

Field Guide to Aquatic Invasive Species

Identification, collection and reporting
of aquatic invasive species in Ontario waters



Algae

Plants

Invertebrates

Fishes

Copyright © 2008, Queen's Printer for Ontario
Printed in Ontario, Canada

By:

Keiko Lui
Michael Butler
Martha Allen
Jessica da Silva
Beth Brownson

Cover Photographs (left to right):

Top row - Peter W. Bergstrom, Wasyl Bakowsky,
Donald Sutherland

Middle row - Dale Westaby, Dave Britton,
Steven Pothoven

Bottom row - John Lyons, Michael Butler,
David Riecks

MNR # 52089
(1k P.R., 08 02 28)
ISBN 978-1-4249-4380-7 (Print)
ISBN 978-1-4249-7313-2 (PDF)

Field Guide to Aquatic Invasive Species

Identification, collection and reporting
of aquatic invasive species in Ontario waters

Contents

Acknowledgements

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Using The Field Guide

1.1.1 Species identification

1.1.2 Collecting specimens, recording information and reporting

1.2 Additional Information

2.0 IDENTIFICATION

Algae

Plants

Invertebrates

Fishes

3.0 REPORTING PROCEDURE

3.1 Collecting A Specimen

3.1.1 Algae

3.1.2 Plants

3.1.3 Invertebrates

3.1.4 Fishes

3.2 Recording Information

3.3 Report The Sighting

Literature Cited

Photo Index to Species

Acknowledgements

Many people helped this field guide come together and we are grateful to every one. We attempt to acknowledge each person below and regret if we have omitted anyone.

Thanks to the following for their help on assessing and prioritizing species for inclusion in the guide: Ken Allison, Eric Snyder, Claire Wilson (Canadian Food Inspection Agency, CFIA); Becky Cudmore, Nick Mandrak (Fisheries and Oceans Canada, DFO); Francine MacDonald, Heather Smith (Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters, OFAH); and April Tranter (Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources, OMNR).

We thank the following for their invaluable time and comprehensive review of various components of the field guide: Eric Snyder (CFIA); Becky Cudmore, Ron Dermott, Nick Mandrak (DFO); David Copplesstone, Francine MacDonald, Cameron Proctor, Heather Smith (OFAH); Wasyl Bakowsky, Bill Crins, Steve Kerr, Donald Sutherland (OMNR); Erling Holm (Royal Ontario Museum); Michael Berrill, Eric Sager (Trent University); Premek Hamr (Upper Canada College); Andrea Kirkwood (University of Calgary); Gerry Mackie (University of Guelph); Alistair MacKenzie (University of Toronto); Linda Corkum, Hugh MacIsaac (University of Windsor); Norman Yan (York University); David Reid (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory (GLERL)); Rochelle Sturtevant (NOAA, Great Lakes Sea Grant Network at GLERL); Duane Chapman (United States Geological Survey).

Thanks to the following for providing helpful comments: Paul Catling, Stephen Darbyshire, Jacques Cayouette (Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada); Mike Oldham (OMNR); and John Dettmers (Great Lakes Fishery Commission).

Special thanks to Cameron Procter for helping obtain images and the permissions needed. We also thank the numerous people who provided photos and illustrations and who are credited throughout the field guide.

We also wish to acknowledge vital project funding provided by Environment Canada's Invasive Alien Species Partnership Program, the Canada-Ontario Agreement Respecting the Great Lakes Basin Ecosystem, and OMNR.

Canada



1.0 INTRODUCTION

INVADING SPECIES are recognized as a serious problem threatening global biodiversity and human health worldwide and are one of the leading causes of native species becoming rare, threatened or endangered. In the Great Lakes Basin alone, nearly 200 species from around the world have been introduced and include such well known species as the sea lamprey, zebra mussel, round goby, and purple loosestrife.

