

STATE OF CALIFORNIA  
NATURAL RESOURCES AGENCY  
**DEPARTMENT OF FISH AND WILDLIFE**

REPORT TO THE FISH AND GAME COMMISSION

A STATUS REVIEW OF THE  
**GRAY WOLF**  
(*Canis lupus*) IN CALIFORNIA



Photo courtesy of ODFW

CHARLTON H. BONHAM, DIRECTOR  
CALIFORNIA DEPARTMENT OF FISH AND WILDLIFE

**October 2013 - PRELIMINARY DRAFT FOR REVIEW**



1 Report to the Fish and Game Commission  
2 **A Status Review of the Gray Wolf in California**  
3  
4

5 **Table of Contents**

6 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY .....x  
7 INTRODUCTION ..... 1  
8 Petition Evaluation Process  
9 Status Review Overview  
10 BIOLOGY AND ECOLOGY OF THE GRAY WOLF ..... 4  
11 Species Description  
12 Systematics  
13 *Classification*  
14 *Life Span*  
15 Geographic Range and Distribution  
16 Historical Perspective - California  
17 Historical Perspective – Oregon  
18 Reproduction and Development  
19 Food Habits  
20 Territory/Home Range  
21 *Rendezvous Sites*  
22 *Dispersal*  
23 *Colonization*  
24 Habitat Use  
25 *Habitat Suitability Modeling*  
26 CONSERVATION STATUS ..... 12  
27 Trends in Current Distribution and Range  
28 *California*  
29 *Oregon*  
30 Population Trend  
31 *California*  
32 *Oregon*  
33 Habitat Essential for Continued Existence of the Species  
34 Factors Affecting Ability of the Gray Wolf to Survive and Reproduce  
35 *Degree and Immediacy of Threats*  
36 *Human Predation on Wolves*  
37 *Damage Control*  
38 *Other Human Influences*  
39 Prey Availability  
40 Competition  
41 Small Population Size  
42 Climate Change  
43 Diseases  
44 Other Risk Factors  
45 EXISTING MANAGEMENT, MONITORING, AND RESEARCH ACTIVITIES..... 18



1 **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

2 *To be completed with final draft and will reflect the content of the*  
3 *Status Review*

4 **INTRODUCTION**

5 **Petition Evaluation Process**

6 On March 12, 2012, the California Fish and Game Commission (Commission) received the  
7 “Petition to List the Gray Wolf (*Canis lupus*) as endangered under the California Endangered  
8 Species Act” (March 5, 2012; hereafter, the Petition), as submitted by the Center for Biological  
9 Diversity, Big Wildlife, the Environmental Protection Information Center, and the Klamath-  
10 Siskiyou Wildlands Center (collectively “Petitioners”). Commission staff transmitted the Petition  
11 to the Department of Fish and Wildlife (Department) pursuant to Fish and Game Code (FGC)  
12 section 2073 on March 13, 2012, and the Commission published formal notice of receipt of the  
13 Petition on April 13, 2012 (Cal. Reg. Notice Register 2012, No. 15-Z, p. 494). After evaluating  
14 the Petition and other relevant information the Department possessed or received, the  
15 Department determined that based on the information in the Petition, there was sufficient  
16 scientific information to indicate that the petitioned action may be warranted, and  
17 recommended the Commission accept the Petition (CDFG 2012). The Commission voted to  
18 accept the Petition and initiate this review of the species’ status in California on October 3,  
19 2012. Upon publication of the Commission’s notice of determination, the gray wolf was  
20 designated a candidate species on November 2, 2012 (Cal. Reg. Notice Register 2012, No. 44-Z,  
21 p. 1610).

22 **Status Review Overview**

23 Following the Commission’s action designating the gray wolf as a candidate species, and as per  
24 FGC section 2074.4, the Department solicited information from agencies, educational  
25 institutions, and the public to inform the review of the species status using the best scientific  
26 information available. This report contains the results of the Department’s status review,  
27 including independent peer review of the draft report by scientists with expertise relevant to  
28 the gray wolf.

29  
30 While the Department believes sufficient scientific information exists to conclude that wolves  
31 occurred historically within California, it is unknown to what extent, as the species was  
32 extirpated from the state by the late 1920’s. At the present time, no individual, pack, or  
33 population of gray wolf is known to occur in California. With the recent gray wolf expansion in  
34 the western United States, a lone gray wolf known as OR7 dispersed from Oregon’s wolf  
35 population to California in December 2011 and is now back in Oregon (as of Fall 2013). It is  
36 feasible that gray wolves will eventually attempt to establish a breeding population in California  
37 in the foreseeable future.

38  
39 There is no specific, biological/ecological data available on the gray wolf in California to inform  
40 decision-making, however, the Department believes there is relevant and applicable scientific  
41 information from elsewhere concerning wolf biology, ecology, populations, management, and

1 potential threats. Because of the differences in natural communities, management, and  
2 possibly other human-related factors between California and other western states and  
3 provinces, the degree of certainty to which information on wolf status and conservation from  
4 other locations can be used to predict a future status in California is unknown. The purpose of  
5 this status review is to fulfill the mandate as required by FGC 2074.6 and provide the  
6 Commission with the most current scientifically based information available on the gray wolf in  
7 California and to serve as the basis for the Department's recommendation to the Commission.  
8

## 9 **BIOLOGY AND ECOLOGY OF THE GRAY WOLF**

### 10 **Species Description**

11 The gray wolf is the largest wild member of the dog family (*Canidae*). Depending upon  
12 subspecies, the range of sizes in both sexes is widely variable. Throughout their range, female  
13 adult gray wolves weigh from 40-120 pounds (18-55 kg), and measure from 4.5-6 feet (1.37-  
14 1.52 m) in total length. Adult males, which are generally slightly heavier and larger than  
15 females, vary in weight from 45-175 pounds (20-80 kg) and in total length from 5-6.5 feet (1.27-  
16 1.64 m). Shoulder height ranges from 27-32 inches (700-800 mm) (Mech 1974; Paradiso and  
17 Nowak 1982). Typical weights for adult female gray wolves in Montana are 80-100 pounds, and  
18 for adult males are 90-110 pounds (WDFW 2011).  
19

20  
21 Wolves are apex carnivores that prey on large herbivores such as elk, moose, bison, and deer.  
22 Because they occupy the top of the food chain, wolves can influence other species on all  
23 trophic levels from predators and prey to plants (USFWS 1987; Mech and Boitani 2003).  
24 Although mortalities to wolves have occurred from mountain lions, bears, from other wolves,  
25 and other large mammals, for the most part they do not have any natural predators (Mech  
26 1970; Robbins et al. 2010). Wolves tend to select more vulnerable or less fit prey and are  
27 known to selectively hunt young or older animals, and those injured or diseased in greater  
28 proportion than healthy adult individuals (e.g., Mech 1970, Fritts and Mech 1981, Kunkel and  
29 Pletscher 1999; Stahler et al. 2006).  
30

### 31 **Systematics**

32 Classification: The taxonomy of wolves in North America is complex, made more challenging by  
33 the fact that wolves were extirpated over large portions of their range prior to the earliest  
34 attempts to scientifically categorize the subspecies (Chambers et al. 2012). Due to a scarcity of  
35 verifiable samples, very little is known about which subspecies of wolf occurred in California.  
36 The first comprehensive review of North American subspecies of *C. lupus* identified three  
37 subspecies which historically may have occurred in California: the Cascades Mountains wolf (*C.l.*  
38 *fuscus*) in Northern California, the Southern Rocky Mountains wolf (*C.l. youngi*) in the Mojave  
39 Desert region, and the Mogollon Mountain wolf (*C.l. mogollonensis*) in the Colorado Desert  
40 region (Goldman 1944, Hall 1981). All three historical subspecies are now extinct. More recent  
41 revisions of North American wolf taxonomy by Nowak (1995, 2002, 2003) grouped the three  
42 historical California subspecies within the subspecies *C.l. nubilis*, the plains wolf. These revisions  
43 have recently been supported by Chambers et al. (2012). It is also possible that the Mexican  
44 wolf subspecies (*C.l. baileyi*), recognized under both the historical and contemporary  
45 classifications), particularly dispersing individuals, may have occasionally entered the extreme  
46 southeastern corner of California.

1  
2 The most recent work suggests that the different North American subspecies are derived from  
3 three separate historical invasions of the continent by wolves from Eurasia, the first wave being  
4 ancestors of *C.l. baileyi*, the second wave ancestors of *C.l. nubilis*, and the most recent wave  
5 ancestors of *C.l. occidentalis* (Chambers et al. 2012). Chambers et al. (2012) found genetic and  
6 physiological differentiation between *C.l. nubilis* and *C.l. occidentalis* and supported Nowak's  
7 (1995, 2002) delineation of the separate subspecies. The genetic differentiation between *C.l.*  
8 *nubilis* and *C.l. occidentalis* indicates that each subspecies is more closely related to some  
9 European wolf subspecies than to each other.

10  
11 The only wild wolf known to occupy California in recent times (OR7), entered California from an  
12 Oregon wolf pack. The Oregon wolf population was established from wolves emigrating from  
13 Idaho. The Idaho wolves originated from translocated wolves (*Canis lupus occidentalis*)  
14 captured in the Rocky Mountains of British Columbia and Alberta (Montana Fish, Wildlife, and  
15 Parks 2013). Wolves in certain Central Washington packs have been found to carry an  
16 admixture of both *C. l. occidentalis* and *C. l. nubilis* genes (Martorello 2013). Thus, the most  
17 recent wolf to occupy California, and the wolves most likely to colonize California in the future  
18 may be of a different subspecies than the wolves historically inhabiting the state. Information  
19 on wolf subspecies is presented for biological background. The Petition however, would apply  
20 to all *C. lupus* subspecies including the Mexican wolf.

21 **Life Span:** Wolves reportedly live an average of 4-5 years in the wild (Mech 2006), although  
22 they can live up to 15 years (Ausband et al. 2009); and have been reported living longer in  
23 captivity.

#### 24 25 **Geographic Range and Distribution**

26 Of relevance to California, the gray wolf currently inhabits the Northern Rocky Mountain States,  
27 Washington, and Oregon. This distribution is largely due to the efforts of the US Fish and  
28 Wildlife Service (USFWS) who drafted the Northern Rocky Mountain Wolf Recovery Plan in  
29 1980 to guide efforts to restore at least two populations of wolves in the lower 48 states  
30 (USFWS 1980). The plan was revised and approved in 1987 with the goal "to remove the  
31 Northern Rocky Mountain wolf from the endangered and threatened species list by securing  
32 and maintaining a minimum of ten breeding pairs of wolves in each of three recovery areas for  
33 a minimum of three successive years" (USFWS 1987). The recovery areas were identified as  
34 northwestern Montana, central Idaho, and the greater Yellowstone area. The revised plan  
35 recommended recovery through natural re-colonization primarily from Canadian wolf  
36 populations. Reintroduction was recommended for Central Idaho if natural re-colonization did  
37 not result in at least two breeding pairs there within 5 years.

38  
39 In 1982, wolves from Canada began to naturally occupy Glacier National Park in Northwestern  
40 Montana, and in 1986 the first litter was recorded. In 1995 and 1996, 66 gray wolves from  
41 Canada were introduced to Yellowstone National Park (31) and Central Idaho (35) as non-  
42 essential experimental populations (USFWS 2003), while the population in Northwestern  
43 Montana continued to increase naturally. Intensive monitoring determined that by 2001, the  
44 minimum recovery goals of at least 300 wolves and 30 breeding pairs in Idaho, Montana and  
45 Wyoming were met. Wolf populations have exceeded the minimum recovery goals each year

1 since (USFWS et al 2011a). In recent years, wolves have expanded into Washington and Oregon  
2 (CDFW 2011a).

#### 3 4 **Historical Perspective - California**

5 The history of native California peoples suggests widespread distribution of knowledge and  
6 awareness of the wolf prior to European settlement. Of over 80 tribes that once existed, at  
7 least 15 were known to have separate words for wolf, coyote, and dog, and/or referenced the  
8 wolf in their stories, beliefs, and rituals (Geddes-Osborne and Margolin 2001, Newland and  
9 Stoyka 2013). This is consistent with the hypothesis that wolves were widely distributed in  
10 California.

11  
12 There are numerous historical records of wolves in California, dating back to the 1700s. A  
13 number of the records from the early 1900s are from reputable sources: state and federal  
14 agency staff, biologists, and experienced backcountry travelers. The historical wolf records in  
15 California were summarized during the initial 90-day petition evaluation and these wolf  
16 occurrences are described in Appendix A. Some of the anecdotal observations are ambiguous as  
17 to whether the observer was reporting a wolf or a coyote, and until recently, only four physical  
18 specimens existed from California.

19  
20 The Department was aware of four presumptive specimens housed in the Museum of  
21 Vertebrate Zoology at the University of California, Berkeley that were identified as wolves (i.e.  
22 *Canis lupus ssp. (2)*, *Canis lupus fuscus*, and *Canis lupus youngi*). The Department, in  
23 collaboration with the UCLA Conservation Genetics Resource Center, sampled all four of these  
24 specimens. Preliminary results indicated that two of the specimens were wolves that may have  
25 occurred naturally in California (CDFW and Conservation Genetics Resource Center, unpubl.  
26 data).

27  
28 One specimen was collected in the Providence Mountains, San Bernardino County, in 1922  
29 (Johnson et al. 1948). It weighed roughly 100 pounds and apparently was caught in a steel trap,  
30 “while pursuing a bighorn sheep” (Grinnell et al 1937). Johnson et al. (1948) also noted that  
31 “This is the only record known to us of the occurrence of wolves in the Providence Mountain  
32 area, or, for that matter, anywhere in Southeastern California. “ Based on an examination of  
33 the skull, the authors concluded that this animal was more closely related to the southwestern  
34 subspecies than the gray wolf to the north. Indeed the genetic work supports this conclusion as  
35 the results for this specimen has only been observed in historical and current captive sample of  
36 the Mexican wolf (*Canis lupus baileyi*) (CDFW and Conservation Genetics Resource Center,  
37 unpubl. data).

