1		
47	Aculeata	Genysa	Genysa	grandis	1.820				1		
48	Aculeata	Mesoch	Mesoch	sp.	2.000				1		
49	Aculeata	Euclyptus	Euclyptus	sp.	2.000				1		
50	Aculeata	Odynera	Odynera	nitens	1.812				1		
51	Aculeata	Odynera	Odynera	sublinea	1.900				1		
52	Aculeata	Chalcidop	Chalcidop	maculata	1.875				1		
53	Aculeata	Sphegus	Sphegus	nitens	1.800			1			
54	Aculeata	Promethes	Promethes	sp.	2.000				1		
55	Aculeata	Phaenoc	Phaenoc	pyraliformis	1.700				1		
56	Aculeata	Euclyptus	Euclyptus	maculata	1.700			1			
57	Aculeata	Chalcidop	Chalcidop	sp.	2.000	1					
58	Aculeata	Odyner	Odyner	nitens	1.877				1		
59	Aculeata	Odyner	Odyner	sp.	2.000	1					
60	Aculeata	Euphranta	Euphranta	nitens	1.920				1		
61	Aculeata	Euphranta	Euphranta	nitens	1.890	1		1			
62	Aculeata	Mesochorus	Mesochorus	nitens	1.920	1		1			
63	Aculeata	Promethes	Promethes	nitens	1.700	1					
64	Aculeata	Tenodes	Tenodes	nitens	1.770	1		1	1	2.00	1
65	Aculeata	Telypter	Telypter	nitens	1.820				1		



## 4. MAMMALS OF CACTUS-SCRUBLAND SITES IN SOUTH AMERICA

No.	SITE NAME	REFERENCE
1	Morro Colorado, Argentina	Morro M.A. 1953, Downing, J. & mol M. 1953

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Mean Length	
		GENUS	SPECIES	Body	Tail
1	Artibeidae	Lasiurus	gambeli	130	1
2	Artibeidae	Myotis	chryso	120	1
3	Canidae	Canis	chrys	120	1
4	Canidae	Canis	am	120	1
5	Canidae	Dasyatis	colaptes	140	1
6	Canidae	Dasyatis	grisea	140	1
7	Canidae	Dasyatis	griseiventris	170	1
8	Canidae	Felis	colocolo	140	1
9	Canidae	Felis	concolor	140	1
10	Canidae	Felis	gracilis	140	1
11	Canidae	Felis	ycapensis	140	1
12	Canidae	Lynx	pygmaea	140	1
13	Momphotrogonidae	Didymus	abramis	140	1
14	Momphotrogonidae	Marmosa	gracilis	120	1
15	Bufo	Bufo	gracilis	140	1
16	Bufo	Bufo	sp	140	1
17	Bufo	Bufo	varis	140	1
18	Bufo	Scaphiopus	oleif	140	1
19	Bufo	Craugastor	maculatus	120	1
20	Bufo	Craugastor	lewis	140	1
21	Bufo	Craugastor	albatus	120	1
22	Bufo	Delphax	pygmaea	140	1
23	Bufo	Elipsax	typus	120	1
24	Bufo	Craugastor	maculatus	140	1
25	Bufo	Craugastor	gracilis	140	1
26	Bufo	Craugastor	lewis	140	1
27	Bufo	Craugastor	albatus	120	1
28	Bufo	Craugastor	gracilis	140	1
29	Bufo	Craugastor	lewis	140	1
30	Bufo	Craugastor	albatus	120	1

## F. FAUNAL OF NEOTROPICAL ORAMBLAND WEEBLS IN SOUTH AMERICA

No.	COL NAME	MATERIAL		Mean Temp	
				July	Jan
1	Cerro Mencia, NY Ecuador		Tyler ET al. 1965		
2	Barro Colorado, NY Ecuador		Champion Jr. (1965)		
		SCIENTIFIC NAME			
No.	ORDER	GENUS	SPECIES	Mean	1 2
1	Arctoleptis	Musonia	amazonica	4.33	1
2	Arctoleptis	Tegonia	peruv	4.53	1 1
3	Arctoleptis	Tegonia	typica	4.53	1 1
4	Campoplex	Em	bolivian	5.00	1
5	Campoplex	Felis	maculifer	4.50	1
6	Campoplex	Felis	peruviana	4.50	1
7	Campoplex	Felis	typica	5.07	1
8	Campoplex	Felis	trivitt	5.07	1
9	Campoplex	Felis	pygmaea	5.00	1 1
10	Campoplex	Luteo	brunneator	5.00	1
11	Campoplex	Musonia	trivitt	5.00	1
12	Campoplex	Musonia	amazon	5.00	1
13	Campoplex	Felis	typica	5.07	1
14	Campoplex	Procyon	amazonica	4.80	1
15	Euphranta	Ephialtes	bolivianus	5.54	1
16	Mesochorus	Calamops	chilensis	5.00	1
17	Mesochorus	Otitocentrus	amazon	5.00	1 1
18	Mesochorus	Triclistus	amazonicus	5.00	1
19	Mesochorus	Mesochorus	amazonicus	5.00	1 1
20	Mesochorus	Palaeos	amazon	5.00	1
21	Phaenocarpa	Phaenocarpa	peruv	5.00	1 1
22	Phaenocarpa	Cela	amazon	5.00	1
23	Phaenocarpa	Cela	typica	5.51	1
24	Exochus	Agrotis	peruv	5.00	1 1
25	Exochus	Casalis	amazonicus	5.07	1 1
26	Exochus	Gaurogaster	peruv	5.00	1 1
27	Exochus	Heterogaster	peruv	5.00	1
28	Exochus	Oryssus	amazonicus	5.00	1
29	Exochus	Oryssus	amazon	5.00	1
30	Exochus	Oryssus	amazonicus	5.00	1
31	Exochus	Scorpa	amazonicus	5.00	1 1
32	Exochus	Scorpa	amazonicus	5.07	1 1
33	Exochus	Chalcidius	amazonicus	5.00	1
34	Exochus	Cylindrus	amazonicus	5.00	1
35	Exochus	Chalcidius	amazonicus	5.07	1 1
36	Exochus	Tanacetius	amazonicus	5.00	1

4. NAME(S) IN HISTORICAL TEXT, MORPHOLOGICAL VARIANTS IN SOURCE SPECIES

No.	HTI NAME	REFERENCE
1	Corn Wheat (in Ecuador)	Greenway L. and Y. Alfaro, 1992
2	Corn Flour (in Ecuador, in Ecuador)	Greenway L. and Y. Alfaro, 1992
3	Barbaro Natural (in Ecuador, Colombia)	Alfonso M. and E. Ospina, 1992

No.	CODE	SCIENTIFIC NAME	GENUS	SPECIES	Mean Log <sub>10</sub>		HTI	
					Body	Site	MASS	HTI
1		Artibeus	Musora	artibeus	4.21	1	1	
2		Artibeus	Chiroptera	artibeus	4.43	1	1	
3		Artibeus	Felis	artibeus	3.94			1
4		Artibeus	Tayassu	artibeus	4.22	1	1	
4		Artibeus	Felis	artibeus	4.21	1		
4		Cariacus	Neomyscus	artibeus	3.27			1
7		Cariacus	Dasyatis	artibeus	3.42			1
4		Cariacus	Bis	artibeus	3.44	1	1	1
1		Cariacus	Bis	artibeus	4.22	1		
10		Cariacus	Bis	artibeus	4.22	1	1	1
11		Cariacus	Bis	artibeus	4.22	1	1	1
12		Cariacus	Bis	artibeus	3.27	1		
13		Cariacus	Bis	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
14		Cariacus	Cariacus	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
15		Cariacus	Cariacus	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
16		Cariacus	Cariacus	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
17		Cariacus	Cariacus	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
18		Cariacus	Cariacus	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
19		Cariacus	Cariacus	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
20		Cariacus	Cariacus	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
21		Lepidoptera	Spiloptera	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
22		Mammalia	Colony	artibeus	3.27	1		
23		Mammalia	Cariacus	artibeus	3.27			1
24		Mammalia	Trichyde	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
25		Mammalia	Mammalia	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
26		Mammalia	Ptilinidae	artibeus	3.27	1		
27		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
28		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
29		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
30		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
31		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
32		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
33		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
34		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
35		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
36		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
37		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
38		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1
39		Fishes	Albula	artibeus	3.27	1	1	1

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Mean Log(D)			ALTER NATIVE	STATUS	DTR
		GENUS	SPECIES	Body Mass	g	g			
41	Ardeidae	<i>Pelecanus</i>	<i>fuscus</i>	2.43	1	1			
42	Ardeidae	<i>Pelecanus</i>	<i>erythrorhynchos</i>	2.190		1			
43	Ardeidae	<i>Pelecanus</i>	sp.	2.22	1				
44	Ardeidae	<i>Scolopax</i>	<i>graculosa</i>	2.561	1	1			
45	Ardeidae	<i>Scolopax</i>	<i>otostictus</i>	2.477	1				
46	Ardeidae	<i>Meleptan</i>	<i>trichoptera</i>	2.522		1			
47	Ardeidae	<i>Meleptan</i>	<i>rotundus</i>	2.81		1			
47	Ardeidae	<i>Chalchicomula</i>	<i>fulvicauda</i>	2.774	1				
48	Ardeidae	<i>Cyranus</i>	<i>albigula</i>	2.62		1			
49	Ardeidae	<i>Tringa</i>	<i>canadensis</i>	2.477	1	1	2.581	4	
50	Ardeidae	<i>Hymenochirus</i>	<i>tricoloris</i>	2.488	1				
51	Ardeidae	<i>Totanus</i>	<i>undatus</i>	2.72	1	1			
52	Ardeidae	<i>Totanus</i>	sp.	2.76		1			



Year	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030																																																																						
Population	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135	140	145	150	155	160	165	170	175	180	185	190	195	200	205	210	215	220	225	230	235	240	245	250	255	260	265	270	275	280	285	290	295	300	305	310	315	320	325	330	335	340	345	350	355	360	365	370	375	380	385	390	395	400	405	410	415	420	425	430	435	440	445	450	455	460	465	470	475	480	485	490	495	500	505	510	515	520	525	530	535	540	545	550	555	560	565	570	575	580	585	590	595	600	605	610	615	620	625	630	635	640	645	650	655	660	665	670	675	680	685	690	695	700	705	710	715	720	725	730	735	740	745	750	755	760	765	770	775	780	785	790	795	800	805	810	815	820	825	830	835	840	845	850	855	860	865	870	875	880	885	890	895	900	905	910	915	920	925	930	935	940	945	950	955	960	965	970	975	980	985	990	995	1000																				
GDP	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135	140	145	150	155	160	165	170	175	180	185	190	195	200	205	210	215	220	225	230	235	240	245	250	255	260	265	270	275	280	285	290	295	300	305	310	315	320	325	330	335	340	345	350	355	360	365	370	375	380	385	390	395	400	405	410	415	420	425	430	435	440	445	450	455	460	465	470	475	480	485	490	495	500	505	510	515	520	525	530	535	540	545	550	555	560	565	570	575	580	585	590	595	600	605	610	615	620	625	630	635	640	645	650	655	660	665	670	675	680	685	690	695	700	705	710	715	720	725	730	735	740	745	750	755	760	765	770	775	780	785	790	795	800	805	810	815	820	825	830	835	840	845	850	855	860	865	870	875	880	885	890	895	900	905	910	915	920	925	930	935	940	945	950	955	960	965	970	975	980	985	990	995	1000																				
Unemployment	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.5	9.0	9.5	10.0	10.5	11.0	11.5	12.0	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.0	14.5	15.0	15.5	16.0	16.5	17.0	17.5	18.0	18.5	19.0	19.5	20.0	20.5	21.0	21.5	22.0	22.5	23.0	23.5	24.0	24.5	25.0	25.5	26.0	26.5	27.0	27.5	28.0	28.5	29.0	29.5	30.0	30.5	31.0	31.5	32.0	32.5	33.0	33.5	34.0	34.5	35.0	35.5	36.0	36.5	37.0	37.5	38.0	38.5	39.0	39.5	40.0	40.5	41.0	41.5	42.0	42.5	43.0	43.5	44.0	44.5	45.0	45.5	46.0	46.5	47.0	47.5	48.0	48.5	49.0	49.5	50.0	50.5	51.0	51.5	52.0	52.5	53.0	53.5	54.0	54.5	55.0	55.5	56.0	56.5	57.0	57.5	58.0	58.5	59.0	59.5	60.0	60.5	61.0	61.5	62.0	62.5	63.0	63.5	64.0	64.5	65.0	65.5	66.0	66.5	67.0	67.5	68.0	68.5	69.0	69.5	70.0	70.5	71.0	71.5	72.0	72.5	73.0	73.5	74.0	74.5	75.0	75.5	76.0	76.5	77.0	77.5	78.0	78.5	79.0	79.5	80.0	80.5	81.0	81.5	82.0	82.5	83.0	83.5	84.0	84.5	85.0	85.5	86.0	86.5	87.0	87.5	88.0	88.5	89.0	89.5	90.0	90.5	91.0	91.5	92.0	92.5	93.0	93.5	94.0	94.5	95.0	95.5	96.0	96.5	97.0	97.5	98.0	98.5	99.0	99.5	100.0										
Inflation	0.0	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.5	9.0	9.5	10.0	10.5	11.0	11.5	12.0	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.0	14.5	15.0	15.5	16.0	16.5	17.0	17.5	18.0	18.5	19.0	19.5	20.0	20.5	21.0	21.5	22.0	22.5	23.0	23.5	24.0	24.5	25.0	25.5	26.0	26.5	27.0	27.5	28.0	28.5	29.0	29.5	30.0	30.5	31.0	31.5	32.0	32.5	33.0	33.5	34.0	34.5	35.0	35.5	36.0	36.5	37.0	37.5	38.0	38.5	39.0	39.5	40.0	40.5	41.0	41.5	42.0	42.5	43.0	43.5	44.0	44.5	45.0	45.5	46.0	46.5	47.0	47.5	48.0	48.5	49.0	49.5	50.0	50.5	51.0	51.5	52.0	52.5	53.0	53.5	54.0	54.5	55.0	55.5	56.0	56.5	57.0	57.5	58.0	58.5	59.0	59.5	60.0	60.5	61.0	61.5	62.0	62.5	63.0	63.5	64.0	64.5	65.0	65.5	66.0	66.5	67.0	67.5	68.0	68.5	69.0	69.5	70.0	70.5	71.0	71.5	72.0	72.5	73.0	73.5	74.0	74.5	75.0	75.5	76.0	76.5	77.0	77.5	78.0	78.5	79.0	79.5	80.0	80.5	81.0	81.5	82.0	82.5	83.0	83.5	84.0	84.5	85.0	85.5	86.0	86.5	87.0	87.5	88.0	88.5	89.0	89.5	90.0	90.5	91.0	91.5	92.0	92.5	93.0	93.5	94.0	94.5	95.0	95.5	96.0	96.5	97.0	97.5	98.0	98.5	99.0	99.5	100.0