Once established, it can be extremely difficult and costly to attempt to eradicate introduced species, and control measures are usually very expensive and may be harmful to the environment. Preventing the introduction in the first place is the key to preventing long-term ecosystem harm. If prevention fails, it is critical to detect invading species upon initial introduction, collect a specimen for identification, and report the sighting immediately to the appropriate agency so that appropriate actions can be taken. For invading species already present and spreading, the same need and steps apply for tracking their spread.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS FIELD GUIDE is to aid professionals in identifying aquatic invasive species (AIS), collecting specimens to confirm identification, and reporting AIS detected in Ontario waters. It is our hope that biologists, researchers, resource managers, field technicians, enforcement staff, and others who work in aquatic ecosystems and could encounter AIS will benefit from this guide. We ask for your assistance in reporting any occurrence of species new to Ontario or already present but in a new area to the Invading Species Hotline (1-800-563-7711) or website (www.invadingspecies.com), as described in section 3.0 REPORTING PROCEDURE.

A DATABASE OF AIS SIGHTINGS across the province is maintained through a partnership between the Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources (OMNR) and the Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters (OFAH), who have delivered the province-wide Invading Species Awareness Program since 1992. Information is shared with other jurisdictions and used to produce distribution maps, which are available through the hotline or website.

DEFINITIONS for alien and invading species in this field guide follow the Canadian Biodiversity Strategy (http://www.eman-rese.ca/eman/reports/publications/rt_biostrat/intro.html) and Invasive Alien Species Strategy and Action Plans for Canada (<http://www.cbin.ec.gc.ca/issues/ias.cfm?lang=e>) as follows:

Alien (introduced, non-native or exotic) species are species of plants, animals and micro-organisms introduced by human action outside their natural past or present distribution.

Invasive (or invading) species are those introduced species whose introduction or spread threatens the environment, the economy or society, including human health.

1.1 Using The Field Guide

The field guide is made with water-proof paper bound with rust-proof rings that can be opened and closed for removal or addition of pages. For example, the literature cited or other sections can be left out of the guide when taking it to the field, or new species pages can be inserted when they become available.

Organization of the field guide follows the process of identifying species, collecting information and specimens for verification, and reporting sightings. Identification of over 50 species covering algae, plants, invertebrates, and fishes is included. Each species can be found in the photo index on the back cover of the field guide.

1.1.1 Species identification

Within section 2.0 IDENTIFICATION, the species are grouped taxonomically and colour coded into algae (yellow), plants (green), invertebrates (brown), and fishes (blue). For each group (except algae), there is a glossary and illustration(s) of general morphology. Species within a group are ordered alphabetically by the first 3 letters of the family, genus and then species names as a way of numbering or ordering the pages: e.g., Ara-pis-str corresponds to *Pistia stratiotes* from the Araceae family. This way avoids complicating the order of pages in the

future when new ones are added, i.e., they can be inserted alphabetically rather than by page number.

For each species, scientific and common names, photos, diagrams, and information under seven headings, as outlined below, are provided.

DESCRIPTION: the characteristics that can be used to identify the species; those included are usually visible externally and without a magnification lens.

SIMILAR SPECIES: species in Ontario that are similar in appearance to, or might be mistaken for, the species on that sheet; includes information on how to differentiate the species.

HABITAT: a general description of the habitat in which the species could be found.

INTRODUCED RANGE: the species' introduced range with emphasis on Ontario; includes presence in other provinces, general distribution in the United States, and introductions in other parts of the world. If more detailed information on Ontario distribution is needed, refer to www.invadingspecies.com or the literature cited. Information under this heading reflects distributions at the time of developing this guide, based on the most recent literature or database information available. It should be noted that AIS ranges continuously change as they continue to be introduced and spread.

NATIVE RANGE: the continent or region of the world where the species is native.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: the means through which a species can be transferred from one location to another by human-related activity (e.g., release of aquarium pets into waterways, transport of AIS between waterbodies via recreational boating, etc.). Note: natural means may also help spread these species but are not listed here (e.g., plankton and most aquatic plants can disperse via water currents).

IMPACTS: a general description of potential or documented impacts.

The information presented here is meant to help with species identification and detection, and as a general context for the species. It is not meant as a comprehensive literature review. Footnoted numbers in the text correspond to literature cited, found at the end of this guide.

1.1.2 Collecting specimens, recording information and reporting

Section 3.0 REPORTING PROCEDURE describes methods for collecting algae, plants, invertebrates, and fishes, what information to record and the process for submitting your information and specimen. To confirm a sighting, a specimen is needed for verification by experts (and might be retained in a collection as a voucher).