38  
39 The second specimen was collected in 1924, near Litchfield, in Lassen County. It was fairly old,  
40 missing a portion of a hind leg, and was emaciated. Though it weighed 56 pounds, it was  
41 estimated that in good condition it would have weighed approximately 85-90 pounds (Grinnell  
42 et al 1937). The preliminary analysis of this animal suggests that it represents a common *Canis*  
43 *lupus* origin (CDFW and Conservation Genetics Resource Center, unpubl. data).

44  
45 Of the two other California specimens; one was determined to be a domestic dog (collected in  
46 1982 Tehama County) and interestingly analysis on the other specimen (collected in 1962

1 Tulare County) indicated its genetic information had only been observed in modern far-north  
2 Alaska-Northwest Territories. Based in part on the collection date of 1962, it is speculated that  
3 this specimen was purposefully brought into California by humans (CDFW and Conservation  
4 Genetics Resource Center, unpubl. data).

5  
6 While limited, the available information suggests that wolves were distributed widely in  
7 California, particularly in the Klamath-Cascade Mountains, North Coast Range, Modoc Plateau,  
8 Sierra Nevada, Sacramento Valley, and San Francisco Bay Area. While the majority of historical  
9 records are not verifiable, for the purposes of this status review, the Department concludes  
10 that the gray wolf likely occurred in much of the areas depicted (CDFW 2011a) (Figure 1). Still,  
11 it is not possible to assess the utility and accuracy of the recorded and ethno historical  
12 information in reconstructing a map of historical gray wolf distribution in California, and the  
13 true historical distribution remains uncertain.

### 14 **Historical Perspective – Oregon**

15 The Department considers the range and distribution of gray wolves in Oregon to be relevant to  
16 California because Oregon is the most likely source for wolf dispersal into California. According  
17 to Bailey (1936), there were two native species of gray wolves in Oregon prior to being  
18 extirpated in the 1940s, *Canis lycaon nubilus* (east) and *C. l. gigas* (west), with ranges separated  
19 geographically east and west of the Cascade Mountains. *C.l. nubilus*, the species associated with  
20 the plains states, was called a variety of names including buffalo or plains wolf. *C.l. gigas* was  
21 known as the northwestern timber wolf, which was found along the Western Pacific Coast.  
22 Modern classification schemes do not recognize *C. l. gigas* as a subspecies and all wolves  
23 historically occupying Oregon would be classified as *C. l. nubilus* (Nowak 2002, Chambers et al.  
24 2012).

25  
26  
27 Based on the historical information available for Oregon (Bailey 1936), it is possible that wolf  
28 distribution in Northern California would have been similar to that of the coastal and plains  
29 distribution found to the north, but the extent to which wolves ranged south into California is  
30 uncertain.

### 31 **Reproduction and Development**

32 In a healthy wolf population with abundant prey, a reproductive pair may produce pups every  
33 year. Females and males generally begin breeding as 2-year olds. Normally, only the dominant  
34 pair in a pack breeds, and packs typically produce one litter annually (Mech and Boitani 2003).  
35 The gestation period for wolves is 62-63 days. Most litters (1 to 11 pups) are born in early to  
36 mid-spring and average five pups. Pups are cared for by the entire pack, and on average four  
37 pups survive until winter (USFWS 2009).

38  
39  
40 *Denning:* Birth usually takes place in a sheltered den, such as a hole, rock crevice, hollow log, or  
41 overturned stump. Young are blind and deaf at birth and weigh an average of 450 g (14.5 oz)  
42 (Utah Division of Wildlife Resources 2005). Pups generally emerge from dens at 3-4 weeks of  
43 age (Paquet and Carbyn 2003). Pups depend on their mother's milk for the first month, but are  
44 gradually weaned and fed regurgitated meat brought by pack members. As pups age, they may  
45 leave dens but remain at "rendezvous sites", usually with an adult, while other adult pack  
46 members forage. Specific dens and rendezvous sites are sometimes used from year to year by a

1 given pack (Paquet and Carbyn 2003). By seven to eight months of age, when the young wolves  
2 are almost fully grown, they begin traveling with the adults.

#### 4 **Food Habits**

5 Wolves are adapted to feeding on a diverse array of foods. As generalist carnivores, wolves can  
6 and do hunt prey that range in size from snowshoe hares (*Lepus americanus*) to bison (*Bison*  
7 *bison*), depending upon season and geographic location (Peterson and Ciucci 2003). In North  
8 America, wolves' winter diet is dominated by ungulates which are vulnerable to snow  
9 accumulation, and juveniles are the most common age class killed (Mech and Peterson 2003).  
10 In summer, North American wolves are able to consume a more diverse diet, and are often  
11 found to consume beavers, ground squirrels, coyotes, salmon, insects, and plant matter (Smith  
12 1998; Peterson and Ciucci 2003; Darimont et al 2004), although ungulates represent most of  
13 the biomass consumed (Ballard et al 1987; Fuller 1989b).

15 Based on studies in Alberta, Canada, wolf predation on deer equaled that of elk (42% each);  
16 however, considering the biomass available to wolves, elk contributed 56% compared to 20%  
17 each for deer and moose (Weaver 1994). In British Columbia, black-tailed deer are the most  
18 common prey along coastal areas, and moose constitute much of wolf prey in the more  
19 southern areas (Darimont et al 2009; Mowat 2011). In the Northern and Central Rocky  
20 Mountains, elk are frequently the most important prey of wolves, but deer and moose  
21 comprise more in some areas (Huggard et al 1993; Boyd et al 1994; Mack and Laudon 1998;  
22 Arjo et al 2002; Husseman et al 2003; Kunkel et al 2004; Smith et al 2004; Atwood et al 2007).  
23 In areas where wolves and livestock co-occur, wolves have been known to kill and consume  
24 sheep, cattle, goats, horses, llamas, livestock guard dogs, and domestic pets (Bangs and Shivik  
25 2001).

27 While OR7 was in California, he was observed pursuing a doe black-tailed deer. Based on  
28 evidence of known GPS locations (confirmed with wolf tracks and suspected wolf scat) it is  
29 believed that OR7 has fed on feral horse, bones at a livestock carcass pile, mule deer and mule  
30 deer fawns, and was suspected to have fed on ground squirrels. With the exception of the  
31 livestock carcass pile, it was not possible to determine if these food items were killed or  
32 scavenged (Kovacs 2013).

34 Wolf populations depend on the amount of prey biomass available (Packard and Mech 1980)  
35 and because prey abundance can vary from year-to-year, wolf population can also fluctuate  
36 (Fuller et al. 2003). Although mostly dominant when it comes to other predator species,  
37 competition for prey can occur with mountain lion, coyote, fox, and bear, as well as  
38 intraspecific competition with other wolf populations. The numerous mortality factors that prey  
39 species populations are subject to, such as starvation resulting from poor habitat conditions,  
40 winter kill, predation, road-kill, disease, and sport hunting also affect the amount of prey  
41 available to wolves.

43 Although a larger pack is more effective in capturing prey, this manner of hunting has been  
44 reported to result in less food per member. In contrast, when lone wolves and wolf pairs are  
45 able to capture prey, the amount of food obtained per wolf is greater when they are successful,  
46 although they are less successful each time they hunt (Fritts and Mech 1981; Ballard et al. 1987,

1 1997; Thurber and Peterson 1993; Hayes and Harestad 2000). Single wolves have been known  
2 to bring down an adult moose (Cowan 1947). However, the amount of food that can be utilized  
3 when a large prey animal is taken by one or two wolves is limited and without a sufficient  
4 number of feeders, this surplus can be lost to competitors, scavengers, insects, and bacteria  
5 (Mech and Boitani 2003), even when cached. Therefore, sharing the surplus of large prey with  
6 family members appears to be the most efficient approach adult wolves can take to enhance  
7 the survival of their offspring and their fitness (Mech 1970, 1991; Schmidt and Mech 1997).

8  
9 As wolves occupy the role of apex predator, the ecosystem can be modified by influencing  
10 behavior, distribution and abundance of prey species, with subsequent indirect effects on  
11 habitat (USFWS 1987) and by influencing distribution and abundance of other predators (Levi  
12 and Wilmers 2012). Additionally, wolves influence ungulate population health and distribution  
13 (White et al. 2005, 2012; Smith 2012).

#### 14 **Territory/Home Range**

15 Wolf packs live within territories they defend from other wolves. In areas with a well-  
16 established wolf population, a mosaic of territories develops. Packs compete with each other  
17 for space and food resources through widespread, regular travel, during which they scent-mark  
18 as a means of maintaining their territorial boundaries. Howling at specific locations serves to  
19 reinforce these scent-marks (Mech and Boitani 2003).

20  
21 Territory size is a function of interdependent factors. Wolf pack size, prey size, prey biomass,  
22 prey vulnerability, and latitude are all factors that have been recognized as influencing the size  
23 of wolf territories. The smallest recorded territory was 13 square miles in northeastern  
24 Minnesota, defended by a pack of six wolves (Mech and Boitani 2003). The largest territory on  
25 record, defended by a pack of ten, was 2,450 square miles in Alaska (Burkholder 1959). Wolf  
26 territories in the northern Rocky Mountains typically range from 200-400 square miles (322-644  
27 km<sup>2</sup>) (USFWS 2003).

28  
29 Wolf territories are known to shift seasonally due to changes in movements of ungulate species  
30 (Mech and Boitani 2003). In summer, the den is the social center with adults radiating out in  
31 foraging groups of various sizes (Murie 1944; Mech 1970). In winter, packs will sometimes split  
32 up to hunt in smaller groups, and pack members may lag behind to visit old kills or disperse  
33 temporarily (Mech 1966).

34  
35 The two primary functions of wolf travel within the territory are foraging and territory  
36 maintenance (i.e., boundary maintenance via scent-marking), of which they apparently do both  
37 simultaneously (Mech and Boitani 2003). Wolves range over large areas to hunt and may cover  
38 30 mi (48 km). or more in a day. The breeding pair is generally the lead hunters for the pack.  
39 They generally prefer the easiest available travel routes (Paquet and Carbyn 2003) and often  
40 use semi-regular routes, sometimes referred to as “runways” through their territory (Young and  
41 Goldman 1944). Within-territory movements differ between pup-rearing season and the rest of  
42 the year (Mech et al 1998). While pups are confined to the den or other rendezvous sites,  
43 movements of adults radiate out from and back to that core position (Murie 1944). Once pups  
44 are able to travel with the adults, movements become more nomadic throughout the territory  
45 (Burkholder 1959; Musiani et al 1998).

1  
2 Rendezvous Sites: After the natal den is abandoned, wolves are known to use “rendezvous  
3 sites” as specific resting and gathering areas in summer and early fall, generally consisting of a  
4 meadow complex and stream, with an adjacent forest (Murie 1944; Carbyn 1974). Rendezvous  
5 sites where cover is sufficient are sometimes used for training and hiding pups, once they have  
6 reached an age where the den is no longer capable of containing them (Mech and Boitani  
7 2003).

8  
9 Dispersal: Some wolves remain with their natal packs for multiple years, but most eventually  
10 disperse. Dispersing wolves may conduct temporary forays, returning several times before  
11 finally dispersing permanently (Fritts and Mech 1981; Van Ballenberghe 1983; Gese and Mech  
12 1991), while others disperse once, never to return (Mech 1987; Mech et al 1998).

13  
14 A few differences have been detected between the sexes in terms of dispersal characteristics.  
15 In some areas or years, males may disperse farther than females (Pullainen 1965; Peterson et al  
16 1984), but at other times or locations, females disperse farther (Fritts 1983; Ballard et al 1987),  
17 so the average dispersal distance is about the same for both sexes (Mech and Boitani 2003).  
18 Wolves disperse throughout the year; however fall and spring tend to be the peak periods.  
19 Dispersal primarily during these periods suggests that social competition may be a trigger. In  
20 the spring when pups are present, aggression from the breeding adults may occur (Rabb et al  
21 1967; Zimen 1976), and in fall when pups are traveling with adults, food competition may be at  
22 its peak (Mech 1970; Mech and Boitani 2003).

23  
24 The average dispersing distance of northern Rocky Mountain wolves is about 60 miles, although  
25 some animals disperse very long distances. Individual wolves can disperse over 680 miles from  
26 their natal pack, with actual travel distances, documented through global positioning system  
27 (GPS) technology, exceeding 6,000 miles (USFWS et al 2011). In general younger wolves  
28 disperse farther than older wolves (Wydeven et al 1995). This is possibly explained by older  
29 dispersers having more familiarity with the local terrain, and hence perceiving greater  
30 opportunity locally, whereas younger, more naive dispersers wander farther seeking security in  
31 areas not already inhabited by hostile wolves (Mech and Boitani 2003). There is some evidence  
32 that when wolves do travel long distances, they move in a manner that seems goal-directed  
33 (Mech and Frenzel 1971). One explanation is that, unable to establish a territory locally, the  
34 animal is predisposed to travel in a certain direction for some particular distance or time before  
35 looking to settle (Mech and Boitani 2003).

36  
37 In recent years, dispersing wolves from British Columbia, Montana, and likely Idaho have  
38 established packs in Washington, and dispersers from Idaho have established in Northeastern  
39 Oregon. The radio-collared male wolf OR7 dispersed into California in December, 2011 and  
40 remained in the state for over a year. OR7 returned to Oregon in March, 2013, and continues to  
41 remain in an area approximately 300 miles from any known wolf pack. Oregon Fish and Wildlife  
42 officials believe he is not accompanied by other wolves. As of the time that he left California,  
43 the Department estimated that he had traveled approximately 4,500 air miles.