No.	Date	Particulars	Debit	Credit	Balance
1	1880	By Balance		1000	1000
2	1881	To Cash	500		500
3	1882	To Cash	750		750
4	1883	To Cash	1000		1000
5	1884	To Cash	1250		1250
6	1885	To Cash	1500		1500
7	1886	To Cash	1750		1750
8	1887	To Cash	2000		2000
9	1888	To Cash	2250		2250
10	1889	To Cash	2500		2500
11	1890	To Cash	2750		2750
12	1891	To Cash	3000		3000
13	1892	To Cash	3250		3250
14	1893	To Cash	3500		3500
15	1894	To Cash	3750		3750
16	1895	To Cash	4000		4000
17	1896	To Cash	4250		4250
18	1897	To Cash	4500		4500
19	1898	To Cash	4750		4750
20	1899	To Cash	5000		5000
21	1900	To Cash	5250		5250
22	1901	To Cash	5500		5500
23	1902	To Cash	5750		5750
24	1903	To Cash	6000		6000
25	1904	To Cash	6250		6250
26	1905	To Cash	6500		6500
27	1906	To Cash	6750		6750
28	1907	To Cash	7000		7000
29	1908	To Cash	7250		7250
30	1909	To Cash	7500		7500
31	1910	To Cash	7750		7750
32	1911	To Cash	8000		8000
33	1912	To Cash	8250		8250
34	1913	To Cash	8500		8500
35	1914	To Cash	8750		8750
36	1915	To Cash	9000		9000
37	1916	To Cash	9250		9250
38	1917	To Cash	9500		9500
39	1918	To Cash	9750		9750
40	1919	To Cash	10000		10000
41	1920	To Cash	10250		10250
42	1921	To Cash	10500		10500
43	1922	To Cash	10750		10750
44	1923	To Cash	11000		11000
45	1924	To Cash	11250		11250
46	1925	To Cash	11500		11500
47	1926	To Cash	11750		11750
48	1927	To Cash	12000		12000
49	1928	To Cash	12250		12250
50	1929	To Cash	12500		12500
51	1930	To Cash	12750		12750
52	1931	To Cash	13000		13000
53	1932	To Cash	13250		13250
54	1933	To Cash	13500		13500
55	1934	To Cash	13750		13750
56	1935	To Cash	14000		14000
57	1936	To Cash	14250		14250
58	1937	To Cash	14500		14500
59	1938	To Cash	14750		14750
60	1939	To Cash	15000		15000
61	1940	To Cash	15250		15250
62	1941	To Cash	15500		15500
63	1942	To Cash	15750		15750
64	1943	To Cash	16000		16000
65	1944	To Cash	16250		16250
66	1945	To Cash	16500		16500
67	1946	To Cash	16750		16750
68	1947	To Cash	17000		17000
69	1948	To Cash	17250		17250
70	1949	To Cash	17500		17500
71	1950	To Cash	17750		17750
72	1951	To Cash	18000		18000
73	1952	To Cash	18250		18250
74	1953	To Cash	18500		18500
75	1954	To Cash	18750		18750
76	1955	To Cash	19000		19000
77	1956	To Cash	19250		19250
78	1957	To Cash	19500		19500
79	1958	To Cash	19750		19750
80	1959	To Cash	20000		20000
81	1960	To Cash	20250		20250
82	1961	To Cash	20500		20500
83	1962	To Cash	20750		20750
84	1963	To Cash	21000		21000
85	1964	To Cash	21250		21250
86	1965	To Cash	21500		21500
87	1966	To Cash	21750		21750
88	1967	To Cash	22000		22000
89	1968	To Cash	22250		22250
90	1969	To Cash	22500		22500
91	1970	To Cash	22750		22750
92	1971	To Cash	23000		23000
93	1972	To Cash	23250		23250
94	1973	To Cash	23500		23500
95	1974	To Cash	23750		23750
96	1975	To Cash	24000		24000
97	1976	To Cash	24250		24250
98	1977	To Cash	24500		24500
99	1978	To Cash	24750		24750
100	1979	To Cash	25000		25000

Date	Particulars	Debit	Credit	Balance
1880				
Jan 1	Balance			100.00
Jan 15	By Cash	50.00		150.00
Jan 20	To Cash		25.00	125.00
Jan 25	By Cash	75.00		200.00
Jan 30	To Cash		100.00	100.00
Feb 5	By Cash	100.00		200.00
Feb 10	To Cash		50.00	150.00
Feb 15	By Cash	150.00		300.00
Feb 20	To Cash		75.00	225.00
Feb 25	By Cash	225.00		450.00
Feb 28	To Cash		100.00	350.00
Mar 5	By Cash	350.00		700.00
Mar 10	To Cash		150.00	550.00
Mar 15	By Cash	550.00		1100.00
Mar 20	To Cash		200.00	900.00
Mar 25	By Cash	900.00		1800.00
Mar 30	To Cash		300.00	1500.00
Apr 5	By Cash	1500.00		3000.00
Apr 10	To Cash		400.00	2600.00
Apr 15	By Cash	2600.00		5200.00
Apr 20	To Cash		500.00	4700.00
Apr 25	By Cash	4700.00		9400.00
Apr 30	To Cash		600.00	8800.00
May 5	By Cash	8800.00		17600.00
May 10	To Cash		700.00	16900.00
May 15	By Cash	16900.00		33800.00
May 20	To Cash		800.00	33000.00
May 25	By Cash	33000.00		66000.00
May 30	To Cash		900.00	65100.00
Jun 5	By Cash	65100.00		130200.00
Jun 10	To Cash		1000.00	129200.00
Jun 15	By Cash	129200.00		258400.00
Jun 20	To Cash		1100.00	257300.00
Jun 25	By Cash	257300.00		514600.00
Jun 30	To Cash		1200.00	513400.00
Jul 5	By Cash	513400.00		1026800.00
Jul 10	To Cash		1300.00	1025500.00
Jul 15	By Cash	1025500.00		2051000.00
Jul 20	To Cash		1400.00	2049600.00
Jul 25	By Cash	2049600.00		4099200.00
Jul 30	To Cash		1500.00	4097700.00
Aug 5	By Cash	4097700.00		8195400.00
Aug 10	To Cash		1600.00	8193800.00
Aug 15	By Cash	8193800.00		16387600.00
Aug 20	To Cash		1700.00	16385900.00
Aug 25	By Cash	16385900.00		32771800.00
Aug 30	To Cash		1800.00	32769900.00
Sep 5	By Cash	32769900.00		65539800.00
Sep 10	To Cash		1900.00	65537900.00
Sep 15	By Cash	65537900.00		131075800.00
Sep 20	To Cash		2000.00	131073800.00
Sep 25	By Cash	131073800.00		262147600.00
Sep 30	To Cash		2100.00	262145500.00
Oct 5	By Cash	262145500.00		524291000.00
Oct 10	To Cash		2200.00	524288800.00
Oct 15	By Cash	524288800.00		1048576800.00
Oct 20	To Cash		2300.00	1048574500.00
Oct 25	By Cash	1048574500.00		2097149000.00
Oct 30	To Cash		2400.00	2097146600.00
Nov 5	By Cash	2097146600.00		4194293200.00
Nov 10	To Cash		2500.00	4194290700.00
Nov 15	By Cash	4194290700.00		8388581400.00
Nov 20	To Cash		2600.00	8388578800.00
Nov 25	By Cash	8388578800.00		16777157600.00
Nov 30	To Cash		2700.00	16777154900.00
Dec 5	By Cash	16777154900.00		33554309800.00
Dec 10	To Cash		2800.00	33554307000.00
Dec 15	By Cash	33554307000.00		67108614000.00
Dec 20	To Cash		2900.00	67108611100.00
Dec 25	By Cash	67108611100.00		134217222000.00
Dec 30	To Cash		3000.00	134217219000.00
Jan 1, 1881	By Cash	134217219000.00		268434438000.00











Date	Particulars	Rs.		Date	Particulars	Rs.	
		To	By			To	By
1911				1911			
1912				1912			
1913				1913			
1914				1914			
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2098				2098			
2099				2099			
2100				2100			

## 13. DIAPYCNIS OF SAVANNA FOREST TYPES IN AFRICA

No.	ITS NAME	REFERENCE
1	Open Savanna	W. J. G. & J. H. W. (1961) <i>Vegetation</i> , 2, 1961 Cowling, J.A. (1968) <i>Ibid.</i> 1968.
2	Light Savanna	Old. No. 1, 1975, Cowling, J.A. and G. Gray, 1980
3	Intermediate Savanna	Yves-Florence, D.P. (1981) Cowling, J.A. and G. Gray, 1980
4	Shrubby Savanna	Wardlaw, J.L. 1979, Grayson, J., 1979, 1979b
5	Open Woodland	Cowling, J.A. (1968) <i>Ibid.</i> 1968
6	Open Woodland	Cowling, J.A. (1968) <i>Ibid.</i> 1968, Cowling, J.A. and G. Gray, 1980

No.	CODE	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Mean Layer				1975-1976		1977-1978		
		(GENUS)	(SPECIES)	Layer	1	2	3	4	5	6		
1	Arctocarpus	Albizia	reticulata	0.101	1	1	1	1	0.101	0	0.101	0
2	Arctocarpus	Acacia	kuusioides	0.100					0.101	0		
3	Arctocarpus	Acacia	kuusioides	0.100					0.101	0		
4	Arctocarpus	Chorizanthe	sp.	0.100					0.101	0		
5	Arctocarpus	Commersonia	bartramia	0.101					0.101	0		
6	Arctocarpus	Commersonia	bartramia	0.100					0.101	0		
7	Arctocarpus	Commersonia	bartramia	0.101					0.101	0		
8	Arctocarpus	Guiera	peruana	0.100					0.101	0		
9	Arctocarpus	Guiera	peruana	0.100					0.101	0		
10	Arctocarpus	Guiera	peruana	0.100					0.101	0	0.101	0
11	Arctocarpus	Hippocratea	peruana	0.101					0.101	0	0.101	0
12	Arctocarpus	Hippocratea	peruana	0.101					0.101	0	0.101	0
13	Arctocarpus	Hippocratea	peruana	0.101					0.101	0	0.101	0
14	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
15	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
16	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
17	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
18	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
19	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
20	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
21	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
22	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
23	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
24	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
25	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
26	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
27	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
28	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
29	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
30	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
31	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
32	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
33	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
34	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
35	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
36	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
37	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
38	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
39	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
40	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
41	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
42	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
43	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		
44	Arctocarpus	Itaya	nitida	0.100					0.101	0		