1.2 Additional Information

For more information on AIS, the Invading Species Awareness Program, or to request copies of the field guide and find out whether updated or new pages are available, call the Invading Species Hotline (1-800-563-7711), visit www.invadingspecies.com or email invading_species@ofah.org.

If you are interested in species-specific monitoring guidelines, you may also refer to the hotline/website/email. Standard guidelines for volunteer monitoring of zebra mussel, spiny water flea, fanwort, rusty crayfish, red mysid, and round goby are available.

2.0 IDENTIFICATION

Algae

Plants

Invertebrates

Fishes

Didymo

Didymosphenia geminata



Photos: Andrea Kirkwood

DESCRIPTION: Freshwater diatom, a type of single-celled algae, which produces mucilage and polysaccharide stalks that attach to rocks, plants or other submerged surfaces; individual diatoms can divide to form new diatoms and colonies. **Size:** individual cells are microscopic, but colonies of the diatom are visible to the naked eye; stalk produced is much longer in length than the cell itself (greater than 90% of visible biomass is stalk material). **Appearance:** stalks are brownish yellow to white in colour; colonies or mats of didymo may look like sewage sludge or wet tissue paper. **Texture:** appears slimy but to the touch it feels like wet cotton wool.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Other stalked diatoms such as *Gomphonema* spp. can produce similar growth characteristics, but never reach bloom-levels like didymo, nor feel like wet-wool. Under the microscope, they are often an order-of-magnitude smaller than didymo cells, and possess only a single stigma (a type of cell opening) compared to 3-5 stigmata in didymo.⁴

HABITAT: Shallow waters of streams and rivers with high light exposure, in temperatures between 4-27°C, pH of 7 or above, and low nutrient but possibly nutrient-rich waters; attaches to rocks, vegetation or other substrates that are stable^{1,2}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not known in Ontario, to date; in Canada, it has spread to Alberta and a first bloom in Québec occurred in 2006 in the Lower St. Lawrence region. It is also found in New Zealand.^{1,5}

NATIVE RANGE: Possibly northern Europe, parts of Asia, and northern North America up to British Columbia (only) in Canada^{1,2,5}.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: A single cell introduced to a waterbody can multiply to form new colonies. It can spread between waterbodies by attaching to boats, boat trailers and other equipment like fishing gear, diving equipment and waders, especially neoprene and felt-soled waders¹.

IMPACTS: Didymo algae blooms occur in streams and rivers, covering benthic substrate with up to 3 cm thick mats which can reach over 1 km in length. Massive blooms likely have a negative effect on community composition of benthic organisms of invertebrates and plants which use the same substrates for habitat. Mats can clog water intake pipes as well as foul water craft (e.g., boats) and equipment (e.g., fishing and scuba gear). Also, because the mats appear as sewage sludge or toilet paper along shorelines, there are concerns over aesthetics and water use in terms of tourism and recreational water usage. Swimmers have had eye irritations that might be associated with the diatom.^{1,2,5}

ARACEAE / Arum Family

Water Lettuce

Pistia stratiotes

Other common name: None



Photo: Ann Murray, University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

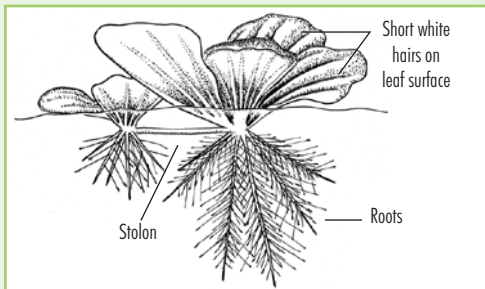


Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants



Photo: Richard Old

DESCRIPTION: Free-floating, perennial or annual aquatic plant. **Leaves:** floating, or nearly erect, several forming a rosette, without stems; blade simple, spongy, light green, having short white hairs, prominent nearly parallel ridges (veins), leaf rounded above and narrowed at the base, 2-20 cm in length. **Flowers:** inconspicuous, small, white to pale green, on small stalk from rosette; solitary female flower

below and single whorl of male flowers above. **Fruit:** green berry, turning brown at maturity. **Stolons:** extend outward from plant to produce new plants (rosettes). **Roots:** submersed, numerous, hanging beneath rosette of leaves to 50 cm in length.¹

SIMILAR SPECIES: None.