44  
45 Colonization: As wolves colonize or recolonize an area, the initial pack can proliferate quickly as  
46 conditions permit. This proliferation occurs in part through dispersal from the founding pack,

1 and in part from additional immigration (Mech and Boitani 2003). Wolves in newly colonized  
2 regions may shift their territories over large areas. In these newly colonized areas territories  
3 tend to be exclusive initially, but may overlap with other territories as the region becomes  
4 saturated (Hayes 1995). In general, as areas become saturated with wolf territories, the  
5 boundaries may shift but the cores tend to remain approximately the same (Mech and Boitani  
6 2003).

## 7 8 **Habitat Use**

9 Wolves are habitat generalists and historically occupied diverse habitats in North America,  
10 including tundra, forests, grasslands, and deserts. Their primary habitat requirements are the  
11 presence of adequate ungulate prey and water. As summarized by Paquet and Carbyn (2003),  
12 habitat use is strongly affected by the a number of variables, including availability and  
13 abundance of prey, availability of den sites, ease of travel, snow conditions, livestock density,  
14 road density, human presence, topography and continuous blocks of public lands. While  
15 suitable habitat generally consists of areas with adequate prey where the likelihood of human  
16 contact is relatively low (Mladenoff et al. 1999) wolves are highly adaptable and can occupy a  
17 range of habitats, however, human tolerance to the presence of wolves may be an important  
18 factor (Mech 2006).

19  
20 Wolves require adequate space for denning sites located away from territory edges to minimize  
21 encounters with neighboring packs and avoid other potential disturbances while birthing and  
22 raising pups. Den site selection and preparation may occur as early as autumn (Thiel et al 1997),  
23 with non-breeding members of the pack participating in the digging of the den and providing  
24 other general provisions to the breeding female. Rendezvous sites where cover is sufficient are  
25 sometimes used for training and hiding pups once they have reached an age where the den is  
26 no longer capable of containing them (Mech and Boitani 2003).

27  
28 Habitat Suitability Modeling: There are studies that have modeled potential suitable wolf  
29 habitat in California. Carroll (2001) modeled potential wolf occupancy in California using  
30 estimates of prey density, prey accessibility and security from human disturbance (road and  
31 human population density). Results suggested that areas located in the Modoc Plateau, Sierra  
32 Nevada, and the Northern Coastal Mountains could be potentially suitable habitat areas for  
33 wolves.

34  
35 The Department has similarly developed a model in anticipation of a gray wolf conservation  
36 plan. Oakleaf et al. (2006) developed a model for the Northern Rocky Mountain (NRM) gray  
37 wolf Distinct Population Segment (DPS) and reported positive correlations with environmental  
38 factors (elk and forested habitats) and negative correlations between wolf occupancy and  
39 anthropogenic factors (human density and domestic sheep). The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service  
40 developed a habitat suitability model for Idaho, which the Department modified for California  
41 based on the Oakleaf criteria; percent forest cover, human population density, elk density, and  
42 domestic sheep density. Currently, the Department believes that the Oakleaf model  
43 (subsequently validated in 2010 with respect to wolf survivorship) provides a rigorous approach  
44 and is based on fewer assumptions than other modeling efforts that have been conducted and  
45 which cover California (Figure 2).

1  
2 **CONSERVATION STATUS**  
3

4 In assessing conservation status for the gray wolf in California, the Department considers the  
5 status of the gray wolf in Oregon to be relevant, as wolves from Oregon would be the most  
6 likely source population in the future. Consequently, the status assessment as it relates  
7 specifically to animal population, trend, and distribution includes a brief overview of Oregon.  
8

9 In regard to the Mexican wolf, the Department is of the understanding from both the U.S. Fish  
10 and Wildlife Service, and the Arizona Game and Fish Department, that the likelihood of wolves  
11 entering California from Arizona is so remote that the Fish and Wildlife Service did not include  
12 California as potential range in developing the recent Distinct Population Segment (DPS) for this  
13 subspecies. Because occurrence in California is so unlikely by the Mexican wolf, and the  
14 scientific information on wolf use of the deserts of Southern California is non-existent, the  
15 Department has concluded conducting a reasoned status evaluation for this animal is not  
16 feasible as it is for the gray wolf in northern California.  
17

18 **Trends in Current Distribution and Range**

19 California: With no gray wolf population, there is no trend in distribution or range in California  
20 and it is not possible to assess a trend as there is no scientific data available for California. The  
21 only known natural occurrence of the gray wolf in California since extirpation has been OR7, the  
22 wolf that traveled south from Oregon (CDFW 2011b). The dispersal pattern of OR7 during his  
23 visits to California is provided but the Department does not consider the travels of this  
24 individual to constitute a geographic area of wolf range. At the time of this status review OR7 is  
25 in Southern Oregon (Figure 3).  
26

27 Oregon: In 1999, dispersing wolves were first observed in Oregon. As the reintroduced Idaho  
28 wolf population expanded, increasing numbers of dispersing wolves eventually established  
29 packs in both Oregon and Washington by 2009. The range of the gray wolf in Oregon has been  
30 expanding since that time.  
31

32 In 2010, there were two known packs; the Imnaha (OR7 pack of origin) and the Wenaha packs  
33 with 15 and 6 wolves, respectively. In 2011, three additional packs were known in Oregon; the  
34 Walla Walla, Snake River, and Umatilla River packs. In 2012, one more pack was established;  
35 the Minam pack. There is also another known pair located in that same general area, the Sled  
36 Springs pair that has an undetermined breeding status. In addition, there are at least three  
37 wolves are not associated with any pack (ODFW 2011), including OR7. As of June 2013, there  
38 are 6 established wolf packs in Oregon, all in the northeastern part of the state (Figure 4).  
39 Because of the growth in the Oregon wolf population, an expansion southward appears feasible  
40 in the foreseeable future.  
41

42 **Population Trend**

43 California: There is no known population of gray wolf in California, therefore population  
44 estimate and trend information does not exist.  
45

1 Oregon: The current abundance of Oregon wolves through 2012 is estimated by ODFW to be a  
2 minimum of 46 animals. The Oregon wolf population has increased each year from 2009  
3 through 2012, with the minimum number of wolves reported to be 14, 21, 29, and 46 animals,  
4 respectively (ODFW 2013a). The true number of wolves in Oregon was undoubtedly higher each  
5 year as not all wolves were likely detected. Whether this rate of increase will continue, or  
6 whether a similar rate of population growth could be expected to occur in California if a wolf  
7 pack(s) became established, is uncertain and is likely dependent on a number of factors,  
8 including habitat suitability and prey availability.

### 9 10 11 **Habitat Essential for Continued Existence of the Species**

12 Fish and Game Code section 2074.6 requires that a status review include preliminary  
13 identification of the habitat that may be essential to the continued existence of the species.

14  
15 Wolves are wide ranging and can use varied habitats. Habitat used by wolves in other western  
16 states appear similar to California forest and rangeland habitats. These observations and an  
17 understanding of wolf life history, are considered relevant in developing a potential model of  
18 essential habitat for California. These factors contribute to the below discussion of potential, or  
19 possibly, essential habitat should a gray wolf population occur in California. Large, undeveloped  
20 tracts of public land provide suitable habitat and are generally required for the establishment of  
21 wolf populations in North America (Paquet and Carbyn 2003). It is believed these large tracts of  
22 undeveloped land reduce human access and thereby provide some level of protection for  
23 wolves (Mech 1995). However, as gray wolves expand their range in the U.S., they may  
24 increasingly inhabit areas near substantial human development. Haight et al. (1988) concluded  
25 that wolves can likely survive in such areas, as long as disjunct populations are linked by  
26 dispersal, prey is abundant, and human persecution is not severe.

27  
28 However, as no gray wolves are known to inhabit California, habitat essential for the *continued*  
29 *existence* of wolves is not presently at issue. Additionally, as no scientific data on habitat  
30 selection or preferences of gray wolf in California exists, it is not possible to describe essential  
31 habitat with certainty.

### 32 33 **Factors Affecting Ability of the Gray Wolf to Survive and Reproduce**

34 Degree and Immediacy of Threats: As far as the Department is aware, the gray wolf does not  
35 presently (September 2013) inhabit California. Consequently, there is no immediate threat to  
36 gray wolf survival and reproduction in California. However, due to the potential for wolves to  
37 become established in the future, the following factors may become relevant. Unless, and  
38 until, the gray wolf becomes established in California and first-hand scientific information  
39 becomes available, there is uncertainty in predicting the potential significance of these factors  
40 under California conditions.

41  
42 Human Predation on Wolves: Fear of wolves has been passed down from generation to  
43 generation for centuries, partially due to danger that large predators pose to humans. A factor  
44 contributing to the legacy of fear is that historically, prior to modern medicine, bites by rabid  
45 wolves almost always resulted in death. Cases of “furious” wolf attacks have been documented  
46 with one wolf sometimes biting large numbers of people (Linnel et al. 2002).

1  
2 Negative human attitudes toward wolves are largely based on a perceived threat to personal  
3 safety or livelihood. Early settlers and explorers viewed wolves and other large predators as a  
4 serious threat due to direct losses of livestock, but also as competitors with humans for the  
5 large ungulates which early settlers relied on in part for food. Wolves, grizzly and black bears,  
6 and mountain lions were actively killed as settlers moved west and were removed from most of  
7 the lower U.S. to allow a safe environment for the establishment of farms and ranches  
8 throughout the west. While nationwide, the overall loss of cattle due to wildlife is about 5.6  
9 percent (219,900 cattle lost), wolves contributed 0.2 percent (8,100 cattle lost) of the total  
10 reported losses (3,992,900 total cattle lost). More than half of all predator losses are caused by  
11 coyotes (USDA 2011). However, public perceptions of wolves attacking people and the losses of  
12 livestock, continues to influence human attitudes toward wolves. Studies focused on the  
13 attitudes of people toward wolves as wolves have been reintroduced in the U.S. have shown a  
14 trend of increasing tolerance in some areas (Bruskotter et al. 2007), and a decreasing tolerance  
15 in others (Chavez et al. 2005).

16  
17 Negative attitudes toward wolves would still likely be in place in California if the species  
18 establishes itself. However, development of sound management and conservation strategies  
19 involving California's diverse stakeholders, and communicating those strategies to the public  
20 may reduce the potential for this to be a threat by increasing human tolerance for wolves in the  
21 state.

22  
23 Damage Control: The conflict between wolves and livestock producers, and the resultant take  
24 of wolves under depredation/damage control, constitutes a threat to individual wolves at a  
25 minimum and may represent a potential threat in California if the gray wolf populations were  
26 to become established in the state. Washington and Oregon have criteria to determine if  
27 wolves have become habituated to killing domestic animals and has steps to remove them, as  
28 necessary (ODFW 2012, WDFW 2012). However, the wolf populations in the Northern Rocky  
29 Mountains, and in Washington and Oregon, are continuing to increase in the presence of this  
30 threat suggesting that it is not likely a significant issue to maintaining wolf populations in these  
31 states.

32  
33 Other Human Influences: Human take of wolves is the primary factor that can significantly  
34 affect wolf populations (USFWS 2000, Mitchell et al. 2008, Murray et al. 2010, Smith et al.  
35 2010). Thus, conservation and recovery efforts for the wolf have been successful to a  
36 substantial extent by limiting human-caused wolf mortality and allowing populations to  
37 recolonize in several states. In recent years, public hunting of the gray wolf has been initiated  
38 in some states (such as Idaho and Montana) for species management purposes, resulting in  
39 substantial harvest of wolves, however, the long-term effects on the species population  
40 dynamics are not yet known.

41  
42 Human population growth and increased human use of open spaces through urban and  
43 residential development, natural resource utilization (i.e., timber, mining, water use,  
44 agriculture, etc.), and increased access to public lands for human recreation all have the  
45 potential to impact habitat for wolves and influence the ability for populations to become  
46 established and sustainable over time (Carroll 2001, USFWS 2013). Other potential impacts to

1 wolves could occur from disease, vehicle strikes, urban growth, road development, highways  
2 (which pose barriers to wolf movements), dams, habitat loss and other development.

#### 4 **Prey Availability**

5 In most northwestern states, elk and moose are the primary prey species for wolves (USFWS  
6 1987). In Oregon and in the Great Lakes area, wolves prey on deer more when larger ungulate  
7 species are unavailable (ODFW 2010; USFWS 1987). In California, wolves would be expected to  
8 rely heavily on deer because elk population numbers are far fewer across the landscape.  
9 Wolves will take smaller prey or scavenge when necessary, but tend to prefer hunting larger  
10 ungulates (CDFW 2011a).

12 In California, it is unknown whether the available habitat supports or is capable of supporting,  
13 adequate numbers of the primary prey species, elk and deer, to sustain a wolf population  
14 combined with the other factors affecting these species. In northern California, where the gray  
15 wolf would likely first colonize, the current elk population is estimated to be approximately  
16 7,000 animals across approximately 28,000 sq miles of wildland in the eight northern counties,  
17 and occurs at low densities except in the coastal zone (Figure 5). California's mule deer  
18 populations have been in a slow and steady decline since they peaked in the 1960's, and are  
19 down an estimated 50-70 percent in the northern counties where the habitat would otherwise  
20 appear to be potentially suitable for gray wolf. Additionally, California's other predators on  
21 deer and elk, specifically mountain lion, bobcat, coyote, and black bear, are considered  
22 common species and black bear have been increasing in population since the 1980s. The  
23 mountain lion (estimated population of 4,000-6,000 statewide based on a 1970s estimate) is a  
24 specially protected mammal for which no hunting can occur. The black bear population in  
25 California has approximately tripled in the past 25 years to over an estimated 30,000 animals  
26 statewide, with fewer than 2,000 typically harvested annually through hunting in most years  
27 (<http://www.dfg.ca.gov/wildlife/hunting/bear/docs/2011BearTakeReport.pdf>). These species  
28 would compete with the gray wolves for food. It is unclear what effect the presence of wolves  
29 in the state would have on the populations of black bears and mountain lions, although  
30 competition for resources would be expected to reduce the populations of these competing  
31 predators and the proportion of game animals taken by each of them might likely change. In  
32 California, the habitat for enough ungulate prey to sustain a viable wolf population in California  
33 is in need of restoration to increase deer and elk populations.