No.	Code	SUBSPECIES		Mean Length					ALTITUDE		ALTITUDE		
		Male	Female	Male	1	2	3	4	5000	6000	5000	6000	
45	Ceryle	Felis	cinerea	4 765		1	1	1					
46	Ceryle	Felis	ex	4 544									
47	Ceryle	Felis	lepus	3 740									
48	Ceryle	Felis	gerard	4 750									
49	Ceryle	Felis	senil	4 022		1	1	1		0 102	0 4		
50	Ceryle	Felis	gibberis	3 226		1	1	1					
51	Ceryle	Sorex	gerardi	3 129		1	1	1					
52	Ceryle	Sorex	stephens	3 366									
53	Ceryle	Sorex	ignis	3 254									
54	Ceryle	Sorex	gerard	3 599									
55	Ceryle	Sorex	ex	3 899		1	1	1					
56	Ceryle	Sorex	cinereus	3 431		1	1	1		2 544	0		
57	Ceryle	Sorex	stephens	3 774		1	1	1					
58	Ceryle	Sorex	ignis	4 758		1	1	1					
59	Ceryle	Sorex	stephens	3 593		1	1	1		2 542	0		
60	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 561		1	1	1					
61	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
62	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
63	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
64	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1		0 100	0		
65	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1		0 110	0 4	0 100	0
66	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
67	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
68	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
69	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
70	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
71	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
72	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
73	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
74	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
75	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
76	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
77	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
78	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
79	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
80	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
81	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
82	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
83	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
84	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
85	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
86	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
87	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
88	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
89	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
90	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
91	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
92	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
93	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
94	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
95	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
96	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
97	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
98	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
99	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					
100	Ceryle	Sorex	cinerea	3 555		1	1	1					







## 12. MAMMALS OF MOUNT MONTANA AND WET FOREST TYPES IN AFRICA.

No.	SYNONYM	REFERENCE
1	Lemna	Smith, L., et al. 1973. <i>Journal of</i> ... Pitheciophaga, p. 1975. <i>Journal of</i> ... Drawing, J.A., and M. Shaw, 1969.
2	Mitrodon	Smith, 1971. <i>Journal of</i> ... Drawing, J.A., and M. Shaw, 1969.
3	Scapanus	Smith, J.A., and H. Adams, 1964. <i>Journal of</i> ... M. Shaw, 1969.
4	The National Park	Collinson, J.L., and G. Smith, 1964. <i>Journal of</i> ... M. Shaw, 1969.

No.	SYNONYM	Scientific name		Mean weight				MUSEUM		ALTER-	
		GENUS	SPECIES	Sex	Age	Sex	Age	NO.	NO.	LOCALITY	HT
1	Arctomys	Dipodomys	fulvipes	♂ 170	1						
2	Arctomys	Dipodomys	collis	♂ 200	1	1					
3	Arctomys	Dipodomys	deserti	♂ 200	1	1	1				
4	Arctomys	Dipodomys	pusillus	♂ 210							
5	Arctomys	Dipodomys	insularis	♂ 190	1						
6	Arctomys	Dipodomys	montanus	♂ 210	1	1	1				
7	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 120	1			♂ 160			1
8	Arctomys	Dipodomys	neglectus	♂ 150		1					
9	Arctomys	Dipodomys	exilis	♂ 200							
10	Arctomys	Dipodomys	fulvipes	♂ 210	1						
11	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 200	1						
12	Arctomys	Dipodomys	exilis	♂ 150		1					
13	Arctomys	Dipodomys	deserti	♂ 210							
14	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1		♂ 160			1
15	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210		1	1				
16	Arctomys	Dipodomys	exilis	♂ 200	1						
17	Arctomys	Dipodomys	exilis	♂ 200		1	1	♂ 220			1
18	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 200	1						
19	Arctomys	Dipodomys	exilis	♂ 210	1						
20	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1						
21	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1	♂ 200			1
22	Arctomys	Dipodomys	exilis	♂ 210	1						
23	Arctomys	Dipodomys	exilis	♂ 210	1	1	1	♂ 220			1
24	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
25	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1	♂ 200			1
26	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
27	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
28	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
29	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
30	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
31	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
32	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
33	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
34	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
35	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
36	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
37	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
38	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
39	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
40	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
41	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
42	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
43	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
44	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
45	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
46	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				
47	Arctomys	Dipodomys	eximius	♂ 210	1	1	1				

No.	CROP	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Mean Length			A. 1951-1952		A. 1953-1954	
		GENUS	SPECIES	(mm)	♂	♀	NO.	WT.	NO.	WT.
33	Cornus	Hesperis	argentea	4 719	1	1				
34	Cornus	obovata	obovata	3 882	2					
35	Cornus	rostr.	flaccidula	3 513		1				
36	Cornus	Walters	spicata	4 379		1				
37	Cornus	Stuep	peruviana	5 374	1					
38	Cornus	Hedrae	fruticosa	3 333	1	1	1	0 001	1	0
44	Cornus	Flammula	la	4 050	1					
45	Cornus	Flammula	peruv.	4 182	1					
46	Cornus	Frax.	rhomboides	3 333	1	1				
47	Cornus	Viburn.	ovata	4 541	1	1				
48	Cornus	Cornicostyle	fruticosa	3 421	1	1	1	0 788	2	
49	Hymenoclea	Candiaclype	obovata	3 337	1					
50	Hymenoclea	Candiaclype	ovata	3 544	1	1	1			
51	Hymenoclea	hypoceras	intercalophaga	4 000	1	1	1			
52	Isachne	Cornutus	basalis	1 481	1					
53	Isachne	Cornutus	obovata	3 881	1	1				
54	Isachne	Cornutus	ovatus	3 354	1					
55	Isachne	Cornutus	obovata	1 911	1					
56	Isachne	Cornutus	flavipennis	1 337	1	1				
57	Isachne	Cornutus	gracilis	1 330	1					
58	Isachne	Cornutus	gracilis	1 331	1					
59	Isachne	Cornutus	puberulus	3 333	1	1				
60	Isachne	Cornutus	puberulus	3 333	1					
61	Isachne	Cornutus	puberulus	3 333	1					
62	Isachne	Cornutus	puberulus	1 333	1	1				
63	Isachne	Cornutus	puber.	1 333	1					
64	Isachne	Cornutus	puber.	1 333	1	1				
65	Isachne	Cornutus	puber.	1 333	1					
66	Isachne	Cornutus	puber.	1 333	1	1				
67	Isachne	Cornutus	puber.	3 333	1					
67	Isachne	Protoparce	affinis	1 340	1					
68	Isachne	Protoparce	ovata	2 333	1	1	1	2 333	1	
69	Isachne	Prota.	ovata	1 334	1					
70	Isachne	Prota.	puber.	1 407	1					
71	Isachne	Sphincter	longipes	2 332	1					
72	Isachne	Sphincter	ovata	1 333	1					
73	Isachne	Sten.	ovata	3 332	1					
74	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
75	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
76	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
77	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
78	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1	1 333	2	
79	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
80	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
81	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
82	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
83	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1	2 333	2	
84	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
85	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1	1 341	2	
86	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1	2 333	2	1 333
87	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1			
88	Phlox	Sten.	puber.	1 333	1	1	1	1 333	1	

No.	CROD	MORPHOLOGY		MISC LIGHT				ALTER-NA-TIVE		ALTER-NATIVE		
		SMALL	THICK	Max	1	2	3	MAX	HT	MAX	HT	
88	Polysty	Clonax	epoxysty	4 288			1					
89	Polysty	Clonax	toluol	3 000			1					
90	Polysty	Clonax	styrenol	3 000			1					
92	Polysty	Clonax	triglycolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3	3 000	3	
93	Polysty	Clonax	acetol	3 000			1					
94	Polysty	Clonax	metol	3 000			1					
95	Polysty	Ethylacetol	acetol	3 000		1	1					
96	Polysty	Clonax	acetol	3 400			1					
97	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
98	Polysty	Clonax	triglycolol	3 000		1	1					
99	Polysty	Clonax	acetol	3 000		1	1					
100	Polysty	Clonax	acetol	3 000		1	1					
101	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
102	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
103	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
104	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
105	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
106	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
107	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
108	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
109	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
110	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
111	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
112	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
113	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
114	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3	3 000	3	
115	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
116	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
117	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
118	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
119	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
120	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3	3 000	3	
121	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1					
122	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3	3 000	3	
123	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
124	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
125	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3	3 000	3	
126	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
127	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
128	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3	3 000	3	
129	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
130	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
131	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
132	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
133	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			
134	Polysty	Clonax	acetolol	3 000		1	1	3 000	3			

No	GRUP	KONDISI/KEHADA		Masa Layu				ALTERNATIF		ALTERNATIF	
		(1944)	(1950)	Awal	1	2	3	(1944)	(1950)	(1944)	(1950)
140	Kota	Hydroponik	biasa	1 042	1						
141	Kota	Hydro	crystal	4 001	1		1				
142	Kota	biasa	biasa	1 471	1						
143	Kota	Lupinus	slapan	1 763	1	1		1 001	0		
144	Kota	Melampy	slapan	1 781	1						
145	Kota	Melampy	lengkap	1 011	1	1		1 001	0		
146	Kota	Melampy	sp	1 001	1						
147	Kota	Melampy	slapan	0 901	1						
148	Kota	Melampy	biasa	1 001	1						
149	Kota	Melampy	crystal	0 811	1						
150	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1						
151	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1						
152	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1						
153	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1						
154	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1						
155	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1						
156	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1						
157	Kota	Melampy	sp	1 001	1						
158	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1			1 701	0		
159	Kota	Melampy	crystal	0 801	1						
160	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 701	1			1 701	0		
161	Kota	Melampy	crystal	0 801	1	1	1	0 801	0	0 801	0
162	Kota	Melampy	crystal	1 001	1						
163	Kota	Melampy	crystal	0 811	1						
164	Kota	Melampy	crystal	0 801	1						
165	Teknik	Cyrtospa	ata	0 701	1						
166		Melampy	crystal	1 401	1						
167		Melampy	crystal	0 801	1						

## 11. MONOMALS OF RAIN FOREST WOOD IN AUSTRALIA AND NEW

No.	FTI NO. 001	REFERENCE
1	Cape York Peninsula, Australia	Tim. C.P.M. 1993, Drawing, L.A. and M. Siles, 1993.
2	Malaya (Malaysia)	Holmes, J.L. 1991 Drawing, L.A. and M. Siles, 1993.

No.	OBNO	SCIENTIFIC NAME	FTI NO.	Mean Log <sub>10</sub>	
				Wdry	Wet
1	Actinidiops	Sea	actin	3.070	3
2	Actinidiops	Cyclostoma	cyclostoma	3.090	3
3	Actinidiops	Cercis	cercis	3.084	3
4	Actinidiops	Marstonia	marstonia	4.099	3
5	Actinidiops	Sea	sea	4.099	3
4	Actinidiops	Tropala	protonia	3.098	3
7	Actinidiops	Tropala	sepa	3.094	3
8	Cactinea	Arcyia	arcyia	3.429	3
9	Cactinea	Archia	archia	4.033	3
10	Cactinea	Archiphieta	archiphieta	3.233	3
11	Cactinea	Cera	ceraria	4.501	3
10	Cactinea	Etia	etia	3.200	3
10	Cactinea	Etia	etia	3.257	3
10	Cactinea	Etia	etia	4.000	3
10	Cactinea	Etia	etia	3.750	3
11	Cactinea	Etia	etia	3.001	3
17	Cactinea	Marica	marica	3.499	3
18	Cactinea	Pagana	pagana	3.070	3
17	Cactinea	Pachira	pachira	4.401	3
18	Cactinea	Pachira	agria	3.170	3
21	Cactinea	Pachira	isomorphia	3.500	3
18	Cactinea	Pachira	isom	3.049	3
18	Cactinea	Tropala	andrea	3.500	3
24	Cactinea	Nivra	longifolia	4.000	3
21	Cactinea	Nivra	etia	3.020	3
24	Cactinea	Cyclophora	longifolia	3.000	3
27	Cactinea	Cyclophora	phytophila	1.170	3
18	Heliconia	Cordia	algicola	1.100	3
19	Spectinea	Heliconia	protonia	3.040	3
18	Heliconia	Hylaea	etia	3.000	3
11	Heliconia	Sevia	etia	4.000	3
30	Marsipposideris	Acrobasis	protonia	1.100	3
31	Marsipposideris	Acropyrus	etia	3.020	3
34	Marsipposideris	Archiphieta	isom	1.000	3
35	Marsipposideris	Etia	protonia	3.100	3