35 Habitat suitability models for the gray wolf (Carroll et al. 2001, Oakleaf et al. 2006, CDFW in  
36 prep.) take into consideration the estimated abundance of elk prey, but not deer prey. The  
37 Department is gathering information to adapt the Oakleaf et al. (2006) model to reflect our  
38 current information on the distribution and density of large ungulate prey in California  
39 (essentially combining Figure 2 and Figure 5). Until wolves attempt to enter and become  
40 established in California, it is not possible to determine with certainty whether a population can  
41 be sustained by the existing prey available in the state.

#### 43 **Competition**

44 Competition for resources (e.g. food, space) occurs between wolves and other predators.  
45 Mountain lion, black bear, coyote, bobcat, and fox species are carnivorous animals that would  
46 likely be the most affected by wolves becoming established in California. It is unknown what

1 the interspecific relationships among the gray wolf and other predators would be, in particular  
2 for species that have unusual status already in California (the Sierra Nevada red fox is  
3 threatened under the California Endangered Species Act and the mountain lion is a “specially  
4 protected mammal” per legislation). Mountain lions are a common predator in California’s deer  
5 ranges and are protected from take or harvest through legislation. It is likely that the mountain  
6 lion would be the primary competitor with wolves for deer. In Yellowstone National Park, as  
7 wolf numbers increased, mountain lions shifted to higher elevations and more north-facing  
8 slopes in the summer and in more rugged areas in the winter (Bartnick et al. 2013). Home  
9 ranges for wolves and mountain lions overlapped, but mountain lions avoided areas recently  
10 occupied by wolves (Kortello 2007). Whether these patterns would hold in California is  
11 uncertain as the habitats, weather, and prey base including ungulate migration patterns are  
12 different. No scientific information available to the Department suggests that competition with  
13 other predators is likely to pose a significant threat to wolves in California.

14

15 Black bears, another potential predator in California, are known to coexist with gray wolves  
16 although conflicts around wolf dens, bear dens, or food have resulted in either species being  
17 killed. Generally, adult bears are rarely killed by wolves but injured, young, or old bears have  
18 been known to be prey in some circumstances (Murie 1944, Ballard 1982, Paquet and Carbyn  
19 1986, Koene et al. 2002). Black bears can also have impacts to ungulate populations and are  
20 known to hunt and kill the fawns of elk and deer to the point of having a substantial impact to  
21 the young-of-the-year in a given region (Rogers et al. 1990, White et al. 2010).

22

### 23 **Small Population Size**

24 The threats inherent to small, isolated populations would apply to any wolf or initial wolf  
25 population that may attempt to colonize California. A small wolf population would likely be less  
26 able to withstand and rebound from natural and human influenced causes of mortality . A  
27 small population size increases the risk of extirpation through demographic, environmental,  
28 and random genetic changes over time, particularly if the population is isolated; as well as  
29 through deleterious effects associated with low genetic diversity (Traill et al. 2007, Traill et al.  
30 2010). The degree to which colonizing wolves are able to breed with and exchange individuals  
31 between packs in Oregon or other neighboring states will influence the significance of the  
32 threat posed by small population size.

33

34 The growth of wolf populations in and around the northern Rocky Mountains since 1995  
35 provides evidence that the gray wolf, with appropriate conservation actions, can apparently  
36 overcome the threats associated with a small population size.

37

### 38 **Climate Change**

39 Climate change potentially offers both benefits and challenges for a future gray wolf population  
40 in California. Many prey and predator species have shifted their distributions towards higher  
41 latitudes and elevations due to climate change (Thomas 2010; Chen et al. 2011). It is predicted  
42 that temperature will increase and precipitation will decrease in California in coming decades  
43 (Van den Hurk et al. 2006; Cayan et al. 2012). Top consumer species at higher trophic levels  
44 have greater metabolic needs and smaller population sizes than those at lower trophic levels  
45 (Voigt et al. 2003; Vasseur and McCann 2005), which makes them more sensitive to climate  
46 change (Gilman et al. 2010). Other climate change predictions may influence the habitat’s

1 ability to sustain wolf populations in California. For example, reduced forest vegetation in the  
2 Sierra Nevada and Cascade Mountains (Lenihan et al. 2008) due to increased temperatures and  
3 catastrophic fires (Fried et al. 2004) could limit suitable habitats for wolves, especially in terms  
4 of denning and cover requirements. Conversely, with increased wildfire in forest communities,  
5 early successional habitats that result would likely provide benefits to large herbivore prey  
6 species. Consequently, it is unknown what affect climate change will have on wolf and prey  
7 populations or distributions in California.

## 10 **Diseases**

11 Wolves are vulnerable to a number of diseases and parasites, including, mange, mites, ticks,  
12 fleas, roundworm, tape worm, flatworm, distemper, cataracts, arthritis, cancer, rickets,  
13 pneumonia, and Lyme disease. In colder northern regions, external parasites tend to be less of  
14 a problem (Idaho DFG 2013). Whether these diseases and parasites have, or would have,  
15 substantial impact on a gray wolf population in California is unknown. The primary known  
16 diseases and parasites are described below.

17  
18 Canine distemper and canine infectious hepatitis: Both diseases are known to occur in wolves  
19 and more recently canine parvovirus has become prevalent in several wolf populations (Brand  
20 et al. 1995).

21  
22 Mange: Mange consists of tiny mites that attach themselves to a wolf's fur or skin. In sarcoptic  
23 mange, intense itching occurs due to female mites' burrowing under the wolf's skin to lay eggs.  
24 In demodectic mange, the mites live in the pores of the skin and cause little or no itching. The  
25 symptoms of mange include skin lesions, crusting, and fur loss. Wolves that suffer mange in the  
26 winter lose fur that protects them resulting in hypothermia and possibly can cause them to  
27 freeze to death.

28  
29 Canine Distemper: Canine distemper is a very contagious disease caused by a virus. The disease  
30 is often centers on the skin, eye membranes, and intestinal tract, and occasionally the brain.  
31 Symptoms include fever, loss of appetite, and a discharge from the eyes and nose. Diarrhea and  
32 dehydration may follow and in final stages seizures may occur (Brand et al. 1995). Canine  
33 distemper can result in periodic population declines in wild wolves (Almberg et al. 2010,  
34 Almberg et al. 2011)

35  
36 Canine Parvovirus: The transmission of disease from domestic dogs, e.g. parvovirus, is a grave  
37 conservation concern for recovering wolf populations (Paquet and Carbyn 2003, (Smith and  
38 Almberg 2007). Recently, two wolves and two pups in Oregon were found to have died from  
39 parvovirus (ODFW 2013b). The disease is not thought to significantly impact large wolf  
40 populations, but it may hinder the recovery of small populations (Mech and Goyal 1993). It is  
41 currently unknown how much this disease may affect Oregon wolf populations or potential  
42 future California populations.

43  
44 Canine Adenovirus (Hepatitis): Infectious canine hepatitis (ICH) is a contagious disease of dogs  
45 that can effect wolves, coyotes, foxes, bears, lynx and other carnivores with signs that vary  
46 from no visual signs to a slight fever and congestion of the mucous membranes to severe

1 depression, marked low white blood cell count, and blood clotting disorders. Although  
2 controlled by immunization in domestic animals, periodic outbreaks, which may reflect  
3 maintenance of the disease in wild and feral hosts, reinforce the need for continued vaccination  
4 of domestic pets (Merck 2013).

5  
6 ***Rabies:*** Contrary to popular myth, rabies is very rare in wolves. Although rabies is fatal to  
7 wolves and has been detected in wild wolves in North America, the disease is not thought to be  
8 a major factor in the population ecology of wolves (Theberge et al. 1994).

9  
10 ***Parasites:*** Roundworm, tape worm, flatworm, mange, mites, ticks, and fleas.

11 ***Echinococcus granulosus (E. granulosus):*** is a very small (3-5mm) tapeworm that requires two  
12 different animal species, a canid and an ungulate, to complete its lifecycle and is already  
13 naturalized in CA (Idaho DFG 2013). It is not known to what extent these parasites may pose a  
14 threat to a future wolf population in California.

#### 15 16 **Other Risk Factors**

17 ***Overexploitation:*** The possibility of future increased access to areas that are currently roadless,  
18 for resource extraction (logging, mining, etc.) or high-impact recreational activities (off-road  
19 vehicles, winter snowmobiling, etc.) could impact a future gray wolf population. However, given  
20 such activities are not substantially proposed in northern California, we do not consider them a  
21 potential risk factor under current public land management strategies. Other recreational  
22 activities (hiking, photography) could disturb wolves if they occur at sensitive times or in a  
23 manner that is especially disruptive if of long duration or high intensity. Poaching has the  
24 potential to impact wolf populations by affecting prey populations, or by the direct killing of  
25 wolves. The significance of these potential threats is unknown and would be difficult to  
26 quantify.

## 27 28 **EXISTING MANAGEMENT, MONITORING, AND RESEARCH ACTIVITIES**

### 29 30 **Wolf Conservation and Management Strategies in California**

31 Prior to OR7 arriving in California, the Department began developing background information in  
32 anticipation of such an event. A wolf planning document, Gray Wolves in California (CDFW  
33 2011a), was completed that outlined basic information about the history, current conditions,  
34 potential for natural re-colonization and management implications. Once OR7 was in the state,  
35 the Department quickly worked with the USFWS and the USDA Wildlife Services to develop an  
36 interagency coordination plan to respond to events involving a wolf as needed  
37 (USFWS/APHIS/CDFW 2012).

38  
39 At the time of this status review, the Department is working on a wolf plan for California. The  
40 primary goal of this plan is to develop a strategy for the long-term conservation and  
41 management of wolves in the state. The plan is on a schedule to be approved and in place by  
42 early 2015. The Department recognized the need to be proactive in developing a strategy for  
43 coordination with federal partners and to be responsive to the questions and concerns by a  
44 variety of stakeholder groups. A part of that preparation will require more detailed assessments  
45 of potential habitat capability in California. Additionally, the Department's deer and elk

1 programs are working toward development of more comprehensive assessments of prey  
2 species given the potential for the gray wolf to become established in California.

### 3 4 **Monitoring**

5 Coordination with the Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife and the USFWS will continue in  
6 the effort of tracking radio and GPS collared wolves from Oregon packs. Additionally, general  
7 wildlife surveys that occur along the Northern California border will continue annually to  
8 monitor for a number of wildlife species, including wolves when yearly assessment work occurs  
9 in areas that might potentially detect dispersing wolves from Oregon. It is anticipated that  
10 monitoring will be considered as part of the wolf plan that is in the beginning stages of  
11 development by the Department.

### 12 13 14 **Current Land Management Practices**

15 The following land management summary applies to forests and ranges of California that could  
16 potentially be inhabited by gray wolf in the future. To the Department's knowledge, none of the  
17 current land management planning efforts being implemented have specific objectives,  
18 prescriptions, or actions related to the gray wolf.

19  
20 Land management practices in California in areas of potential wolf habitat vary with ownership.  
21 Large areas of mid-elevation forest and meadow vegetation communities with low human  
22 density are the primary criteria used to estimate potential wolf management areas, although  
23 wolves can sustain a population in a variety of different habitat types. Fifty five percent (55%)  
24 of the forest land in California is publicly owned, the vast majority of which is owned and  
25 managed by the federal government (CDF 2010). The remaining 45% is privately owned. Most  
26 of the federal forest land in California is owned and managed by the United States Department  
27 of Agriculture Forest Service (USFS). The USFS manages 4,355,231 ha (10,762,000 ac) of conifer  
28 forest land in California (CDF 2010). The National Park Service (NPS) is another significant  
29 landowner in the species' potential California range, owning and managing 447,583 ha  
30 (1,106,000 ac) of conifer forest land (Ibid.). Although some potential habitat is owned and  
31 managed by California State Parks, the California Department of Forestry and Fire Protection,  
32 and other public agencies, most of the 2,692,376 ha (6,653,000 ac) of non-federal conifer forest  
33 land is privately owned (Ibid., Figure 6).

34  
35 U.S. Forest Service Management: Land management on USFS lands is governed by the Land  
36 Resources Management Plan (LRMP) of each National Forest. The LRMPs of the Sierra Nevada  
37 National Forests were amended by the 2004 Sierra Nevada Forest Plan Amendment (SNFPA)  
38 which specifies that vegetation management strategies should be "aggressive enough to reduce  
39 the risk of wildfire to communities in the urban-wildland interface while modifying fire behavior  
40 over the broader landscape" (USDA Forest Service 2004).

41  
42 On USFS lands, decisions about management actions are made giving consideration to the  
43 conservation of natural resources, restoration of ecological health, the protection of  
44 communities, as well as other considerations. Resource and ecological health considerations  
45 include conservation of the forest habitats utilized by the California spotted owl (*Strix*  
46 *occidentalis occidentalis*), northern goshawk (*Accipiter gentilis*), fisher (*Martes pennanti*), and

1 American marten (*Martes americanus*) (USDA Forest Service 2004). Additionally, forest  
2 managers assess potential impacts and long-term effects management actions may have on  
3 Management Indicator Species (MIS), species identified to represent the health of the various  
4 habitats managed in each forest. These species evaluations are done at the local level and at  
5 the bioregional scale, which analyze impacts related to information from population monitoring  
6 data and/or habitat trends of each potential effected MIS, as identified in each forest. The land  
7 management decisions on National Forest lands with the greatest potential to influence future  
8 wolf populations are those related to the elimination of early seral forest habitats, fire  
9 suppression, catastrophic wild fire, public access, livestock grazing, and road construction.

10

11 Bureau of Land Management: BLM rangelands are interspersed all through northern California,  
12 and provide valuable range for elk and deer. BLM lands are managed for multiple uses and  
13 livestock grazing occurs throughout areas potentially inhabitable by the gray wolf. Additionally,  
14 in the northeastern part of California, wild horses are common and could potentially be preyed  
15 upon by wolves. As with National Forest lands, the management decisions with the greatest  
16 potential to influence a future wolf population are related to the elimination of early seral  
17 forest habitat types, fire suppression, catastrophic wild fire, livestock grazing, and public access.

18

19 National Park Service Management: There are a number of large, continuous areas of National  
20 Park Service lands with potentially suitable wolf habitat in California. Forest lands within the  
21 national parks and monument are not managed for timber production. The National Park  
22 Service preserves the natural and cultural resources found in each unique park setting. As with  
23 National Forest lands, the management decisions with the greatest potential to influence a  
24 future wolf population are related to public access.

25

26 State and Private Lands: Forest management on state and private conifer forest lands in  
27 California is regulated by the California Forest Practice Rules (FPRs) (Title 14, California Code of  
28 Regulations, chapters 4, 4.5, and 10) which implement the Z'berg-Nejedly Forest Practice Act.  
29 The FPRs require Registered Professional Foresters to prepare Timber Harvesting Plans (THPs),  
30 or similar documents (e.g. NTMPs) prior to harvesting trees on California timberlands. The  
31 preparation and approval of THPs is intended to ensure that potentially significant impacts to  
32 the environment are considered and, when feasible mitigated. Large blocks of contiguous  
33 industrial forest lands; particularly those with restricted public access, would be expected to be  
34 high quality wolf habitat should wolves become established in California. Public access policies  
35 vary by landowner and location.

36

37 Non-timber projects on state and private lands which are funded or authorized by public  
38 agencies are subject to the provisions of CEQA (e.g., highway construction, residential and  
39 commercial development, some energy projects). CEQA requires that actions which may  
40 substantially reduce the habitat, decrease the number, or restrict the range of any species  
41 which can be considered rare, threatened, or endangered (regardless of status under state or  
42 federal law) must be identified, disclosed, considered, and mitigated or justified (California  
43 Code of Regulations, Title 14, sections 15065(1), 15380). However, like the FPRs, there are no  
44 established guidelines or minimum conservation measures related to species impacts or their  
45 mitigation measures.

1 **Sensitive Species Designations**

2 State, federal and non-governmental organizations designate “at risk” species (e.g., threatened  
3 and endangered species, California Species of Special Concern, Species of Greatest  
4 Conservation Need) and assess and rank their conservation needs. Status designations for the  
5 gray wolf are summarized below for California, Oregon, and Nationwide (Federal):  
6

7 State of California Status: The Fish and Game Commission designated the gray wolf as a  
8 “candidate” for listing as endangered or threatened under the California Endangered Species  
9 Act (CESA), effective November 2, 2012 (Cal. Reg. Notice Register 2012, No. 44-Z, p. 1610).  
10 Should the species not be listed under CESA, existing statutes classify the wolf as a nongame  
11 mammal (California Fish and Game Code section 4152) and subject to regulation under the  
12 authority of the Commission. Additionally, California law regulates the import and possession  
13 of wolves (CFGC section 2150, 2157, 6530, and California Code of Regulations Title 14, section  
14 670). Because of its current federal listing status (see below), any gray wolves entering into  
15 California are considered a federally listed endangered species.  
16

17 State of Oregon Status: Gray wolves are listed statewide as endangered in Oregon under the  
18 state’s Endangered Species Act and protected under the Federal ESA in Western Oregon.  
19

20 Federal Status: The gray wolf is currently listed as endangered throughout portions of its  
21 historic range, including California, under the Federal Endangered Species Act of 1973 (16 U.S.C.  
22 1531 *et seq.*)(ESA) wherever it has not recovered or has been determined to be an  
23 experimental population. However, the USFWS is currently in a public comment period through  
24 October 28 to consider their proposed rule to remove the gray wolf from the list of threatene  
25 d and endangered species, while explicitly identifying the Mexican wolf as an endangered species.  
26

27 The Northern Rocky Mountains (NRM) gray wolf DPS was recently delisted in Montana, Idaho,  
28 Eastern Oregon, Eastern Washington, and North Central Utah due to meeting the recovery  
29 criteria of the NRM wolf recovery plan. Wolves that enter into California, and the western side  
30 of Oregon and Washington, are still protected by the ESA, which is administered and enforced  
31 by the USFWS. Under the ESA, the USFWS has lead responsibility for wolves in California. The  
32 Great Lakes gray wolf DPS has also been recovered and is currently delisted.  
33

34 For species listed as endangered under the Federal ESA, activities that may result in “take” of  
35 the species are prohibited. The ESA defines "take" to mean "to harass, harm, pursue, hunt,  
36 shoot, wound, kill, trap, capture, or collect, or to attempt to engage in any such conduct."  
37

38 **MANAGEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS**

39  
40 The Department provides the recommendations below pursuant to FGC Section 2074.6 that  
41 directs the Department to include recommendations for management activities and other  
42 recommendations to aid in recovery of the species. However, the Department is currently  
43 leading the development of a California Wolf Plan, projected for completion in early 2015. This  
44 document will provide a comprehensive strategy for management of wolves in California for  
45 the future. Even though there currently are no wolves in California, the Department believes  
46 the following recommendations highlight actions that could help to conserve and manage gray

1 wolves in California if they become established in the state. Recommendations are based on  
2 scientific information on the gray wolf and are consistent with the possibility that wolves could  
3 enter and become established in California in the foreseeable future. These are preliminary  
4 recommendations based on information developed by Oregon, Washington, and USFWS for the  
5 NRM DPS. As new information becomes available, recommendations will be further refined.  
6 The recommendations are:

- 7
- 8 • Communicate to the public that natural dispersal of wolves into California is reasonable  
9 foreseeable given the expanding populations in the Pacific Northwest. Inform the public  
10 with science-based information on gray wolves and the conservation and management  
11 needs for wolves in California, as well as the effects of having wolves in the State.
- 12 • If and when wolves establish in California, seek to conserve self-sustaining populations  
13 of wolves in the State
- 14 • Manage native ungulate populations in the State to provide abundant prey for wolves  
15 and other predators, intrinsic enjoyment by the public and harvest opportunities for  
16 hunters
- 17 • Manage the distribution of wolves within the State where there is adequate habitat
- 18 • Prevent the construction of, or eliminate, barriers that would restrict the movement of  
19 wolves or their prey in California.
- 20 • Implement large scale restoration and enhancement projects that would improve  
21 habitat quality and carrying capacity of native ungulates, primarily elk and deer.
- 22 • Develop management strategies to minimize wolf-livestock conflicts
- 23 • Develop an education and outreach plan to promote public understanding of wolves  
24 and wolf conservation. Present key facts on public safety, livestock depredation, and  
25 emerging wolf science. .
- 26 • Prioritize projects that conserve large tracts of land consisting of continuous, diverse  
27 forest habitats throughout Northern and Northeastern California.

## 28 SCIENTIFIC DETERMINATIONS REGARDING THE STATUS OF THE GRAY WOLF IN 29 CALIFORNIA

30  
31 California law directs the Department to prepare this report regarding the status of the gray  
32 wolf in California based upon the best scientific information. Under the pertinent regulation, a  
33 “species shall be listed as endangered or threatened ... if the Commission determines that its  
34 continued existence is in serious danger or is threatened by any one or any combination of the  
35 following factors: (1) present or threatened modification or destruction of its habitat;  
36 (2) overexploitation; (3) predation; (4) competition; (5) disease; or (6) other natural occurrences  
37 or human-related activities.” (Cal. Code Regs., tit. 14, § 670.1, subd. (i)(1)(A).)

38  
39 Also key from a scientific standpoint are the definitions of endangered and threatened species,  
40 respectively, in the Fish and Game Code. An endangered species under CESA is one “which is in  
41 serious danger of becoming extinct throughout all, or a significant portion, of its range due to  
42 one or more causes, including loss of habitat, change in habitat, over exploitation, predation,  
43 competition, or disease.” (Fish & G. Code, § 2062.) A threatened species under CESA is one  
44 “that, although not presently threatened with extinction, is likely to become an endangered

1 species in the foreseeable future in the absence of special protection and management efforts  
2 required by [CESA]" (*Id.*, § 2067).

3  
4 The Department's scientific determinations regarding these factors as informed by, and  
5 following, independent peer review are summarized below. Because there is no current known  
6 population of gray wolves, or at the time of this status review, even a single known gray wolf in  
7 California, and because there is very little scientific knowledge available regarding historical  
8 populations that may have occurred in the state, all threats discussed are considered potential  
9 in nature. While the Department is identifying these factors, the actual significance of each as a  
10 real threat cannot be determined at this time.

11  
12 1) Present or Threatened Modification or Destruction of Habitat

- 13 • Modification or destruction of suitable denning and foraging habitat by human  
14 development (e.g. logging, or mining activities).
- 15 • Increased human access and fragmentation of suitable habitat from new road  
16 construction.
- 17 • Modification or loss of suitable denning and foraging habitat, and associated prey  
18 species from wildfire.
- 19 • Native ungulate habitat reduction in habitat quality and quantity due to non-native  
20 plant species, competition with other herbivores (wild horses, domestic livestock), fire  
21 suppression, catastrophic wild fires, broadscale herbicide application for conifer release,  
22 loss of early seral forest habitat conditions due to absence of natural disturbances  
23 (natural fire regimes, promotion of late seral forest types)

24 2) Overexploitation

- 25 • Threat of unnecessary human exploitation of wolves due to fear for personal safety.
- 26 • Threat of human exploitation of wolves due to fear, or of loss of personal property (such  
27 as pets/livestock) or poaching.
- 28 • Disturbance from ecotourism and other recreation in wolf denning and foraging  
29 habitats.

30 3) Predation

- 31 • Predation on wolves by other wildlife species would not be expected to be a significant  
32 factor influencing wolves California.

33 4) Competition

- 34 • Competition with mountain lions, bobcats, black bears, and coyotes influencing prey  
35 availability and distribution.
- 36 • Harvest of elk and deer through sport hunting.

37 5) Disease

- 38 • Risk to colonizing populations due to a zoonotic disease event (e.g., rabies, parvovirus,  
39 canine distemper).
- 40 • Risk of the transfer of diseases between domestic animals and wolves.

41 6) Other Natural Occurrences or Human-related Activities

- 1 • Risk of mortality due to roads, highways and expressways.
- 2 • Dispersal barriers to movement, genetic exchange, pair establishment, and territory
- 3 occupancy.
- 4 • Risks inherent to small populations.

5  
6 The Department is not applying these potential threats to make any inferences toward the gray  
7 wolf (Mexican wolf) that occurs in the Southwest. Because the likelihood of this animal  
8 inhabiting California is so remote, the Department's only finding is that there is no scientific  
9 information to support a status review.

## 11 **Summary of Key Findings**

12 Under the protections afforded by the Federal Endangered Species Act and the reintroduction  
13 recovery efforts since 1994, wolves are recolonizing portions of their historical range. The  
14 population has recovered in the Northern Rocky Mountains and has provided a source  
15 population for the edges of their range that is now being repopulated. Washington and Oregon  
16 have newly established populations that are expanding rapidly and making progress toward  
17 recovery goals. Oregon wolf recovery and management strategies describe population  
18 establishment statewide, and in time, establishment of wolves in California is considered  
19 possible. The habitat and prey base in California may be able to support a wolf population,  
20 based on habitat similarities with Oregon and the species' demonstrated adaptability for using  
21 a variety of habitats and prey species, but this remains uncertain, particularly with lower elk  
22 and deer densities in California. There currently is no wolf population in California for which to  
23 assess range, abundance, population trend, suitable habitat, or the potential threats.

24  
25 Wolves are adaptive in prey selection and can occupy a variety of habitat types as long as they  
26 can find remote areas to reproduce without human disturbance. Although wolves prefer elk  
27 when available, they will opportunistically take other large ungulates, other carnivore species,  
28 or smaller prey. The number of wolves that could ultimately be supported in California is  
29 unknown, as would be their impact on the prey populations and other wildlife species in  
30 California's ecosystems. Given the current expansion of wolves, and the growth of the wolf  
31 packs in Oregon, it is reasonably foreseeable that wolves will disperse into California and  
32 eventually establish reproducing packs. The Department is currently in the process of  
33 developing a California Wolf Plan with the primary goal of providing for the long-term  
34 conservation and management of wolves in the state once they establish a population or packs  
35 in California.

36  
37 A key finding is that the gray wolf is not currently facing or enduring any threat in California at  
38 this time. However, the primary threats that will face the gray wolf in California will likely be  
39 managing cohabitation with humans where there is a fear for personal safety, a threat to  
40 personal livelihood, or both; and the availability of suitable habitat and prey. Other threats that  
41 feasibly could affect colonizing wolves and sustainable wolf populations include limited  
42 competition, disease, small population size, limited genetic diversity, habitat fragmentation,  
43 road kill, human exploitation and other human disturbances. However, as seen since 1995 in  
44 the western U.S., wolves are a resilient species and can increase in numbers where adequate  
45 habitat and prey are available.

1 **LISTING RECOMMENDATION**

2 In consideration of the scientific information contained herein, the Department has determined  
3 that the petitioned action **is/is not** warranted at this time.

4 **PROTECTION AFFORDED BY LISTING**

5 In the absence of gray wolf in California, listing would provide no protection to the species. The  
6 following is a discussion of potential protection that could be afforded to the gray wolf in  
7 California if listed under CESA. While the protections identified in this section would help to  
8 ensure the future conservation of wolves if and when they enter the state, significant  
9 protections are now in place and would continue if the wolf were not listed under CESA. These  
10 include its current federal status, the focus on long-term conservation and management  
11 through the development and implementation of the California Wolf Plan currently underway,  
12 current CEQA requirements, and existing laws and regulations that make it illegal under State  
13 law to take wolves in California.