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		MEAN LOG 10 PERCENT	SEX	
		GENUS	SPECIES		1	2
36	Mantopneustera	Empoasca	viridis	3.75	1	
37	Mantopneustera	Empoasca	fulvipes	3.75	1	
38	Mantopneustera	Desmobraea	insubricana	4.75	1	
39	Mantopneustera	Desmobraea	barbieri	3.00	1	
40	Mantopneustera	Elaphogaster	nitens	3.75	1	
41	Mantopneustera	Heteropneustia	caudata	3.75	1	
42	Mantopneustera	Isobea	caerulescens	3.00	1	
43	Mantopneustera	Isobea	obscura	3.00	1	
44	Mantopneustera	Mantopis	agilis	4.00	1	
45	Mantopneustera	Mantopis	brachy	4.00	1	
46	Mantopneustera	Mantopis	pygmaea	4.00	1	
47	Mantopneustera	Mantopis	parvi	4.00	1	
48	Mantopneustera	Mantopis	retusata	4.00	1	
49	Mantopneustera	Oxypteryx	capitata	3.00	1	
50	Mantopneustera	Pezomachus	caesi	3.00	1	
51	Mantopneustera	Pezomachus	caerulea	3.00	1	
52	Mantopneustera	Pezomachus	lunulipes	3.00	1	
53	Mantopneustera	Pezomachus	ovatus	3.00	1	
54	Mantopneustera	Phalanger	maritima	3.00	1	
55	Mantopneustera	Phalanger	caerulea	3.00	1	
56	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	obscura	3.75	1	
57	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
58	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	barbieriana	3.00	1	
59	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	longipes	3.00	1	
60	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	insubricana	3.00	1	
61	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	pygmaea	3.00	1	
62	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	trifida	3.00	1	
63	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
64	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
65	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
66	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
67	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
68	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
69	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
70	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
71	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
72	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
73	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
74	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
75	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
76	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
77	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
78	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
79	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
80	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
81	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
82	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
83	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
84	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
85	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
86	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
87	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
88	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
89	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
90	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
91	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
92	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
93	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
94	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
95	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
96	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
97	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
98	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
99	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	
100	Mantopneustera	Phaenochorisis	caesi	3.00	1	

## Mean LogFD

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Mean LogFD	
		GENUS	SPECIES	Mean	Size
01	Endoptera	Achrocyx	auriviridis	1.901	1
02	Endoptera	Callimorpha	caudata	1.879	1
03	Endoptera	Callimorpha	negrethorae	1.905	1
04	Endoptera	Callimorpha	rossi	1.906	1
05	Endoptera	Callimorpha	parvula	1.858	1
06	Endoptera	Campoplexys	glauca	1.962	1
07	Endoptera	Dasyneura	marilina	1.939	1
08	Endoptera	Hyalomya	claytoniae	1.889	1
09	Endoptera	Hyalomya	lepta	1.890	1
10	Endoptera	Hyalomya	spalliana	1.891	1
11	Endoptera	Hymia	brachyura	1.903	1
12	Endoptera	Isoxy	longifolia	1.876	1
13	Endoptera	Lamora	longa	1.973	1
14	Endoptera	Leptotha	delicula	1.131	1
15	Endoptera	Melomya	curvipes	1.952	1
16	Endoptera	Melomya	lepta	1.950	1
17	Endoptera	Mesochorus	pubes	1.976	1
18	Endoptera	Pentapleura	pubescens	1.901	1
19	Endoptera	Pentapleura	arguta	1.891	1
20	Endoptera	Pentapleura	nitens	1.891	1
21	Endoptera	Pentapleura	rotundifrons	1.862	1
22	Endoptera	Pentapleura	puberulenta	1.881	1
23	Endoptera	Rallia	canadensis	1.976	1
24	Endoptera	Rallia	rossi	1.976	1
25	Endoptera	Rallia	canadensis	1.981	1
26	Endoptera	Rallia	macleri	1.931	1
27	Endoptera	Rallia	oxya	1.949	1
28	Endoptera	Rallia	albana	1.961	1
29	Endoptera	Rallia	rossi	1.933	1
30	Endoptera	Rallia	whitfieldi	1.998	1
31	Endoptera	Rallia	albata	1.933	1
32	Endoptera	Rallia	rossi	1.933	1
33	Endoptera	Rhagoletia	latifolialis	1.901	1
34	Endoptera	Stenomya	canadensis	1.877	1
35	Endoptera	Stenomya	composita	1.749	1
36	Endoptera	Stenomya	apparent	1.891	1
37	Endoptera	Stenomya	lepta	1.906	1
38	Endoptera	Stenomya	rossi	1.904	1
39	Endoptera	Synomya	arguta	1.881	1
40	Neuroptera	Ptilonota	lepta	1.976	1
41	Neuroptera	Tapeia	gib	1.997	1
42	Neuroptera	Tapeia	rossi	1.991	1
43		Trichostema	rossi	1.891	1



## IN JOURNAL OF QUANT BORDA, FERTIL SITE IN NORTH AMERICA

No.	SITE NAME	REFERENCE
1	Black	Thalberg, J. B. 1956, Kansas Natural Hist. Survey, 1954
2	Northon Valley	Canadian Wildlife Service, Government of Southern Yukon, U.S. Forest Wildlife, 1967

No.	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME	Mean Length		ALTER-	SEX
			Body	Tail		
			Male	Female	MALE	FEMALE
1	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	404	1		
2	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	405	1		
3	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	399	1		
4	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	402	1		
5	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	404	0		
6	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	405	0		
7	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	407	0		
8	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	405	0		
9	Alcedinidae	Alcedo	404	1		
10	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0		
11	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	402	1		
12	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	400	1	400	1
13	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	402	1		
14	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
15	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	400	0		
16	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	400	0		
17	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0	350	0
18	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0	350	0
19	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	400	1		
20	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	400	1		
21	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
22	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1	350	1
23	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
24	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
25	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
26	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
27	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
28	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1	350	1
29	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
30	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0		
31	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0		
32	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0		
33	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0		
34	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0		
35	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0		
36	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0		
37	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	0	350	0
38	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
39	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
40	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
41	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
42	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
43	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
44	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
45	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
46	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
47	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
48	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
49	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		
50	Caprimidae	Caprimulgus	350	1		

No	ORDER	SCIENTIFIC NAME		MATERIAL		RATES	
		GENUS	SPECIES	NO.	WT.	MASS	HT.
39	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
40	Ardeidae	<i>Ceryle</i>	<i>alcyon</i>	1	1	175	2
41	Ardeidae	<i>Ceryle</i>	<i>alcyon</i>	1	1		
42	Ardeidae	<i>Ardeola</i>	<i>herodias</i>	1	1		
43	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
44	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
45	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
46	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
47	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
48	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
49	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
50	Ardeidae	<i>Ardea</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
51	Columbidae	<i>Columba</i>	<i>macroura</i>	1	1		
52	Columbidae	<i>Columba</i>	<i>macroura</i>	1	1		
53	Columbidae	<i>Columba</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
54	Columbidae	<i>Columba</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
55	Columbidae	<i>Columba</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1	180	1
56	Columbidae	<i>Columba</i>	<i>cinerea</i>	1	1		
57	Myristicivores	<i>Colaptes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
58	Bucconidae	<i>Arremonops</i>	<i>holsti</i>	1	1		
59	Bucconidae	<i>Ceryle</i>	<i>alcyon</i>	1	1	180	1
60	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
61	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
62	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
63	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
64	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
65	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
66	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
67	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
68	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
69	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
70	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
71	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
72	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
73	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
74	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
75	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
76	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
77	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
78	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
79	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
80	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
81	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
82	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
83	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
84	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1	180	1
85	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
86	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
87	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
88	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
89	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
90	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
91	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
92	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
93	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
94	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
95	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
96	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
97	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
98	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
99	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		
100	Bucconidae	<i>Cathartes</i>	<i>auratus</i>	1	1		

No.	CITY	SCIENTIFIC NAME		Measure		ALTER-	
		GENUS	SPECIES	Boys	Girls	MADE	HTH
87	Bellevue	Phormoxys	intermedia	1487	1		
88	Bellevue	Polia	marginata	1321	1		
89	Bellevue	Polia	alba	1363	1		
90	Bellevue	Scythocerosys	truncata	1006	1		
91	Bellevue	Scythocerosys	marginata	1185	1		
92	Bellevue	Stenot	ambrosius	1420	1	270	1
93	Bellevue	Stenot	sp.	1459	1		
94	Bellevue	Spargania	biplagiata	1719	1		
95	Bellevue	Spargania	pumila	1403	1		
96	Bellevue	Spargania	frankii	1412	1		
97	Bellevue	Spargania	schultzei	1412	1		
98	Bellevue	Spargania	trichostictata	1374	1		
99	Bellevue	Syngrapha	truncata	1479	1		
100	Bellevue	Syngrapha	capitata	1412	1		
101	Bellevue	Tana	princeps	1397	1		
102	Bellevue	Parasarcophaga	bellevuei	1380	1		
103	Bellevue	Phormoxys	marginata	1410	1		
104	Bellevue	Phormoxys	marginata	1447	1		
105	Bellevue	Phormoxys	marginata	1380	1		
106	Bellevue	Phormoxys	marginata	1447	1		
107	Bellevue	Diphysiphora	truncata	1326	1		

## 15. MANIPALS OF BOREAL FOREST BIRCH IN NORTH AMERICA

No.	SITE NAME	REFERENCE
1	Forest near (near)	Forest near National Park Manitoba, P.H.
2	Highway, Provincial Park	Colburn C.M. 1976, pp. 17-18, personal observations.
3	Topo Biological Station	50 Forest personal observations.
4	Quebec	Colby A.H. 1971 (Country 14, and 15) 1971, 1972.
5	Michigan	

No.	FORM	SCIENTIFIC NAME	SPECIES	Mean length					ALTER.		
				Body	Eye	1	2	3	Height	Wt.	
				mm							
1	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1						
2	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
3	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
4	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
5	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
6	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
7	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
8	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1			4.70	1	
9	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
10	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1			4.85	4	
11	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
12	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
13	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
14	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
15	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1			6.00	3	
16	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
17	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
18	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
19	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
20	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
21	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
22	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
23	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
24	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
25	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
26	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
27	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
28	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
29	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
30	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
31	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
32	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
33	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
34	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
35	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
36	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
37	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
38	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
39	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
40	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
41	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
42	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
43	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
44	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
45	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
46	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
47	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
48	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
49	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
50	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
51	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
52	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
53	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
54	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
55	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
56	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
57	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
58	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
59	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
60	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
61	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
62	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
63	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
64	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
65	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
66	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
67	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
68	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
69	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
70	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
71	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
72	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
73	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
74	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
75	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
76	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
77	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
78	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
79	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
80	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
81	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
82	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
83	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
84	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
85	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
86	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
87	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
88	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
89	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
90	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
91	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
92	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
93	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
94	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
95	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
96	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
97	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
98	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
99	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					
100	Arctophila	Arctophila	Arctophila	2000	1	1					



SI	Species	Order	Family	1982					1983	
				Mean/Length					No./%	
				Mean	1	2	3	4	No.	%
SI	ORDER	TAXONOMIC NAME	SI	1	2	3	4	5	1982	1983
32	Ardeida	Phalaropus	longipennis	1.075	1	1				
33	Ardeida	Phalaropus	longipennis	1.075						
34	Ardeida	Phalaropus	longipennis	1.065						
35	Ardeida	Phalaropus	longipennis	1.085						
36	Ardeida	Phalaropus	longipennis	1.085	1	1				
37	Ardeida	Phalaropus	longipennis	1.075	1	1			1.067	1
38	Ardeida	Phalaropus	longipennis	1.120						
39	Ardeida	Phalaropus	longipennis	1.067	1					
40	Ardeida	Ardea	herodias	1.580	3	1	1		2.402	4
41a	Ardeida	Ardeidae	herodias	1.470	1		1			
41b	Ardeida	Ardeidae	herodias	1.690				1		
42	Ardeida	Ardea	herodias	2.770	1	1			1.610	2
43	Ardeida	Ardea	herodias	1.690						
44	Ardeida	Ardea	herodias	1.710				1		
45	Ardeida	Scolopacidae	limpkin	1.602	2					
46	Ardeida	Scolopacidae	limpkin	1.611	1					
47	Ardeida	Scolopacidae	limpkin	1.611						
48	Ardeida	Scolopacidae	limpkin	1.611	1					
49	Ardeida	Scolopacidae	limpkin	1.270	2	1				
50	Ardeida	Scolopacidae	limpkin	1.611	1					
51	Ardeida	Scolopacidae	limpkin	1.602	1			1	1.652	1
52	Ardeida	Trogon	cinereus	1.067	1				1.060	1
53	Ardeida	Trogonidae	cinereus	0.890	1			1	1.007	1
54	Ardeida	Rhamphus	fulvipes	2.362	1			1		
55	Ardeida	Elanus	fulvipes	1.880	1			1	1.432	1
56	Ardeida	Elanus	fulvipes	1.907						
57	Ardeida	Elanus	fulvipes	2.040						
58	Ardeida	Dryobates	torus	1.124	1					

**APPENDIX C**  
**TAXONOMIC AND NICHE CLASSIFICATIONS**  
**FOR 585 MAMMAL GENERA**

**References**

- 1 **Beck** (unpubl. notes)
- 2 **John F. Eisenberg** 1989 *Mammals of the Neotropics: The Northern Neotropics*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- 3 **Keel** (H. Beollet) and **John F. Eisenberg** 1998 *Mammals of the Neotropics: The Southern Cone*. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- 4 **Levine** (E. Eisenberg) 1980 *Neotropical Rainforest Mammals: A Field Guide*. U of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- 5 **Ronald M. Mitter** 1981 *Primates: a Mammal of the World*. Yale U, John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore.
- 6 **A.W.F. Silliman** 1976 *The Mammals of Canada*. University of Toronto Press, Toronto.
- 7 **Arct** et al. 1988 *Body size, metabolic level, basal metabolic rate and ecological correlates*. *Conservation Biology*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 181-192.