14

15 **Protection under CESA**

16 It is the policy of the State to conserve, protect, restore and enhance any endangered or any  
17 threatened species and its habitat. (Fish & G. Code, § 2052.) The conservation, protection, and  
18 enhancement of listed species and their habitat is of statewide concern (Fish & G. Code, §  
19 2051(c).) As noted earlier, CESA defines “take” as hunt, pursue, catch, capture, or kill, or  
20 attempt to hunt, pursue, catch, capture, or kill. (*Id.*, § 86.) Any person violating the take  
21 prohibition would be punishable under State law. As to authorized take, the Fish and Game  
22 Code provides the Department with related authority under certain circumstances. (*Id.*,  
23 §§ 2081, 2081.1, 2086, 2087 and 2835.) When take is authorized through an incidental take  
24 permit the impacts of the must be minimized and fully mitigated, among other requirements.

25

26 Increased protection of gray wolves following listing would also occur with required public  
27 agency environmental review under CEQA and its federal counter-part, the National  
28 Environmental Policy Act (NEPA). CEQA and NEPA both require affected public agencies to  
29 analyze and disclose project-related environmental effects, including potentially significant  
30 impacts on endangered, rare, and threatened special status species. Under CEQA’s  
31 “substantive mandate,” for example, state and local agencies in California must avoid or  
32 substantially lessen significant environmental effects to the extent feasible. With that mandate  
33 and the Department’s regulatory jurisdiction generally, the Department expects related CEQA  
34 and NEPA review will likely result in increased information regarding the status of gray wolves  
35 in California as a result of, among other things, updated occurrence and abundance information  
36 for individual projects. Where significant impacts are identified under CEQA, the Department  
37 expects project-specific required avoidance, minimization, and mitigation measures will also  
38 benefit the species. While both CEQA and NEPA would require analysis of potential impacts to  
39 wolves regardless of their listing status under CESA, the acts contain specific requirements for  
40 analyzing and mitigating impacts to listed species. In common practice, potential impacts to  
41 listed species are examined more closely in CEQA and NEPA documents than potential impacts  
42 to unlisted species. State listing, in this respect, and required consultation with the Department  
43 during state and local agency environmental review under CEQA, is also expected to benefit the

1 species in terms of related impacts for individual projects that might otherwise occur absent  
2 listing.

3  
4 If the gray wolf species is listed under CESA, it may increase the likelihood that State and  
5 Federal land and resource management agencies will allocate funds towards protection and  
6 recovery actions. However, funding for species recovery and management is limited, and there  
7 is a growing list of threatened and endangered species.

#### 8 9 **Preparers**

10 This report was prepared by R. Lee, with cartography by K. Fien and invaluable assistance from  
11 the following Department employees: D. Applebee, E. Loft, K. Smith, A. Donlan, M. Stopher, K.  
12 Kovacs, and K. Converse. The Department is grateful for the scientific peer review of the final  
13 draft of this document generously provided by [REDACTED].

#### 14 15 **Consideration of Public Comments**

16 The following is a summary of the comments received since the gray wolf was advanced to  
17 candidacy in October 2012. The Department issued a public notice seeking information related  
18 to the status of the gray wolf in California. The letters and input received is available for review  
19 at the Department of Fish and Wildlife, 1812 Ninth St., Sacramento. Comments submitted were  
20 evaluated for any scientifically-based information that would inform the Department as it  
21 related to this status assessment of the gray wolf in California.

#### 22 23 **Letters in Support of Listing**

- 24 J. Capozzelli (letter) – April 22, 2013
- 25 Battle Creek Alliance (letter) – May 5, 2013
- 26 Society for Conservation Biology (letter) – May 6, 2013
- 27 California Wolf Center (letter and 147 scientific documents) – May 6, 2013
- 28 Center for Biological Diversity (letter) – May 6, 2013
- 29 The Humane Society of the United States (letter) – May 6, 2013
- 30 Project Coyote/Animal Welfare Institute (letter) – May 6, 2013 support listing
- 31 Public Interest Coalition – May 6, 2013 (letter)
- 32 Christina Eisenberg, PhD, (letter) – May 6, 2013
- 33 >6,000 emails supporting listing

#### 34 35 **Letters Not in Support of Listing**

- 36 Jack Griffiths (letter) March 9, 2013
- 37 County of Lassen, California (Resolution) April 17, 2013
- 38 California Farm Bureau Federation, California Cattlemen’s Association, and California Wool  
39 Growers Association (letter & research article) – May 6, 2013
- 40 <100 emails opposed to listing

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46

## LITERATURE CITED

Almberg, E.S., P.C. Cross & D.W. Smith. 2010. Modeling the spatial scale and multi-host dynamics of canine distemper virus in Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem carnivores. *Ecological Applications* 20(7):2058-2074.

Almberg, E.S., D.L. Mech, P.C. Cross, DW Smith, JW Sheldon & RL Crabtree. 2011. Infectious disease in Yellowstone National Park's canid community. *Yellowstone Science*.

Arjo , W.M., D.H. Pletscher, and R.R. Ream. 2002. Dietary overlap between wolves and coyotes in Northwestern Montana. *Journal of Mammology*, 83(3):754-766.

Atwood, T.C., E.M. Gese, and K.E. Kunkel. 2007. Comparative patterns of predation by cougars and recolonizing wolves in Montana's Madison Range. *Journal of Wildlife Management*; Jun 2007; 71, 4; ProQuest Biological Science Collection, pp. 1098-1106.

Ausband, D. E., J. Holyan, and C. Mack. 2009. Longevity and adaptability of a reintroduced gray wolf. *Northwestern Naturalist* 90:44-47.

Bailey, V. 1936. The mammals and life zones of Oregon. *North American Fauna: August 1936, Number 55: pp. 1 – 348.* USDA, Bureau of Biological Survey, Washington, D.C., U.S. Govt. Print. Off. 416 pages.

Ballard, W.B. 1982. Gray wolf-brown bear relationships in the Nelchina basin of south-central Alaska. Pages 71-80 in E.H. Harrington and P.C. Paquet, editors. *Wolves of the world.* Noyes Publications, Park Ridge, New Jersey, USA.

Ballard, W.B., J.S. Whitman, and C.L. Gardner. 1987. Ecology of an exploited wolf population in South-Central Alaska. *Wildlife Monographs*, July 1987, No. 98, Wildlife Society, Washington, D.C..

Ballard, W.B., L.A. Ayres, P.R. Krausman, D.J. Reed, and S.G. Fancy. 1997. Ecology of wolves in relation to migratory caribou herd in Northwest Alaska. *Wildlife Monographs, Wildlife Society, Washington, D.C., April 1997, No. 135.*

Bangs, E. and J. Shivik 2001. Managing wolf conflict with livestock in the Northwestern United States. *Carnivore Damage Prevention News*, No. 3, July 2001, pp 2-5.

Barnowe-Meyer, K.K., P.J. White, T.L. Davis, and J.A. Byers. 2009. Predator-specific mortality of pronghorn on Yellowstone's Northern Range. *Western North American Naturalist*: 69(2), pp. 186-194.

Bartnick, T.D., T.R. Van Deelen, H.B. Quibley, and D. Craighead. 2013. Variation in cougar (*Puma concolor*) predation habits during wolf (*Canis lupus*) recovery in the southern Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem. *Can. J. Zool.* 91: 82-93.

1 Boyd, D.K., R.R. Ream, D.H. Pletscher, and M.W. Fairchild. 1994. Prey taken by colonizing wolves  
2 and numbers in the Glacier National Park Area. *J. Wildl. Manage.* 58(2):289-295.  
3

4 Boyd, D.K., P.C. Paquet, S. Donelon, R.R. Ream, D. H. Pletscher, and C.C. White. 1995.  
5 Transboundary movements of a recolonizing wolf population in the Rocky Mountains. In:  
6 Carbyn, L.N., S. H. Fritts, and D.R. Seip (eds.), *Ecology and Conservation of Wolves in a Changing*  
7 *World*. Canadian Circumpolar Institute. Edmonton: University of Alberta, pp. 135-140.  
8

9 Boyd, D.K. & D.H. Pletscher. 1999. Characteristics of Dispersal in a Colonizing Wolf Population in  
10 the Central Rocky Mountains. *Journal of Wildlife Management*, 63/4, October 1999, 1094.  
11

12 Brand, C. J., Pybus, M. J., Ballard, W. B., & Peterson, R. O. 1995. Infectious and parasitic diseases  
13 of the gray wolf and their potential effects on wolf populations in North America. *Ecology and*  
14 *Conservation of Wolves in a Changing World*, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. 419-429.  
15

16 Bruskotter, J.T., R.H. Schmidt, and T.L. Teel. 2007. Are attitudes toward wolves changing? A  
17 case study in Utah. *Biological Conservation* 139, 211-218.  
18

19 Burkholder, B.L. Movements and Behavior of a Wolf Pack in Alaska. *Journal of Wildlife*  
20 *Management*, 23, 1959, 1-11.  
21

22 Carbyn, L.N. 1974. Wolf Population Fluctuations in Jasper National Park, Alberta, Canada.  
23 *Biological Conservation* 6: 94-101.  
24

25 Carbyn, L.N. 1982. Coyote population fluctuations and spatial distribution in relation to wolf  
26 territories in Riding Mountain National Park, Manitoba. *Canadian Field Naturalist*, 96, 176-183.  
27

28 Carroll, C., R.F. Noss, N. H. Schumaker and P.C. Paquet. 2001. Is the return of the wolf,  
29 wolverine and grizzly bear to Oregon and California biologically feasible? In D. Maehr, R. Noss  
30 and J. Larken (eds.). *Large mammal restoration: ecological and sociological implications*. Island  
31 Press, Washington, D.C., pp. 25-46.  
32

33 Carroll C., M.K. Phillips, C.A. Lopez-Gonzales, Schumaker, N.H. 2006. Defining recovery goals  
34 and strategies for endangered species: the Wolf as a case study. *BioScience* 56(1): 25-37  
35

36 Cayan, Dan, M. Tyree, D. Pierce, and T. Das. 2012. *Climate Change and Sea Level Rise Scenarios*  
37 *for California Vulnerability and Adaptation Assessment*. California Energy Commission.  
38 Publication number CEC-500-2012-008.  
39

40 California Department of Forestry and Fire Protection (CDF). 2010. *California's Forests and*  
41 *Rangelands: 2010 Assessment*. Sacramento, CA. 341pp.  
42

43 California Department of Fish and Game (CDFG). 2012. Evaluation of the petition to list gray  
44 wolf, *Canis lupus*, as endangered. California Department of Fish and Game, 34 pp.  
45

- 1 California Department of Fish and Wildlife (CDFW). 2011a. Gray wolves in California: an  
2 evaluation of historic information, current conditions, potential natural re-colonization and  
3 management implications. 39 pp.  
4  
5 \_\_\_\_\_. 2011b. California Department of Fish and Wildlife wolf website:  
6 <http://www.dfg.ca.gov/wildlife/nongame/wolf/>  
7  
8 Chambers, S.M., Fain, S.R., Fazio, B., Amaral, M. 2012. An account of the taxonomy of North  
9 American wolves from morphological and genetic analyses. *North American Fauna* 77: 1–67.  
10  
11 Chavez, A.S., E. M. Gese, and R.S. Krannich. 2005. Attitudes of rural landowners toward wolves  
12 in northwestern Minnesota. *Wildlife Society Bulletin* 33(2):517-527.  
13  
14 Chen, I., J.K. Hill, R. Ohlemuller, D.B Roy, and C.D. Thomas. 2011. Rapid range shifts of species  
15 associated with high levels of climate warming. *Science* 333(6045): 1024-1026.  
16  
17 Cowan, I. M. 1947. The timber wolf in the Rocky Mountain national parks of Canada. *Can.*  
18 *J. Zool.* 25:139-174.  
19  
20 Darimont CT, Price MHH, Winchester NN, Gordon-Walker J, Paquet PC. 2004. Predators in  
21 natural fragments: foraging ecology of wolves in British Columbia’s central and north coast  
22 archipelago. *Journal of Biogeography* 31: 1867–1877.  
23  
24 Forbes, S.H. & D.K. Boyd. 1996. Genetic Variation of Naturally Colonizing Wolves in the Central  
25 Rocky Mountains. *Conservation Biology*, 10:4, August 1082-1090.  
26  
27 Fried, J. S., M. S. Torn, and E. Mills. 2004. The impact of climate change on wildfire severity: a  
28 regional forecast for northern California. *Climatic Change* 64:169-191.  
29  
30 Fritts, S.H. 1983. Record dispersal by a wolf from Minnesota. *Journal of Mammalogy* 64:166-  
31 167.  
32  
33 Fritts, S.H. and L.D. Mech. 1981. Dynamics, movements, and feeding ecology of a newly  
34 protected wolf population in Northwestern Minnesota. *Wildlife Monographs*, Wildlife Society,  
35 Washington, D.C., No. 80, October 1981, 79 pp.  
36  
37 Fritts, S.H. & L.N. Carbyn. 1995. Population Viability, Nature Reserves, and the Outlook for Gray  
38 Wolf Conservation in North America. *Restoration Ecology*, No. 3, 26-38.  
39  
40 Fritts, S.H. & L.D. Mech. 1981. Dynamics, Movements, and Feeding Ecology of a Newly  
41 Protected Wolf Population in Northwestern Minnesota. *Wildlife Monographs (Suppl.)*, Wildlife  
42 Society, Washington, D.C., No. 80, 4-79.  
43  
44 Fuller, T. 1989. Population dynamics of wolves in North-central Minnesota. *Wildlife*  
45 *Monographs*, Wildlife Society, Washington, D.C., (105) 3-41.  
46