**Mammal Classes – Subclass**

- 1 **Primate**
- 2 **Non-primate**
- 3 **Aquatic**
- 4 **semi-aquatic**
- 5 **Volant**
- 6 **Terrrestrial**
- 7 **terrestrial and semi-aquatic**
- 8 **Aerial**

**Order Reference**

- 1 **Artiodactyla**
- 2 **Carnivora**
- 3 **Chiroptera**
- 4 **Cingulata**
- 5 **Dermoptera**
- 6 **Diprotodontia**
- 7 **Dynastorida**
- 8 **Lagomorpha**
- 9 **Marsupialia**
- 10 **Monoprotodontia**
- 11 **Moschimonans**
- 12 **Tubulidentata**
- 13 **Peracanthomata**
- 14 **Primates**
- 15 **Periprosthenia**
- 16 **Pholidota**
- 17 **Pisces**
- 18 **Prosimians**
- 19 **Psittaciformes**
- 20 **Rodentia**
- 21 **Sauropsida**
- 22 **Insectivora**
- 23 **Marsupialia**
- 24 **Blarina**

**Mammal Class – Feeding**

- 1 **grainivore & seed-eater**
- 2 **omnivore**
- 3 **insectivore**
- 4 **gambivore**
- 5 **scavenger & carnivore**
- 6 **insectivore/bug**
- 7 **small mammalian**
- 8 **cherry-picking insectivore**
- 9 **nectar-eating-insectivore**
- 10 **frugivore-omnivore**
- 11 **frugivore-grainivore**
- 12 **frugivore-insectivore**
- 13 **insectivore-herbivore**
- 14 **insectivore-grazer**
- 15 **placentalomnivore**
- 16 **sanguivore**

## Family References

1	Tetraglenidae	35	Loridae	70	Silkyidae
2	Carabidomyzidae	36	Callinidae	71	Thysanomyzidae
3	Dalmanidae	37	Uliidae	72	Bathypogonidae
4	Dasyidae	38	Caryophoridae	69	Aleocharidae
5	Pezomachidae	39	Hylotrichidae	73	Crematogasteridae
6	Platysternidae	40	Frogidae	74	Isotidae
7	Phalangopidae	41	Megasternidae	75	Dryphidae
8	Pezomachidae	42	Neotyphidae	76	Mesochoridae
9	Pezomachidae	43	Myrmecophagidae	77	Cuculidae
10	Macropodidae	44	Chrysomidae	78	Urochiidae
11	Emocoridae	45	Meloidae	79	Pezomachidae
12	Tenebridae	46	Colemanidae	80	Meloidae
13	Chrysomelidae	47	Lagidae	81	Urochiidae
14	Emocoridae	48	Aglyptinidae	82	Hymenidae
15	Tripidae	49	Stenidae	83	Pelidae
16	Mesochoridae	50	Geomyzidae	84	Ochtheidae
17	Cycrocaphidae	51	Heteromyzidae	85	Cryptopogonidae
18	Pezomachidae	52	Cuculidae	86	Elephantidae
19	Thysanomyzidae	53	Amphichelidae	87	Prosternidae
20	Isotomidae	54	Fulvidae	88	Sigidae
21	Crematogasteridae	55	Meloidae	89	Tapidae
22	Hymenidae	56	Glyptidae	90	Elateridae
23	Megasternidae	57	Dasyidae	91	Isotidae
24	Blattellidae	58	Ogryidae	92	Tenebridae
25	Hippomyzidae	59	Hymenidae	93	Hippomyzidae
26	Mesochoridae	60	Elateridae	94	Cuculidae
27	Hexilidae	61	Cuculidae	95	Trogidae
28	Phyllotomidae	62	Hydrochaeridae	96	Cuculidae
29	Nemidae	63	Dasyidae	97	Carridae
30	Pezomachidae	64	Dasyidae	98	Anthropomyzidae
31	Thysanomyzidae	65	Chenitellidae	99	Boreidae
32	Neopeltomachidae	66	Captomyzidae		
33	Meloidae	67	Ochtheidae		
34	Tripidae	68	Crematogasteridae		



(6)	Common Name	Genus	Family	Order	Sub- order	Sub-
1	Chimpanzee	<i>Pan troglodytes</i>	Hominoidea	Primates	Anthropoidea	21
2	Orangutan	<i>Pongo</i>	Hominoidea	Primates	Anthropoidea	22
3	Gibbon	<i>Hylobates</i>	Hominoidea	Primates	Anthropoidea	23
4	Pygmy Hominid	<i>Pitheciops</i>	Hominoidea	Primates	Anthropoidea	24
5	Howler, Lion-tail, Korb, Pallas	<i>Alouatta</i>	Cercopithecoidea	Primates	Cercopithecoidea	25
6	Red howler	<i>Alouatta palliata</i>	Cercopithecoidea	Primates	Cercopithecoidea	26
7	Howler	<i>Alouatta palliata</i>	Cercopithecoidea	Primates	Cercopithecoidea	27
8	Large black flying squirrel	<i>Glaucomys</i>	Sciuroidea	Rodentia	Sciuroidea	28
9	Small black flying squirrel	<i>Paraglider</i>	Sciuroidea	Rodentia	Sciuroidea	29
10	Eastern chipmunk	<i>Tamias</i>	Sciuroidea	Rodentia	Sciuroidea	30
11	Blue	<i>Tamias</i>	Sciuroidea	Rodentia	Sciuroidea	31
12	Coon	<i>Procyon</i>	Cynoidea	Carnivora	Cynoidea	32
13	Striped	<i>Procyon</i>	Cynoidea	Carnivora	Cynoidea	33
14	Coon	<i>Procyon</i>	Cynoidea	Carnivora	Cynoidea	34
15	Coon	<i>Procyon</i>	Cynoidea	Carnivora	Cynoidea	35
16	Coon	<i>Procyon</i>	Cynoidea	Carnivora	Cynoidea	36
17	Coon	<i>Procyon</i>	Cynoidea	Carnivora	Cynoidea	37
18	Old World Sparrow	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	38
19	Old World Sparrow	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	39
20	Carolinian	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	40
21	Red-headed	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	41
22	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	42
23	Little	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	43
24	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	44
25	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	45
26	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	46
27	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	47
28	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	48
29	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	49
30	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	50
31	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	51
32	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	52
33	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	53
34	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	54
35	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	55
36	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	56
37	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	57
38	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	58
39	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	59
40	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	60
41	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	61
42	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	62
43	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	63
44	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	64
45	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	65
46	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	66
47	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	67
48	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	68
49	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	69
50	White	<i>Passer</i>	Corvidae	Columbiformes	Corvidae	70

No.	Common Name	Class	Family	Order	Sub- order	Dist.
46	White-eared Nighthawk	Accipiter	81	2	2	12
46	Black-headed vireo	Accipiter	28	2	8	18
47	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	10	28	2	12
48	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	55	28	2	12
49		Accipiter	25	7	2	67
50	Belted Kingfisher	Accipiter	37	18	8	12
51	Pipit	Accipiter	77	2	8	62
52	Thicket sparrow	Accipiter	18	20	1	18
53		Accipiter	81	2	1	85
54	Kinglet	Accipiter	48	20	2	11
55	California Towhee	Accipiter	54	1	4	10
56	San Diego Redwing	Accipiter	55	20	1	11
57		Accipiter	20	2	8	67
58	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	12	1	5	10
59	Kinglet	Accipiter	88	20	1	10
60	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	74	1	8	10
61	U.S. Field Sparrow	Accipiter	71	1	8	81
62	Kinglet	Accipiter	23	1	1	97
63	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	81	2	1	88
64	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	48	20	1	10
65	Tai sparrow	Accipiter	88	20	4	10
66	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	10	20	4	17
67	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	10	1	8	18
68	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	14	20	2	69
69	Yucatan Sparrow	Accipiter	20	20	1	11
70	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	88	1	1	84
71	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	42	20	1	15
72	Kinglet	Accipiter	59	20	1	14
73	Kinglet	Accipiter	48	20	1	10
74	San Diego	Accipiter	37	18	1	18
75	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	28	18	1	18
76	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	28	18	1	68
77	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	48	20	1	11
78		Accipiter	55	20	1	21
79		Accipiter	1	10	7	10
80	Pipit	Accipiter	5	10	1	10
81	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	77	1	8	62
82	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	55	20	1	10
83	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	18	1	8	10
84	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	18	1	1	10
85	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	18	1	1	10
86	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	18	1	1	10
87	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	18	1	1	10
88	Scrub-wren	Accipiter	18	1	1	10

No.	Common Name	Class	Length	Depth	Altitude	Dist.
81	Wagtail	Ceryle	41	20	1	10
82		Ceryle	36	19	4	20
83		Ceryle	37	19	4	10
84	Yellow-billed Cuckoo	Coccyzus	20	1	0	10
85		Coccyzus	20	1	0	10
86	White-crowned	Coccyzus	19	1	4	11
87	Forest Parula	Coccyzus	19	10	4	14
88	Blue-winged Teal	Coccyzus	18	10	0	11
89		Coccyzus	18	10	0	10
90	White-crowned	Coccyzus	17	1	4	10
91	Common Cuckoo	Coccyzus	16	1	4	10
92	Swamp Sparrow	Coccyzus	14	10	2	10
93		Coccyzus	14	10	2	10
94	Forest Parula	Coccyzus	14	1	4	10
95		Coccyzus	14	1	4	10
96	Large Golden Plover	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
97		Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
98		Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
99	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
100	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
101	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
102	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
103	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
104	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
105	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
106	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
107	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
108	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
109	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
110	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
111	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
112	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
113	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
114	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
115	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
116	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
117	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
118	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
119	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
120	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
121	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
122	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
123	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
124	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
125	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
126	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
127	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
128	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
129	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
130	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
131	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10
132	Red-tailed Hawk	Coccyzus	14	1	2	10

No.	Common Name	Genus	Family	Order	Sub-order	Dist.
113	Whiskered plover	<i>Charadrius</i>	14	13	2	09
114	Mallard duck	<i>Anas</i>	33	3	4	02
115	Scaup	<i>Cyrenus</i>	32	09	1	11
116	Shaggy cronyed owl	<i>Cypripus</i>	14	12	2	07
117	Whiskered sparrow	<i>Chondestes</i>	19	20	4	11
118	Blue-headed vireonidae	<i>Vireonius</i>	09	20	1	12
119		<i>Ammodramus</i>	04	20	4	11
120	Beluga or White whale	<i>Osca</i>	37	3	4	02
121	Tree-toad	<i>Cyrtopogon</i>	49	03	4	04
122	Tree kangaroo	<i>Cynops</i>	01	2	2	05
123	African skink	<i>Cynops</i>	17	5	0	11
124	Orange breasted warbler	<i>Cyanopogon</i>	01	2	4	01
125	Delaware owl	<i>Cynops</i>	09	20	0	14
126		<i>Cynops</i>	14	3	5	08
127	Wangyan bat	<i>Cynops</i>	20	1	5	07
128	White-winged scapular bat	<i>Cynops</i>	20	20	4	12
129	Black bat	<i>Cynops</i>	8	20	4	09
130	Whiskered giant bat	<i>Osca</i>	06	1	4	14
131	Collared parrot	<i>Chalcophaps</i>	10	1	4	10
132	Collared langur or Pygmy langur	<i>Cynocephalus</i>	08	20	4	12
133	Southern quail	<i>Cynops</i>	44	20	4	12
134	Black & white quail or Pinnacled	<i>Cynops</i>	44	23	2	09
135	Black-legged kangaroo bat	<i>Cynops</i>	4	20	7	02
136	Red-tailed bat	<i>Cynops</i>	38	20	3	01
137	Kangaroo bat	<i>Cynops</i>	07	3	4	11
138	Frugivorous bat	<i>Cynops</i>	10	20	4	12
139		<i>Cynops</i>	10	20	7	09
140		<i>Cynops</i>	20	20	4	09
141		<i>Cynops</i>	20	20	4	09
142	African spiny owl	<i>Cynops</i>	20	2	0	01
143		<i>Cynops</i>	20	3	0	01
144	Albatross	<i>Cynops</i>	20	3	0	04
145	Albatross	<i>Cynops</i>	20	3	0	14
146	New guinea spiny bird	<i>Cynops</i>	10	15	4	12
147	White bat	<i>Cynops</i>	10	15	4	12
148	Spiny	<i>Cynops</i>	20	3	3	07
149	Long eared short eared	<i>Cynops</i>	10	1	4	10
150		<i>Cynops</i>	20	20	3	10
151		<i>Cynops</i>	3	10	7	10
152	Golden dove	<i>Cynops</i>	41	20	4	12
153	Agouti brown bat	<i>Cynops</i>	20	3	0	04
154		<i>Cynops</i>	20	20	4	12
155	North American porcupine	<i>Cynops</i>	41	20	4	12
156	European badger	<i>Cynops</i>	41	3	1	09

No.	Common Name	Genus	Family	Order	Sub- order	Dist.
117		<i>Chrysopyg</i>	49	39	9	19
118	Glare woodrat-like	<i>Chasyops</i>	27	3	6	10
119	Whipoorwill woodrat-like	<i>Cyrtogaster</i>	18	3	1	10
120	Six-toed woodrat-like	<i>Salicops</i>	70	30	6	11
121	Western woodrat-like	<i>Salicomyces</i>	60	30	6	7
122	Mountain lion or Puma	<i>Salicivora</i>	11	12	4	10
123		<i>Schizopyga</i>	5	10	6	10
124		<i>Scaphyris</i>	29	3	3	30
125	Shrub-hoby	<i>Sera</i>	30	3	7	10
126		<i>Siphocentrus</i>	31	6	6	10
127	Skink	<i>Siphon</i>	96	16	4	11
128		<i>Sigmodonata</i>	55	10	6	11
129		<i>Sivaya</i>	54	20	7	10
130	Flame pocket gopher	<i>Sulphobrycon</i>	20	3	3	10
131		<i>Synsialis</i>	38	3	3	10
132		<i>Synsomya</i>	10	20	3	11
133	Swallowfly (wingless)	<i>Synsura</i>	49	10	6	11
134		<i>Synsura</i>	32	6	3	10
135		<i>Syva</i>	94	15	4	14
136	Tufted long-tongued bat	<i>Tachycin</i>	41	10	7	11
137		<i>Tachyura</i>	11	10	2	10
138		<i>Taphrocentrus</i>	39	18	7	10
139		<i>Taxops</i>	20	3	3	10
140		<i>Taxops</i>	20	3	3	10
141	Telidroma	<i>Taphrosoma</i>	66	20	6	10
142	Coated-tooth deer mouse	<i>Taxosoma</i>	47	10	4	11
143		<i>Tata</i>	65	3	4	10
144		<i>Taxichroma</i>	47	20	6	11
145		<i>Taxiphanes</i>	20	3	3	10
146		<i>Taxops</i>	20	3	3	10
147		<i>Taxops</i>	20	3	3	10
148		<i>Taxops</i>	20	3	3	10
149	Forest group pocket mouse	<i>Taxops</i>	19	1	4	10
150		<i>Taxops</i>	19	1	4	10
151		<i>Taxops</i>	19	1	4	10
152	Scow	<i>Taxops</i>	19	1	4	10
153	Alaska wood rat	<i>Taxops</i>	19	1	4	10
154	Marsh rat-like wood rat	<i>Taxops</i>	19	1	4	10
155	Armed rat or Thick-skinned rat	<i>Taxops</i>	3	20	3	10
156		<i>Tata</i>	65	3	7	10
157	Eastern back-striped mouse	<i>Taxops</i>	32	3	3	10
158	Coyote	<i>Taxops</i>	19	1	4	10
159		<i>Tata</i>	65	3	7	10
160		<i>Taxops</i>	19	1	4	10

No.	Common Name	Genus	Family	Order	Sub- class	Order
001		Ceryle	55	20	7	14
002	Great forest Jay	Cyanocitta	20	20	8	21
003		Citta	80	3	4	80
008		Melanerpes	80	20	4	18
009	Undermountain (long-tongued) Jay	Geopelia	50	20	8	10
010		Myiophobus	55	3	2	10
011		Chrysomitris	75	20	1	10
016		Polioptila	40	20	4	14
020		Colaptes	21	3	4	09
020		Colaptes	11	3	4	09
021		Geothlypis	11	3	4	09
022	Atlantic coast flycatcher	Myiophobus	55	20	1	12
023		Protonotaria	47	7	4	13
024	Short-tailed woodpecker	Geothlypis	21	20	4	11
025	Towhee	Myiophobus	51	1	4	21
026		Myiophobus	25	3	5	07
027		Myiophobus	59	1	4	14
028	Wood thrush, Blue, Palm	Geothlypis	20	20	4	12
029		Geothlypis	20	20	4	12
030	White-throated	Geothlypis	20	20	4	12
031		Myiophobus	40	2	4	02
032		Myiophobus	50	20	4	08
033		Myiophobus	40	20	4	08
034	White-headed Jay	Myiophobus	55	20	4	10
035	Red Jay	Myiophobus	55	20	4	10
036		Myiophobus	55	20	4	10
037	Tree toad	Myiophobus	55	20	4	10
038		Myiophobus	55	20	4	10
039	Lawson's long-tailed Jay	Myiophobus	20	20	3	10
040	State or rock wren	Myiophobus	20	3	9	10
041		Myiophobus	40	20	4	09
042	Black-spurred pocket mouse	Myiophobus	10	10	4	09
043		Myiophobus	10	20	4	10
044		Myiophobus	10	3	1	07
045		Myiophobus	10	3	1	07
046	Green long-tailed Jay	Ceryle	40	1	1	08
047		Myiophobus	50	20	4	08
048	Adirondack Jay	Citta	74	3	80	
049	Blue Jay	Ceryle	40	20	4	10
050		Myiophobus	3	10	4	09
051		Myiophobus	20	20	4	09
052		Myiophobus	14	10	3	11
053		Myiophobus	20	3	1	07
054	Long-tailed Jay	Myiophobus	41	20	4	10

No.	Common Name	Genus	Family	Order	Sub- order	Class
265		Elodea	19	1	4	50
266	Waterlily or leafy-stem lotus	Najas	45	20	2	16
267		Agardhiopsis	27	19	8	49
268		Agardhiopsis	28	20	2	15
269		Utricle	16	1	4	56
270		Utricle	49	20	4	12
271	Scaly seaweed	Leptocarpus	33	3	3	67
272		Leptocarpus	33	3	3	67
273		Leptocarpus	22	20	4	13
274		Leptocarpus	29	20	2	18
275	American pine seaweed	Leptocarpus	20	2	2	10
276		Leptocarpus	58	20	4	18
277		Leptocarpus	50	20	7	35
278	Red frond	Leptocarpus	21	3	3	10
279	Thrombium-like seaweed	Leptocarpus	47	3	3	24
280		Leptocarpus	28	2	3	95
281	Chlorococcoid seaweed	Leptocarpus	21	20	2	11
282		Leptocarpus	28	3	3	20
283		Leptocarpus	16	1	2	21
284	Striped seaweed	Leptocarpus	28	2	2	20
285		Leptocarpus	28	2	2	16
286		Leptocarpus	20	20	2	11
287		Leptocarpus	20	19	4	13
288		Leptocarpus	20	2	4	23
289	Brown, fan-shaped seaweed	Leptocarpus	7	10	4	13
290		Leptocarpus	77	2	4	23
291		Leptocarpus	20	2	4	22
292	Orange-brown	Leptocarpus	24	20	4	10
293		Leptocarpus	27	2	3	19
294	Shaded large round lotus	Leptocarpus	28	2	2	24
295		Leptocarpus	18	18	4	14
296	Microscopic, round, square	Leptocarpus	28	2	2	20
297	Pigmy seaweed	Leptocarpus	19	1	4	14
298	Pine cone	Leptocarpus	79	20	4	14
299	Swamp's green seaweed	Leptocarpus	25	20	4	10
300		Leptocarpus	25	20	4	10
301	Small frond	Leptocarpus	47	14	7	26
302	Red seaweed	Leptocarpus	7	10	7	21
303	Three striped, diamond-shaped seaweed	Leptocarpus	2	20	4	21
304	From greenish lotus	Leptocarpus	49	20	2	12
305		Leptocarpus	44	1	7	22
306	Marston	Leptocarpus	15	20	4	12
307	From seaweed	Leptocarpus	19	20	4	19
308		Leptocarpus	20	20	4	20

No.	Common Name	Genus	Family	Chairs	Set-backs	Dist.
186	Parsons hat or Collins long-eared hat	<i>Stelmas</i>	55	1	4	12
189	Long-eared woodrat	<i>Neotoma</i>	25	5	5	29
191		<i>Neotomastomys</i>	55	10	4	22
192	Neotoma	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	19	3	3	10
193		<i>Neotomastomys</i>	14	12	2	26
194	Armadillo	<i>Neotoma</i>	42	2	4	16
198		<i>Neotoma</i>	42	3	3	16
199		<i>Neotoma</i>	11	10	4	11
207	Silver-tipped woodrat	<i>Neotoma</i>	49	10	4	10
208	Chickadee	<i>Neotoma</i>	40	2	4	26
209		<i>Neotoma</i>	10	10	4	26
210		<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	4	18
211		<i>Neotoma</i>	70	10	4	11
212	Wooded jumping mouse	<i>Neotoma</i>	20	3	3	10
213	Coon	<i>Neotoma</i>	1	10	4	16
216	Neotoma long-eared hat	<i>Neotoma</i>	2			
225	Spiny woodrat	<i>Neotoma</i>	42	10	4	10
226		<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	2	11
227	Neotoma wood rat	<i>Neotoma</i>	55	10	7	29
228	Brown-eared woodrat or Florida woodrat	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	20	3	3	29
229		<i>Neotomastomys</i>	12	12	4	19
230	Barren woodrat	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	49	10	4	29
231	Neotoma woodrat mouse	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	14	12	2	29
232	Wooded jumping mouse	<i>Neotoma</i>	40	10	4	12
233	Neotoma woodrat mouse	<i>Neotoma</i>	20	3	3	26
234	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	3	3	27
235	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	10
236	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
237	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
238	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
239	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
240	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
241	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
242	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
243	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
244	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
245	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
246	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
247	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
248	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
249	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
250	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
251	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
252	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
253	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
254	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
255	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
256	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
257	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
258	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
259	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
260	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
261	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
262	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
263	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
264	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
265	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
266	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
267	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
268	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
269	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
270	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
271	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
272	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
273	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
274	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
275	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
276	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
277	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
278	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
279	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
280	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
281	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
282	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
283	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
284	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
285	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
286	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
287	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
288	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
289	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
290	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
291	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
292	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
293	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
294	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
295	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
296	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
297	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
298	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
299	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27
300	Coon	<i>Neotomastomys</i>	10	10	3	27



No.	Common Name	Order	Family	Order	Sub- order	Dist.
338		Myrmecia	34	34	3	35
339		Myrmica	33	3	3	37
340	Talpa, Blind pocket gopher	Myrmecophaga	43	33	4	36
341		Myrmecops	35	33	3	33
342	ant-eater	Formicivora	35	1	4	34
343		Formica	35	2	4	33
344		Formica	35	33	3	33
345		Formicivora	37	33	4	33
346	Blind mole shrew	Moia	35	1	7	33
347		Moia	35	3	3	37
348		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
349	Taxidermopithecus	Neomyia	33	33	4	35
350	Big-eared shrew	Neomyia	33	33	4	33
351		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
352	Masked	Neomyia	34	33	4	33
353	Blind mole	Neomyia	35	33	7	33
354		Neomyia	35	33	4	33
355		Neomyia	35	1	4	34
356		Neomyia	33	33	3	33
357		Neomyia	33	33	3	33
358	Agouti	Neomyia	34	33	2	33
359		Neomyia	33	3	3	37
360		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
361		Neomyia	33	3	3	37
362		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
363		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
364		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
365		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
366		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
367		Neomyia	33	33	4	33
368	Blind pocket mouse	Neomyia	33	33	4	33
369	White-footed mouse, Deer Mouse	Neomyia	33	33	4	33
370	Coarcted doglike bat	Neomyia	33	3	3	33
371		Neomyia	33	1	4	33
372		Neomyia	33	3	4	33
373		Neomyia	3	33	3	33
374		Neomyia	33	33	1	33
375	Red bat	Neomyia	43	33	2	33
376		Neomyia	47	3	3	33