- 1 Fuller, T. K., L. D. Mech, and J. F. Cochrane. 2003. Wolf population dynamics. Pages 161–191 in  
2 L. D. Mech and L. Boitani, editors. *Wolves: behavior, ecology, and conservation*. University of  
3 Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, USA.  
4
- 5 Geddes-Osborne, A. and M. Margolin. 2001. Man and wolf. *Defenders Magazine* 76(2): 36-41.  
6
- 7 Gese, E.M. and L.D. Mech. 1991. Dispersal of wolves (*Canis lupus*) in northeastern Minnesota.  
8 *Canadian Journal of Zoology*, 69:2946-2955.  
9
- 10 Gilman, S. E., M. C. Urban, J. Tewksbury, G. W. Gilchrist and R. D. Holt. 2010. A framework for  
11 community interactions under climate change. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 25: 325–331.  
12
- 13 Grinnell, J., J.S Dixon, and J.M. Linsdale. 1937. Fur-bearing mammals of California: their natural  
14 history, systematic status, and relations to man. Volume II. Berkeley: University of California  
15 Press.  
16
- 17 Haight, R. G. and Mech, L. David. 1997. Computer Simulation of Vasectomy for Wolf Control.  
18 *Journal of Wildlife Management*. 61(4):1023-1031.  
19
- 20 Hall, E.R. 1981. *Mammals of North America*. New York: Wiley.  
21
- 22 Hayes, R.D. 1995. Numerical and functional responses of wolves and regulation of moose in the  
23 Yukon. Master's thesis. Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, British Columbia.  
24
- 25 Hayes, R. D. & Harestad, A. S. 2000. Demography of a recovering wolf population in the Yukon.  
26 *Canadian Journal of Zoology*, 78, p. 36-48.  
27
- 28 Huggard, D. J. 1993. Prey selectivity of wolves in Banff National Park. I. Prey species. *Canadian*  
29 *Journal of Zoology* 71:130-139.  
30
- 31 Husseman, J. S., D. L. Murray, G. Power, C. Mack, C. R. Wenger, and H. Quigley. 2003. Assessing  
32 differential prey selection patterns between two sympatric large carnivores. *Oikos* 101:591-601.  
33 Inouye D.W., Barr B., Armitage K.B., Inouye B.D. 2000. Climate change is affecting altitudinal  
34 migrants and hibernating species. *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. Biol Sci.* 97: 1630–1633.  
35
- 36 Idaho Department of Fish and Game. 2013. Wildlife diseases webpage, Idaho DFG,  
37 <http://fishandgame.idaho.gov/public/wildlife/?getPage=209>  
38
- 39 Johnson, D. H., M.D. Bryant and A. H. Miller. 1948. Vertebrate animals of the Providence  
40 Mountains area of California. *University of California Publications in Zoology*. Vol. 48(5) pp. 221-  
41 376. University of California Press.  
42
- 43 Jurek, R. 1994. The former distribution of gray wolves in California. *Wildlife Management*  
44 *Division, California Department Fish and Game*. 6 pp.  
45

- 1 Koene, P., J. Ardesch, A. Ludriks, E. Urff, L. Wenzelides, and V. Wittenberg. 2002. Interpecific  
2 and intraspecific social interactions among brown bears and wolves in an enclosure. *Ursus*  
3 13:85-93.  
4
- 5 Kortello, A. D., T. E. Hurd, and D. L. Murphy. 2007. Interactions between cougars (*Puma*  
6 *concolor*) and gray wolves (*Canis lupus*) in Banff National Park, Alberta. *Ecoscience* 14:214-222.  
7
- 8 Kovacs, Karen. 2013. California Department of Fish and Wildlife, Region 1, Redding. Personal  
9 communication September 19, 2013.  
10
- 11 Kunkel, K. and D. H. Pletscher. 1999. Species specific population dynamics of cervids in a  
12 multipredator ecosystem. *Journal of Wildlife Management* 63:1082-1093.  
13
- 14 Kunkel, K. E., D. H. Pletscher, D. K. Boyd, R. R. Ream, and M. W. Fairchild. 2004. Factors  
15 correlated with foraging behavior in wolves in and near Glacier National Park, Montana.  
16 *Journal of Wildlife Management* 68:167-178.  
17
- 18 Latham, D.A., C.M. Latham, K. H Knopff, M. Hebblewhite, and S. Boutin. 2013. Wolves, white-  
19 tailed deer, and beaver; implication of seasonal prey switching for woodland caribou declines.  
20 *Ecography* 36: 001-015.  
21
- 22 Larsen T. and W.J. Ripple. 2006. Modeling gray wolf (*Canis lupus*) habitat in the Pacific  
23 Northwest, U.S.A. *Journal of Cons. Planning*, 2(1):30-61.  
24
- 25 Lenihan, J. M., D. Bachelet, R. P. Neilson, and R. Drapek. 2008. Response of vegetation  
26 distribution, ecosystem productivity, and fire to climate change scenarios for California.  
27 *Climatic Change* 87:S215-S230  
28
- 29 Levi, T. & Wilmers, C.C. 2012. Wolves-coyotes-foxes: a cascade among carnivores. *Ecology* 93:  
30 921-929.  
31
- 32 Linnell, John D. C. 2002. *The Fear of Wolves: A Review of Wolf Attacks on Humans*. NINA. ISBN  
33 82-426-1292-7.  
34
- 35 MacDonald, K. 1983. Stability of individual differences in behavior in a litter of wolf pups (*Canis*  
36 *lupus*). *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, Vol. 97, No. 2, 99-106.  
37
- 38 Mack, C. M. and K. Laudon. 1998. Idaho wolf recovery project: recovery and management of  
39 gray wolves in Idaho. Annual Report 1995-1998. Nez Perce Tribe, Department of Wildlife  
40 Management, Lapwai, Idaho. 19 pp.  
41
- 42 Martorello, D. 2013. Washinton Department of Fish and Wildlife. Personal communication.  
43
- 44 Mech, L. D. 1966. *The Wolves of Isle Royale*. National Parks Fauna Series No. 7. U.S. Gov.  
45 Printing Office. Reprinted 2002. University of the Pacific, Honolulu, Hawaii. 210 pp.  
46

- 1 Mech, L.D. 1970. The wolf: the ecology and behavior of an endangered species. Univ. of Minn.  
2 Press, Minneapolis. 384 pp.  
3
- 4 Mech, L.D. 1973. Wolf numbers in the Superior National Forest of Minnesota. United States  
5 Department of Agriculture, Forest Service Research Paper NC-97.  
6
- 7 Mech, L. D. 1974. *Canis lupus*. Mammalian species No. 37:1-6. American Society of Mammalogy.  
8
- 9 Mech, L. D. 1987. Age, season, and social aspects of wolf dispersal from a Minnesota pack.  
10 pp. 55-74 B. D. Chepko-Sade and Z. Halpin (ed.). Mammalian Dispersal Patterns.  
11 University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 342 p.  
12
- 13 Mech, L. D. 1991. The way of the wolf. Voyageur Press, Stillwater, MN. 120 p.  
14
- 15 Mech, L. D. 1993. Details of a confrontation between two wild wolves. *Canadian Journal of*  
16 *Zoology* 71:1900-1903.  
17
- 18 Mech, L.D. 2006. Estimated age structure of wolves in Northeastern Minnesota. *Journal of*  
19 *Wildlife Management* 70(5):1481-1483.  
20
- 21 Mech, L.D. 2006. Prediction Failure of a Wolf Landscape Model. *Wildlife Society Bulletin*, Oct  
22 2006; 34(3) pps 874-877.  
23
- 24 Mech, L.D., 2012. Is science in danger of sanctifying the wolf? *Biol. Conserv.* 150, 143-149.  
25
- 26 Mech L.D., and L. Boitani. 2003. Wolves: behavior, ecology, and conservation. University of  
27 Chicago Press, 472 p.  
28
- 29 Mech, L.D., and L. D. Frenzel, Jr. 1971. Ecological studies of the timber wolf in northeastern  
30 Minnesota. USDA Forest Service Research Paper NC-52. North Central Forest  
31 Experimental Station, St. Paul, Minnesota 62 pp.  
32
- 33 Mech, L.D. and S.M. Goyal. 1993. Canine Parvovirus Effect on Wolf Population Change and Pup  
34 Survival. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 29(2):330-333.  
35
- 36 Mech, L. D. and R. O. Peterson. 2003. Wolf-prey relations. pp. 131-157 in L. D. Mech and  
37 L. Boitani, (eds.) *Wolves: Behavior, Ecology, and Conservation*. University of Chicago  
38 Press. 405 p.  
39
- 40 Mech, L.D., L.G. Adams, T. J. Meier, J. W. Burch and B. W. Dale. 1998. The wolves of Denali.  
41 University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, M.N.  
42
- 43 Meier , T. J. , Burch , J. W. , Mech , L. D. , and Adams , L. G. 1995. Pack structure dynamics and  
44 genetic relatedness among wolf packs in a naturally regulated population . In *Ecology and*  
45 *Conservation of Wolves in a Changing World* , eds. L. D. Carbyn , S. H. Fritts , and D.R. Seip , pp.  
46 29 –302 . Edmonton, Alberta. Canadian Circumpolar Institute , Occasional Publication 35.

1  
2 Merck. 2013. The Merck Veterinary Manual. Overview of Infectious Canine Hepatitis.  
3 [http://www.merckmanuals.com/vet/generalized\\_conditions](http://www.merckmanuals.com/vet/generalized_conditions)  
4  
5 Mitchell, M.S., D.E. Ausband, C.A. Sime, E.E. Bangs, J.A. Gude, M.D. Jiminez, C.M. Mack, T.J.  
6 Meier, M.S. Nadeau, and D.W. Smith. 2008. Estimation of self-sustaining packs of wolves in the  
7 U.S. northern Rocky Mountains. *J. Wildlife Management* 72:881-891.  
8  
9 Mladenoff, D.J., T.A. Sickley, and A.P. Wydeven. 1999. Predicting gray wolf landscape  
10 recolonization: logistic regression models vs. new field data. *Ecological Applications* 9(1): 37-44.  
11  
12 Montana Fish, Wildlife, and Parks 2013  
13 <http://fwp.mt.gov/fishAndWildlife/management/wolf/history.html>  
14  
15 Mowat, G. 2011. *In* WDFW wolf conservation and management plan, unpublished data.  
16  
17 Murie, A. 1944. The wolves of Mount McKinley. *Fauna of the National Parks of the U.S.*, Fauna  
18 Ser., No. 5. U.S. Gov. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 238 pp.  
19  
20 Murray, D.L., D.W. Smith, E.E. Bangs, C. Mack, J.K. Oakleaf, J. Fontaine, D. Boyd, M. Jimenez, C.  
21 Niemeyer, T.J. Meier, D. Stahler, J. Holyan, V.J. Asher. 2010. Death from anthropogenic causes is  
22 partially compensatory in recovering wolf populations. *Biological Conservation* 143:2514-2524.  
23  
24 Musiani, M., H. Okarma, and W Jedrzejewski. 1998. Speed and actual distances travelled in  
25 Bialowieza Primaeval Forest (Poland). *Acta Theriologica* 43(4): 409-416.  
26  
27 Newland, M., and M. Stoyka. 2013. The pre-contact distribution of *Canis lupus* in California: A  
28 preliminary assessment. Unpubl. Draft, Sonoma State University, CA. 20 pp.  
29  
30 Nowak, R.M. 1982.  
31 Nowak RM. 1983. A perspective on the taxonomy of wolves in North America. In *Wolves in*  
32 *Canada and Alaska: their status, biology, and management*, Carbyn L.N., editor. Edmonton,  
33 Alberta: Canadian Wildlife Service, pp 10–19.  
34  
35 Nowak, R. M. 1995. Another look at wolf taxonomy. In Carbyn, L. N., S. H. Fritts, and D. R. Seip.  
36 *Ecology and Conservation of Wolves in a Changing World*. Canadian Circumpolar Institute  
37 Occasional Publication no. 35, pp. 409-416.  
38  
39 Nowak, R. M. 2002. The original status of Wolves in Eastern North America. *Southeastern*  
40 *Naturalist*, 1:95–130  
41  
42 Nowak, R. 2003. *Wolf Evolution and Taxonomy*. "In" *Wolves, Behavior, Ecology and*  
43 *Conservation*. Edited by Mech, D and Boitain, L., University of Chicago Press, University of  
44 Chicago Press.  
45  
46 Oakleaf, J. K., D. L. Murray, J. R. Oakleaf, E. E. Bangs, C. M. Mack, D. W. Smith, J. A. Fontaine, M.

- 1 D. Jimenez, T. J. Meier, and C. C. Niemeyer. 2006. Habitat selection by recolonizing wolves in  
2 the northern Rocky Mountains of the United States. *Journal of Wildlife Management* 70:554-  
3 563.
- 4
- 5 Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2005. Wolf conservation and management plan.  
6 Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife. Salem, Oregon. 116 pp.
- 7
- 8 \_\_\_\_\_. 2010. Updated wolf conservation and management plan, October 2010. Oregon  
9 Department of Fish and Wildlife. 194 pp.
- 10
- 11 \_\_\_\_\_. 2013a. Oregon Wolf Conservation and Management. 2012. Annual Report. Oregon  
12 Department of Fish and Wildlife, 3406 Cherry Ave. Salem, OR, 97303. 12 pp.
- 13
- 14 \_\_\_\_\_. 2013b. Wolf program update August 12, 2013. Oregon Department of Fish and  
15 Wildlife, 3406 Cherry Ave. Salem, OR, 97303
- 16
- 17 Packard, J., and L. D. Mech. 1980. Population regulations in wolves. pp. 135-150 *in* Cohen,  
18 M. N., R. S. Malpass, and H. G. Klein (eds.). *Biosocial mechanisms of population*  
19 *regulation*. Yale Univ. Press. New Haven, Conn. 406 pp.
- 20
- 21 Paquet, P.C. 1991. Prey use strategies of sympatric wolves and coyotes in Riding Mountain  
22 National Park, Manitoba, Canada. *Journal of Mammalogy*,. Vol. 73. No. 2, May 1992 pp. 337-  
23 343.
- 24
- 25 Paquet, P.C. and L.N. Carbyn. 1986. Wolves, *Canis lupus*, killing denning black bears, *Ursus*  
26 *americanus*, in the Riding Mountain National Park Area (Manitoba, Canada). *Canadian Field-*  
27 *Naturalist* 100:371-372.
- 28
- 29 Paquet, P.C. and L.N. Carbyn. 2003. Gray wolf: *Canis lupus* and allies. Pages 482-  
30 510 in Feldhamer, G.A., B.C. Thompson, and J.A. Chapman, eds., *Wild Mammals of North*  
31 *America*. 2nd Edition. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- 32
- 33 Paradiso, J. L., and R.M. Nowak. 1982. Wolves (*Canis lupus* and Allies). In *Wild Mammals of*  
34 *North America*, J.A. Chapman and G.A. Feldhammer, editors. John Hopkins University Press,  
35 Baltimore, Maryland, pp. 460-474.
- 36
- 37 Peters, R., and L. D. Mech. 1975. Scent-marking in wolves: A field study. *American Scientist*  
38 63(6):628-637. (Reprint in Hall, R. L., and H. S. Sharp, eds. *Wolf and man: evolution in*  
39 *parallel*, Academic Press, N. Y.).
- 40
- 41 Peterson, R.O., J.D. Woolington, and T.N. Bailey. 1984. Wolves of the Kenai Peninsula, Alaska.  
42 *Wildlife Monograph*, Wildlife Society, Washington, D.C., No 88.
- 43
- 44 Peterson, R. O. and P. Ciucci. 2003. The wolf as a carnivore. Pages 104-130 in L. D. Mech and L.  
45 Boitani, editors. *Wolves: behavior, ecology, and conservation*. University of Chicago Press,  
46 Chicago, Illinois.