No.	Common Name	Genus	Family	Order	Sub-Order	Count
399		Cygn	59	1	4	18
400	Headed rail	Oxyechus	55	30	4	12
401	Long Front-eyed sparrow	Oxyechus	55	30	4	12
402	Pale green-headed rail	Oxyechus	57	1	4	12
403		Oxyechus	55	30	4	12
404	Barnard's phalarope	Oxyechus	58	30	4	11
405	Salt-marsh	Oxyechus	58	30	7	15
406		Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
407	Pink-tail rail	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
408	Red-winged blackbird	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
409	Black-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
410	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
411	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
412	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
413	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
414	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
415	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
416	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
417	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
418	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
419	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
420	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
421	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
422	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
423	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
424	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
425	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
426	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
427	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
428	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
429	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
430	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
431	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
432	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
433	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
434	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
435	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
436	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
437	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
438	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
439	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15
440	White-necked stilts	Oxyechus	59	1	4	15

No.	Common Name	Class	Family	Order	Sub- order	Page
441	Parula Jay	Paridae	20	2	2	10
442	Canada Acornite yellow bat	Empidonax	20	3	8	10
443		Empidonax	20	20	4	11
444	Piedmont bat/Blue-crowned bat	Empidonax	20	9	9	17
445	Wilson's Warbler	Pipilo	20	5	7	12
446	Warbler	Pipilo	27	19	8	20
447		Empidonax	20	20	1	21
448		Empidonax	20	3	8	20
449	Eastern white-headed bat	Empidonax	22	3	9	18
450		Empidonax	20	20	1	11
451	Scrub-wren Tanager	Empidonax	20	2	1	18
452	Equatorial flycatcher	Empidonax	11	1	8	10
453	Eastern warbler	Empidonax	12	12	4	10
454	Western American warbler	Pipilo	20	1	7	10
455		Empidonax	10	20	7	10
456	Mexican grey-capped	Empidonax	24	16	8	11
457	Mexican olive-capped	Empidonax	44	13	1	10
458		Empidonax	41	24	8	10
459	Wedge-tailed bat	Empidonax	10	20	2	10
460		Empidonax	17	7	4	11
461	Scrub-wren Tanager	Empidonax	20	2	4	10
462		Empidonax	20	20	6	11
463	Warbler	Empidonax	20	2	8	17
464	Canada warbler, Scrub	Empidonax	47	8	8	11
465	Vireo bat	Empidonax	20	2	1	10
466	Long-tailed greenish-backed flycatcher	Empidonax	49	20	4	11
467	Spotted bat	Empidonax	10	20	1	11
468		Empidonax	8	10	7	11
469		Empidonax	47	10	8	11
470	Antelope bat	Empidonax	26	2	8	17
471		Empidonax	20	2	8	17
472		Empidonax	14	3	8	18
473		Empidonax	16	11	8	18
474		Pipilo	14	1		
475	Wild warbler	Empidonax	14	1	4	10
476		Empidonax	10	1	4	10
477	Forest white-headed Tanager	Empidonax	20	20	4	10
478		Empidonax	47	20	8	20
479	Big Antelope	Empidonax	19	1	4	10
480		Empidonax	20	20	7	11
481	Scrub-wren Tanager	Empidonax	20	20	4	11
482		Empidonax	40	20	4	10
483	Scrub-tailed bat	Empidonax	14	1	1	17
484	W.C. warbler	Empidonax	10	1	1	10

No	Common Name	Genus	Family	Order	Sub- order	Gen
880	Parasitic Leaf-miner	<i>Chlorissa</i>	79	3	8	27
881	Chrysoidea	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	20	4	26
882	Leaf-roller, <i>Chlorocentrus</i>	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	20	4	11
883	Leaf-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	20	3	19
884		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	3	8	27
885		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	3	4	24
886		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	3	8	27
887	American Red-eye	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	87	4	3	13
888	Fall-leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	84	3	3	18
889		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	84	3	4	13
890		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	80	3	3	27
891	Western pocket-gopher	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	85	20	4	18
892		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	84	14	4	28
893	Cassini	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	87	14	4	28
894		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	83	22	1	24
895	Federman	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	83	22	1	24
896	Eye-stalk-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	41	20	4	21
897	Three-headed-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	49	20	7	21
898	Eye-roller-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	88	20	4	21
899	Fringe-tipped leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	22	3	1	24
900		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	14	20	3	21
901		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	24	1	4	10
902		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	88	20	4	10
903	Academy of Sciences	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	4	14	4	22
904	Leaf-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	84	20	2	28
905	Leaf-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	84	20	4	28
906	Red-eyed-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	87	2	4	21
907	Red-eyed-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	87	20	2	10
908	Clay leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	88	3	3	10
909	Leaf-roller leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	40	20	4	12
910	Black leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	40	2	4	28
911	Yellow-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	20	4	11
912	San Filipe leaf Great wing-leaf leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	20	4	10
913	White-leaf leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	84	3	3	10
914	Lithuanian leaf-roller leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	84	22	2	28
915	Greenish Green - Alps	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	85	20	1	28
916		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	20	4	10
917	Leaf leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	41	3	2	28
918		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	81	1	4	20
919	Magdalena leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	79	1	4	13
920		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	47	4	4	13
921	Jumping leaf	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	14	22	4	24
922		<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	89	20	3	12
923	Flightless leaf-roller	<i>Chlorocentrus</i>	79	1	4	14

No.	Common Name	Genus	Female	Male	Sub- adults	Total
329	Color Warbler	<i>Chrysophrys</i>	1	23	2	26
330	Total	<i>Chrysophrys</i>	33	33	1	67
331		<i>Turdus</i>	22	8	5	35
332		<i>Troglodytes</i>	29	22	1	52
333		<i>Turdus</i>	42	22	7	71
334		<i>Turdus</i>	47	22	7	76
335		<i>Turdus</i>	47	22	1	70
336		<i>Turdus</i>	49	22	8	79
337		<i>Turdus</i>	50	2	0	52
338		<i>Turdus</i>	54	22	4	80
339		<i>Turdus</i>	55	22	4	81
340		<i>Turdus</i>	58	22	0	80
341		<i>Turdus</i>	59	1	4	64
342		<i>Turdus</i>	62	2	0	64
343		<i>Turdus</i>	62	1	4	67
344		<i>Turdus</i>	70	2	4	76
345		<i>Turdus</i>	70	22	4	96
346		<i>Turdus</i>	70	22	4	96
347		<i>Turdus</i>	72	22	1	95
348		<i>Turdus</i>	75	22	7	104
349		<i>Turdus</i>	75	22	4	101
350		<i>Turdus</i>	7	12	7	26
351		<i>Turdus</i>	12	12	4	28
352		<i>Turdus</i>	21	2	5	28
353		<i>Turdus</i>	46	22	2	70
354		<i>Turdus</i>	50	2	0	52
355		<i>Turdus</i>	59	2	0	61
356		<i>Turdus</i>	70	1	4	75
357		<i>Turdus</i>	75	1	4	80
358		<i>Turdus</i>	79	2	4	85
359		<i>Turdus</i>	7	22	7	36
360		<i>Turdus</i>	12	22	1	35
361		<i>Turdus</i>	24	21	7	52
362		<i>Turdus</i>	32	22	7	61
363		<i>Turdus</i>	32	1	8	41
364		<i>Turdus</i>	33	1	8	42
365		<i>Turdus</i>	37	1	4	42
366		<i>Turdus</i>	38	1	1	40
367		<i>Turdus</i>	39	1	4	44
368		<i>Turdus</i>	39	1	4	44
369		<i>Turdus</i>	39	1	4	44
370		<i>Turdus</i>	39	1	4	44
371		<i>Turdus</i>	39	1	4	44
372		<i>Turdus</i>	39	1	4	44

No.	Common Name	Order	Family	Order	Sub- order	Foot
373		Mirapora	84	1	4	1.8
374		Micromys	81	2	4	10
375		Micromys	81	2	4	10
376		Milvina	77	2	4	10
377		Milvina	77	2	4	10
378		Milvina	77	2	4	10
379		Milvina	77	2	4	10
380		Milvina	77	2	4	10
381		Milvina	77	2	4	10
382		Milvina	77	2	4	10
383		Milvina	77	2	4	10
384		Milvina	77	2	4	10
385		Milvina	77	2	4	10

APPENDIX D  
ANIMAL COMMUNITY STUDY SITE DESCRIPTIONS

This appendix tabulates the following descriptions for each study site for which lump analysis was used to study the composition of the animal community: geographical location (latitude, longitude and locus number on continental maps), landcover classifications (Fieldridge Life Zone and Form), landscape structural complexity, and climate data (precipitation and potential evapotranspiration).





SITE	HOLE IDENTIFICATION INFORMATION				BONE	LARGEST		TOT. HGT.				
	NO.	DEPTH	ZONE	SUBZONE		DIAM.	THICKNESS		NO. OF			
CPH1	41	100-110	10	10a	Upper	Upper	7	7	18	382	12	
					Medium							
					Lower							
Phase	41	100-110	25	10a-10b	Medium	Upper	7	7	8	382	12	
					Substrata							
Continued	41	100-110	10	10a	Medium	Upper	6	7	4	17	441	12
					Substrata							
Quality	41	110-115	10	10a	Medium	Upper	6	6	6	38	385	12
					Substrata							
Gravelly	50	100-110	10	10a	Medium	Upper	6	6	6	38	385	12
					Substrata							
Medium	50	100-110	10	10a	Medium	Upper	6	6	6	38	385	12
					Substrata							
Phase	50	100-110	20	10a	Medium	Upper	70				400	12
					Substrata							
201 Kanawha	50	101-110	20	10a	Medium	Upper	7	7	6	18	455	12
					Substrata							
Common	51	7	100	10a	Medium	Upper	12	11	2	20	410	12
					Substrata							
Common	51	7	100	10a	Medium	Upper	12	11	2	20	410	12
					Substrata							
Gravelly	5	21	110	10a	Medium	Upper	10				385	12
					Substrata							
Phase	20	27	10	10a	Medium	Upper	10	8	3	20	355	12
					Substrata							
Large	40	111	14	10a	Medium	Upper	8	8	18	28	273	11
					Substrata							
Medium	41	100-110	11	10a	Medium	Upper	50				450	10
					Substrata							
Phase	41	110-115	10	10a	Medium	Upper	8	12	6	28	432	12
					Substrata							
Large	51	88	21	10a	Medium	Upper	10				1544	12
					Substrata							
Phase	1	21	100	10a	Medium	Upper	25				1200	12
					Substrata							

ID	LAT	LONG	MGR	WORLDWIDE TIME ZONE CLASSIFICATION		ZONE	A. TIME	B. TIME	LUNAR DATA			TOT	TOT	TOT
				W	MA				W	MA	W			

through	48	48	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	7	0	0	10	1117	0.0
total	48	48	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	0	10	0	0.4	500	1.0
total	48	48	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	0	10	0	0.4	500	1.0
total	48	48	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	0	10	0	0.4	500	1.0

no. people values available  
 Hough Classification: No results

#### Class: All Canada

through	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	10	0	0	0.4	500	1.0
total	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	10	0	0	0.4	500	1.0
total	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	10	0	0	0.4	500	1.0
total	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	10	0	0	0.4	500	1.0

#### Class: Republics

through	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	0	0	0	0	0.0	1.0
total	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	0	0	0	0	0.0	1.0

#### Class: with Forest

through	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	0	0	0	0.4	500	1.0
total	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	0	0	0	0.4	500	1.0
total	10	10	100	total	sum	total	total	total	total	0	0	0	0.4	500	1.0

LINE	LAT	LONG	MA	HOLDCODE (BY ZONE DESCRIPTION)		BANK	CAPACITY		TOT	TOT
				PRIORITY	ZONE		ALTY	ALTY		
			MO				DEC	NO	NO	

Almas Ave.	14	00	00	sub	suburban	residential	10	11	4	20	1200	10
Almas				sub	suburban	residential						
Lower Pt.	11	00	04	sub	suburban	residential	10	14	0	240	1200	10
Point				sub	suburban	residential						
Point	11	00	11	sub	suburban	residential	10	14	1	20	1200	10