1  
2 Pullainen, E. 1965. Studies of the wolf (*Canis lupus* L.) in Finland. *Annales Zoologici Fennici*  
3 2:215-219.  
4  
5 Rabb, G.B., J.H. Woolpy, and B.E. Ginsburg. 1967. Social relationships in a group of captive  
6 wolves. *American Society of Zoologists* 7(2): 305-311.  
7  
8 Ream, R. R., Fairchild , M. W., Boyd, D. K., and Pletscher , D. H. 1991. Population dynamics and  
9 home range changes in a colonizing wolf population. In *The Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem:*  
10 *Redefining America’s Wilderness Heritage*, eds. R. K. Keiter and M. S. Boyce, pp. 349 – 366. New  
11 Haven, CT : Yale University Press.  
12  
13 Rich, L.N. 2010. An assessment of territory size and the use of hunter surveys for monitoring  
14 wolves in Montana. M.S. Thesis. University of Montana, Missoula. 80 pp.  
15  
16 Ripple, W.J., Larsen, E.J., Renkin, R.A., Smith, D.W., 2001. Trophic cascades among wolves, elk,  
17 and aspen on Yellowstone National Park’s northern range. *Biol. Conserv.* (102) 227–234.  
18  
19 Ripple, W.J. and R.L. Beschta. 2004. Wolves, elk, willows, and trophic cascades in the upper  
20 Gallatin Range of Southwestern Montana, USA. *Forest ecology and management* (200) 161-181.  
21  
22 Ripple, W.J. and R.L. Beschta. 2012a. Trophic cascades in Yellowstone: the first 15 years after  
23 wolf reintroduction. *Biological Conservation* 145, 205–213.  
24  
25 Ripple, W.J. and R.L. Beschta. 2012b. Large predators limit herbivore densities in northern  
26 forest ecosystems. *European Journal of Wildlife Research*, 58:733–742.  
27  
28 Robbins, P., J. Hintz, and S.A. Moore. 2010. *Environment and society: a critical introduction*.  
29 Wiley-Blackwell, Malden, Mass., 312 pp.  
30  
31 Rogers, L. L., P. S. Beringer, R. E. Kennedy, and G. A. Wilker. 1990. Fawn predation by black  
32 bears. Page 261 in *Abstracts: 52nd Midwest Fish and Wildlife Conf.* December 2-5, 1990.  
33 Minneapolis, Minnesota. 406 pp.  
34  
35 Rothman , R. J. and Mech , L. D. 1979. Scent-marking in lone wolves and newly formed pairs.  
36 *Animal Behavior* 27 : 750 – 760 .  
37  
38 Schmidt, P. A. and L. D. Mech. 1997. Wolf pack size and food acquisition. *The American*  
39 *Naturalist* 150(4):513-517.  
40  
41 Smith, D. W. 1998. *Yellowstone wolf project: annual report, 1997.* YCR-NR-98-2, National Park  
42 Service, Yellowstone Center for Resources, Yellowstone National Park, Wyoming.  
43  
44 Smith, B.L. 2012. *Where Elk Roam: Conservation and Biopolitics of Our National Elk Herd.* Lyons  
45 Press, Guilford, Connecticut. 266 pp.  
46

1 Smith, D. W. and E. Almborg. 2007. Wolf diseases in Yellowstone National Park. *Yellowstone*  
2 *Science* 15(2):17-19.  
3

4 Smith, D. W., T. D. Drummer, K. M. Murphy, D. S. Guernsey, and S. B. Evans. 2004. Winter prey  
5 selection and estimation of wolf kill rates in Yellowstone National Park, 1995-2000. *Journal of*  
6 *Wildlife Management* 68:153-166.  
7

8 Smith, D.W., E.E. Bangs, J.K. Oakleaf, C. Mack, J. Fontaine, D. Boyd, M. Jimenez, D.H. Pletscher,  
9 C.C. Niemeyer, T.J. Meier, D.R. Stahler, J. Holyan, V.J. Asher, D. Murray. 2010. Survival of  
10 colonizing wolves in the Northern Rocky Mountains of the United States, 1982-2004. *Journal of*  
11 *Wildlife Management* 74:620-634.  
12

13 Stahler, D. R., D. W. Smith, and D. S. Guernsey. 2006. Foraging and feeding ecology of the gray  
14 wolf (*Canis lupus*): lessons from Yellowstone National Park, Wyoming, USA. *Journal of*  
15 *Nutrition* 36:1923S-1926S.  
16

17 Theberge, J.B. 1991. Ecological classification, status and management of the gray wolf,  
18 *Canis lupus*, in Canada. *Canadian Field Naturalist* 105:459-463.  
19

20 Theberge, J.B., G.J. Forbes, I.K. Barker, and T. Bollinger. 1994. Rabies in Wolves of the Great  
21 Lakes Region. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 30(4):563-566.  
22

23 Thiel, Richard P., Samuel Merrill, and L. David Mech. 1998. Tolerance by denning Wolves, *Canis*  
24 *lupus*, to human disturbance. *Canadian Field-Naturalist* 122(2): 340-342. Jamestown, ND:  
25 Northern Prairie Wildlife Research Center Home Page.  
26 <http://www.npwrc.usgs.gov/resource/2000/wolftol/wolftol.htm>.  
27

28 Thomas, C.D. 2010. Climate, climate change and range boundaries. *Diversity and Distributions*,  
29 May 2010, 16 (3): 488-495.  
30

31 Thurber, J.M. and R.O. Peterson. 1993. Effects of population density and pack size on the  
32 foraging ecology of gray wolves. *J. Mamm.* 74(4):879-889.  
33

34 Thurber, J.M., R.O. Peterson, J.D. Woolington, and J. A. Vucetich. 1992. Coyote coexistence with  
35 wolves on the Kenai Peninsula, Alaska. *Canadian Journal of Zoology*. 70(12): 2494-2498.  
36

37 Traill, L. W., C. J. A. Bradshaw, and B. W. Brook. 2007. Minimum viable population size: a  
38 metaanalysis of 30 years of published estimates. *Biological Conservation* 139:159-166.  
39

40 Traill, L. W., B. W. Brook, R. R. Frankham, and C. J. A. Bradshaw. 2010. Pragmatic population  
41 viability targets in a rapidly changing world. *Biological Conservation* 143:28-34.  
42

43 U.S Department of Agriculture (USDA). 2011. Cattle death loss (2010). National Agricultural  
44 Statistics Service (NASS), Agricultural Statistics Board, United States Department of Agriculture.  
45

1 U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service (USFS). 2004. Sierra Nevada Forest Plan  
2 amendment, record of decision. U.S. Forest Serv., Pac. Southwest Reg., Vallejo, CA.  
3  
4 U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS). 1980. Northern Rocky Mountain Wolf Recovery Plan.  
5 U.S. Fish and Wildl. Serv., Denver, Colo. 67 pp.  
6  
7 \_\_\_\_\_. 1987. Northern Rocky Mountains wolf recovery plan. USFWS, Denver, Colorado. 119 pp.  
8  
9 \_\_\_\_\_. 1994. The reintroduction of gray wolves to Yellowstone National Park and central Idaho:  
10 Final Environmental Impact Statement. U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. Denver, CO.  
11  
12 \_\_\_\_\_. 2000. Proposal to reclassify and remove the gray wolf from the list of endangered and  
13 threatened wildlife in portions of the conterminous United States. Federal Register 65(135):  
14 43449-43496.  
15  
16 \_\_\_\_\_. 2003. Endangered and threatened wildlife and plants; final rule to reclassify and remove  
17 the gray wolf from the list of endangered and threatened wildlife in portions of the  
18 conterminous United States; establishment of two special regulations for threatened gray  
19 wolves; final and proposed rules. Federal Register 68(62): 15804-15875. April 1, 2003.  
20  
21 \_\_\_\_\_. 2009. Endangered and threatened wildlife and plants; Final Rule To identify the  
22 Northern Rocky Mountain Population of gray wolf as a Distinct Population Segment and to  
23 revise the list of endangered and threatened wildlife. Federal Register 74(62): 15123-15188.  
24 April 2, 2009.  
25  
26 U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Montana Fish, Wildlife & Parks, Nez Perce Tribe, National Park  
27 Service, Blackfeet Nation, Confederated Salish and Kootenai Tribes, Wind River Tribes,  
28 Washington Department of Wildlife, Oregon Department of Wildlife, Utah Department of  
29 Natural Resources, and USDA Wildlife Services. 2011. Rocky Mountain Wolf Recovery 2010  
30 Interagency Annual Report. C.A. Sime and E. E. Bangs, eds. USFWS, Ecological Services, 585  
31 Shepard Way, Helena, Montana. 59601.  
32  
33 USFWS/APHIS/CDFG. 2012. Federal/State coordination plan for gray wolf activity in California.  
34 February 2012, 11 pp.  
35  
36 Utah Division of Wildlife Resources. 2005. Utah wolf management plan. Utah Division of  
37 Wildlife Resources publication #05-17, 81 pp.  
38  
39 Van Ballenberghe, V. 1972. Ecology, movements, and population characteristics of timber  
40 wolves in Northeastern Minnesota. University of Minnesota. 90 pp.  
41  
42 Van Ballenberghe, V. 1983. Extraterritorial movements and dispersal of wolves in southcentral  
43 Alaska. Journal of Mammology, Vol. 64, No.1, Feb (1983), pp. 1968-171.  
44  
45 Van den Hurk, B., A.K. Tank, G. Lenderink, A. van Ulden, G.J. van Oldenborgh, C. Katsman, H.  
46 van den Brink, F. Keller, J. Bessembinder, C. Burgers, G., Komen, W. Hazeleger and S. Drijfhout,

1 2006. KNMI Climate Change Scenarios 2006 for the Netherlands. KNMI Scientific Report WR  
2 2006-01.  
3  
4 Vasseur, D.A. and K.S. McCann. 2005. A mechanistic approach for modeling temperature-  
5 dependent consumer-resource dynamics. *Am. Nat.* 2005 Aug; 166(2): 184-98. Epub 2005 May  
6 17.  
7  
8 Voigt, W., J. Perner, A. Davis, T. Eggers, J. Schumacher, R. Bährmann, B. Fabian, W. Heinrich, G.  
9 Kohler, D. Lichter, R. Marstaller, and F.W. Sander. 2003. Trophic levels are differentially  
10 sensitive to climate. *Ecology*, 84(9), 2444-2453.  
11  
12 Walther, G. R., E. Post, P. Convey, A. Menzes, C. Parmesan, T.J.C. Beebee, J. M. Formentin, O.  
13 Hoeghuldberg, and F. Bairlein. 2002. Ecological responses to recent climate change. *Nature*,  
14 416:389–395.  
15  
16 Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2010. Wolf Conservation and Management Plan.  
17 State of Washington, Department of Fish and Wildlife; Wildlife Program. December 2011. 301  
18 pp.  
19  
20 Weaver, J.L., P.C. Paquet, and L.F. Ruggiero. 1994. Resilience and conservation of large  
21 carnivores in the Rocky Mountains. *Cons. Biol.*, Aug 1994, 10(4): 964-976.  
22  
23 White, C.G., P. Zager, and M.W. Gratson. 2010. Influence of Predator Harvest, Biological  
24 Factors, and Landscape on Elk Calf Survival in Idaho. *The Journal of Wildlife Management*, 74:  
25 355–369.  
26  
27 White, P.J. 2005. Northern Yellowstone elk after wolf restoration. *Wildlife Society Bulletin*, 33:  
28 942–955.  
29  
30 White, P.J., K.M. Proffitt, and T.O Lemke. 2012. Changes in elk distribution and group sizes after  
31 wolf restoration. *Am. Midl. Nat.* 167:174-187.  
32  
33 Wilmers C.C. and Getz W.M. 2005. Gray wolves as climate change buffers in Yellowstone. *PLoS*  
34 *Biol* 3(4): e92.  
35  
36 Wydeven, A. P., R. N. Schultz, and R. P. Thiel. 1995. Monitoring of a recovering gray wolf  
37 population in Wisconsin, 1979-1991. In *Ecology and conservation of wolves in a changing world*,  
38 L. N. Carbyn, S. H. Fritts, and D. R. Seip, editors. Canadian Circumpolar Institute, Edmonton, pp.  
39 147-156.  
40  
41 Young, S.P. and E.A. Goldman. 1944. *The wolves of North America*. Dover Publications, Inc.,  
42 New York, 636 p.  
43  
44 Zimen, E. 1976. On the regulation of pack size in wolves. *Zeitschrift fur Tierpsychologie* 40:300-  
45 341.  
46