#### Multi-Substance Errors

Local Misc	11	01	004	sub-sub	suburban	residential	11	00	11	14	100	10
Other	-20	04	114	sub	suburban	residential	10	10	0	30	240	10
Truncated Z	-24	00	104	sub-suburban	residential	residential	14	12	0	30	400	10
Conversion	-18	00	00	sub-suburban	residential	residential	10	10	0	24	1200	10
Same Value	0	00	010	sub-suburban	residential	residential	11	10	0	30	200	10
Same	0	00	010	sub-suburban	residential	residential	11	10	0	30	100	10
Same Value	0	0	010	sub-suburban	residential	residential	0	0	0	0	1000	10

#### Total

Suburban	00	140	01	sub-suburban	residential	residential	14	14	0	30	100	10
Other Value	-100	00	000	sub-suburban	residential	residential	14	14	0	30	100	10





BYE	LAST	LAST	LAST	LAST	LAST	LAST	LAST	LAST	LAST	LAST	LAST	LEADERSHIP		TOTAL	TOTAL	
												CLASSIFIED	UNCLASSIFIED			

**By Discipline - Budget - Total**

Personnel	14	11	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Supplies	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Travel	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Other	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>

**Additional - Budget - Total**

Personnel	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Supplies	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Travel	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Other	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>

**Grand Total**

Personnel	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Supplies	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Travel	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Other	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>56</b>



TYPE	LAT. LONG. NO.		HORIZONTAL AND SUBSTRATA		ZONE	ORIGIN		NO. OF SPECIES	NO. OF SPECIES
	NO.	H-NO.	NO.	S-NO.		NO. OF SPECIES	NO. OF SPECIES		
La. Bites	13	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	13	13	13
Am. Bites	14	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	14	14	14
Pa. Bites	15	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	15	15	15
Ma. Bites	16	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	16	16	16
Mo. Bites	17	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	17	17	17
Co. Bites	18	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	18	18	18
Ala. Bites	19	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	19	19	19
Fla. Bites	20	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	20	20	20
Pa. Bites	21	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	21	21	21
Ma. Bites	22	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	22	22	22
Mo. Bites	23	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	23	23	23
Co. Bites	24	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	24	24	24
Ala. Bites	25	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	25	25	25
Fla. Bites	26	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	26	26	26
Pa. Bites	27	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	27	27	27
Ma. Bites	28	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	28	28	28
Mo. Bites	29	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	29	29	29
Co. Bites	30	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	30	30	30
Ala. Bites	31	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	31	31	31
Fla. Bites	32	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	32	32	32
Pa. Bites	33	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	33	33	33
Ma. Bites	34	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	34	34	34
Mo. Bites	35	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	35	35	35
Co. Bites	36	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	36	36	36
Ala. Bites	37	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	37	37	37
Fla. Bites	38	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	38	38	38
Pa. Bites	39	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	39	39	39
Ma. Bites	40	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	40	40	40
Mo. Bites	41	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	41	41	41
Co. Bites	42	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	42	42	42
Ala. Bites	43	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	43	43	43
Fla. Bites	44	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	44	44	44
Pa. Bites	45	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	45	45	45
Ma. Bites	46	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	46	46	46
Mo. Bites	47	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	47	47	47
Co. Bites	48	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	48	48	48
Ala. Bites	49	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	49	49	49
Fla. Bites	50	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	50	50	50
Pa. Bites	51	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	51	51	51
Ma. Bites	52	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	52	52	52
Mo. Bites	53	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	53	53	53
Co. Bites	54	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	54	54	54
Ala. Bites	55	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	55	55	55
Fla. Bites	56	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	56	56	56
Pa. Bites	57	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	57	57	57
Ma. Bites	58	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	58	58	58
Mo. Bites	59	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	59	59	59
Co. Bites	60	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	60	60	60
Ala. Bites	61	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	61	61	61
Fla. Bites	62	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	62	62	62
Pa. Bites	63	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	63	63	63
Ma. Bites	64	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	64	64	64
Mo. Bites	65	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	65	65	65
Co. Bites	66	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	66	66	66
Ala. Bites	67	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	67	67	67
Fla. Bites	68	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	68	68	68
Pa. Bites	69	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	69	69	69
Ma. Bites	70	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	70	70	70
Mo. Bites	71	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	71	71	71
Co. Bites	72	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	72	72	72
Ala. Bites	73	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	73	73	73
Fla. Bites	74	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	74	74	74
Pa. Bites	75	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	75	75	75
Ma. Bites	76	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	76	76	76
Mo. Bites	77	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	77	77	77
Co. Bites	78	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	78	78	78
Ala. Bites	79	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	79	79	79
Fla. Bites	80	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	80	80	80
Pa. Bites	81	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	81	81	81
Ma. Bites	82	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	82	82	82
Mo. Bites	83	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	83	83	83
Co. Bites	84	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	84	84	84
Ala. Bites	85	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	85	85	85
Fla. Bites	86	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	86	86	86
Pa. Bites	87	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	87	87	87
Ma. Bites	88	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	88	88	88
Mo. Bites	89	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	89	89	89
Co. Bites	90	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	90	90	90
Ala. Bites	91	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	91	91	91
Fla. Bites	92	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	92	92	92
Pa. Bites	93	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	93	93	93
Ma. Bites	94	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	94	94	94
Mo. Bites	95	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	95	95	95
Co. Bites	96	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	96	96	96
Ala. Bites	97	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	97	97	97
Fla. Bites	98	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	98	98	98
Pa. Bites	99	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	99	99	99
Ma. Bites	100	81	81	subsp.	subsp.	subsp.	100	100	100







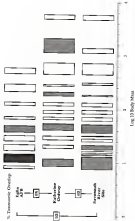


APPENDIX E  
 STACKED GRAPHICS OF SOME LUMP STRUCTURES

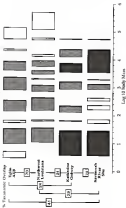
The appendix contains graphs created by StackLump software (Paul Marples, unpublished data) which vertically slices a stack of animal community lump structures all drawn from the same locus so that the lump pattern of each community can be visually compared with those of all other communities of similar landscape structure, i.e. from the same locus.

No.	Some Lump Structures	Page
1	Birds of Southern Temperate Forest Sites in North America	400
2	Mammals of Northern Temperate Forest Sites in North America	400
3	Birds of Lowland Dry Deciduous Forest Sites in South America	400
4	Mammals of Tropical Dry Deciduous Forest Sites in South America and Central	404
5	Birds of Lowland Wet Forest Sites in South America	405
6	Mammals of Lowland Wet Forest Sites in South America	406
7	Birds of Neotropical Lowland Rainforest Sites in South America	407
8	Mammals of Neotropical Lowland Rainforest Sites in South America	408
9	Birds of Neotropical Montane Rainforest Sites in South America	409
10	Mammals of Neotropical Montane Rainforest Sites in South America	410
11	Birds of Savanna with Forest Sites in South America	411
12	Mammals of Savanna with Forest Sites in Africa	411
13	Birds of Savanna Sites in South America	412
14	Mammals of Savanna Sites in South America	414
15	Birds of Steppes/Prairie Sites in North America	415
16	Mammals of Steppes/Prairie Sites in North America	416
17	Mammals of Grassland Sites in Africa	417

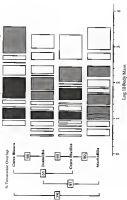
**Leaf Structure for Breeding Birds  
in Southeast Temperate Forest Ecosystems in North America**



Using Statistics for Breeding Goals  
in Beefstock (Temple's) Cooperatives in North America



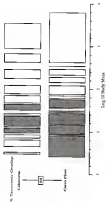
### Stack Structure for Birds in Low-Dry Deciduous Forest Ecosystems



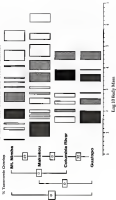




### Lump Structure for Breeding Birds in Low Wind-Rainfall Regions in South America



**Leap Structures for Mammals in Tropical Wet Forest Ecosystems  
in Africa and Central and South America**



Energy Reserves for Birds in Low-Rain Forest Ecosystems in Central and South America

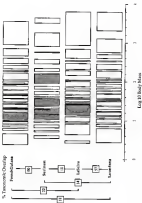
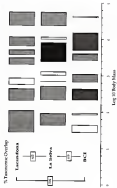


Figure 2: Histograms for Males in the Most Overlaid (Dark) and Least Overlaid (Light) Regions of Coastal Antarctica



**Energy Sources for Breeding Birds in Tropical  
Moisture Forests of the Neotropics**

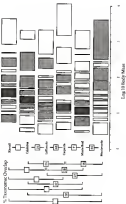
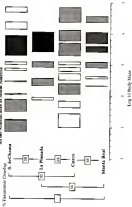
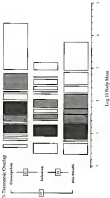


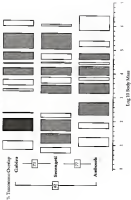
Figure 1. Schematic of the experimental design for the study of the effects of the amount of the stimulus on the amount of the response in the study of the effects of the amount of the stimulus on the amount of the response.



**Large Stomachs for Browsing Birds in Savannahs with Fossil Ecosystems on the Eastern Side of South America**

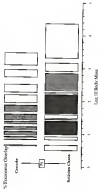


Large Structure for Mammals in Forests with Broad Components in Kings and Resin

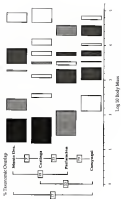




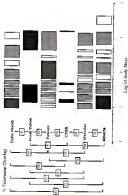
Large Structures for Breeding Birds in Scrubland Ecosystems in Western South America



### Loop Structure for Mussels in Southern Ecosystems in South America



### Long Branches for Brooding Birds at Slow Quasi-Equilibria of North America



### Leap Numbers for Males in Most Cities Compared to Weekly Average

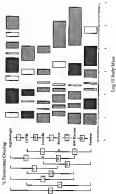
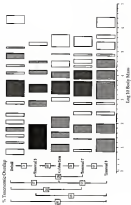


Figure 1. Structure for Materials in Ground Employment in Admin



## LIST OF REFERENCES

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

I was born in Waterbury, Connecticut on September 28, 1950. My fascination with the nexus between the natural and human domains has grown out of a life living on the seams between alternate worlds: nineteenth century European households in NSF's New England and segregated Florida, an easterner in the midwest, an American in Africa, Asia and Europe, and an ecologist among engineers. This perspective exposed how fragile our reliance is on any person, place or belief and how pivotal is the web of exchanges which joins them.

A reverence for living creatures goes back to my earliest memories of my parents, Ted and Bertha, and their kindness for walking in the outdoors and appreciating both the health and the beauty we gain thereby. I found a passion for biology in high school when I met Frank Duvon, who taught me that the *Web of Life* in biology extends to all that makes life possible: politics, economics, religion, philosophy, literature as well as the Krebs cycle. What a delightful surprise to find how many creatures live in a mowed lawn or a pile of leaves in the middle of a street!

The momentum of this questioning attitude increased with the wild fluctuations of the 1960s, burning riots at home and plundering colonial wars abroad. Years later I recognized the fever pitch of those times when, for several hours, it appeared that the Three Mile Island nuclear power station might explosively cover our region with deadly radiation. The natural discussion of how to evacuate our families, perhaps forests, to another

continent world have fit snugly into the 1960's. So after completing a B.A. in biology at Haver College and a Master's of Arts in Teaching/biology at Rhode Island College, I dropped all the trappings of faculty and professor and lived as a Buddhist monk in Burma. This useful pilgrimage showed me that earnest questioning occurs everywhere and is not confined to religion or any of its embellishments.

In 1980 I came to Florida to study with H.J. Odum how nature and society interact. I applied his systems ideas in measuring the total web of energy needed to produce muscads at the Ocala/Salida estuary in Zealand, Netherlands. I am deeply indebted to him for his enthusiastic encouragement to hold the spaghetti-web of ecological relationships as vast and dense to measure what most shyly leave by default to energy: the significance of contributions by nature to human and non-human organisms. I worked for several years thereafter as a wetlands ecologist in Florida, only to be disillusioned by the fact that the law I upheld in professional practice only provided a state sanction for short-sighted development.

In 1990 I returned to the University of Florida to deepen my understanding of how ecosystems and human institutions co-evolve in large scale systems. By good fortune C.S. "Buzz" Holling had recently arrived with an approach which, by understanding the "ecology organizations" of conceptual Beliefs by they political, social or academic, best appreciates the supple way in which systems adapt and change over time. Working with Buzz has shown me that the interface between worlds may be messy, but it's richer than the perspective we must accept with membership in any club. The vital edge between theory and practice lies with exchanges which nurture both sides. After years of his gentle encouragement I can truly say that "the scales have dropped from my eyes" and a true-scale world is evident.

I certify that I have read the study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

  
Joseph D. Bellamy  
Professor of  
Environmental Engineering  
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I certify that I have read the study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

  
C.S. Hollans  
Eminent Scholar of Ecology

I certify that I have read the study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

  
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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy



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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Engineering and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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