HABITAT: Slow moving waters, in streams, rivers, lakes, ponds, canals, and wet ditches¹. Typically a plant of warmer climates but can act as an annual in colder environments, its seed overwintering and then germinating into new plants when temperatures warm².

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, ephemeral occurrences have been found in ponds connected to the Rideau Canal in Ottawa³ and along the Welland River in Niagara Region in recent years⁴. In the United States, water lettuce is most abundant in the southeastern states but has been recorded for the Erie Canal in New York, Lake Erie in Ohio, and during 1997-2000 it occurred in Lake Winona in Minnesota^{2,5}. It is also found throughout the tropics and subtropics¹.

NATIVE RANGE: Probably South America, Africa, and Asia^{2,6,7}.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Water lettuce first arrived in North America in the mid-1700's, likely through dumping of ship ballast water⁷. It is used as an ornamental plant of ponds and outdoor water gardens where it may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. Water lettuce can spread between waterbodies via plant material, such as rosettes or seeds, transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear).

IMPACTS: Forms dense and large floating mats, restricting water flow in irrigation and flood control canals, and interfering with recreational activities (e.g., boating, fishing)². The mats can also prevent sunlight penetration into water and reduce oxygen levels of water underneath, potentially effecting phytoplankton as well as fish communities⁸.

Mosquito Fern

Azolla pinnata

Other common names: Ferny azolla, pinnate mosquito fern



Photos: David Nicholls

DESCRIPTION*: Free-floating, annual aquatic fern.

Plants: *A. pinnata* is green, sometimes red in colour, up to 2.5 x 2 cm in size, broadly triangular in shape, 2-pinnate branching, with secondary branchlets decreasing in length to base of main branch¹. **Leaves:** minute and scale-like, alternate, overlapping, in 2 rows or 2-lobed, upper lobe green with minute hairs and in *A. pinnata*, ovate and 1-2 mm long^{1,2}. **Stems:** branched, 1-5 cm, bearing roots^{1,3}.

Roots: to 5 cm long, with lateral rootlets in *A. pinnata*¹.

SIMILAR SPECIES: Watermosses (*Salvinia* spp: Sal-sal-spp in this guide), introduced to North America but not yet known from Canada, have larger (to 4 cm diameter), simple, rounded leaves compared to mosquito fern with leaves minute (1-2 mm), scale-like and overlapping, and the plant appearing triangular in shape^{1,2,4,5}. Native duckweeds (*Spirodela polyrhiza*, *Lemna trisulca*, *Lemna minor*) have leaves that lack hairs and have short, unbranched roots compared to mosquito fern with minute upper leaf hairs and roots with lateral rootlets^{2,6}.

HABITAT: Quiet waters of ponds and lakes^{1,2}. Shallow waters are ideal but *Azolla* also grows at greater depths. The plants cannot survive drought much longer than a few days. They may survive a wide temperature range from -5 to 35°C and a wide pH range of 3.5-10 depending on light intensity and temperature⁷.

INTRODUCED RANGE: *A. pinnata* is not known from Ontario or Canada, to date. Found in Papua New Guinea, Australia, China, Japan, New Zealand, and Vietnam⁸.

NATIVE RANGE: Asia and Africa⁷.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The species is used as an ornamental plant of ponds and outdoor water gardens where it may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. It may also be sold as an aquarium plant or arrive as contaminants in imports of other aquatic horticultural plants^{9,10}, and subsequently escape into the environment through dumping of aquarium contents into waterways. It can spread between waterbodies via plant fragments that are transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear). This plant material can give rise to new plants and populations by multiplying vegetatively. In addition, because *Azolla* lives in symbiosis with blue-green alga enabling nitrogen fixation at substantial rates, it is applied in many parts of the world as a biofertilizer of agricultural crops such as rice and wheat⁷, thereby representing another potential pathway for escape.

IMPACTS: Forms extensive growth, with red-coloured mats covering large surface areas of water¹. It is capable of reducing light intensity as much as 90% as well as reducing photosynthesis and more than 50% of oxygen concentrations in water⁷. Altering habitat in these ways is likely to effect the growth of other plants in the water column requiring sunlight as well as other organisms reliant on oxygen and or submerged vegetation for shelter.

*Unless *A. pinnata* is specified, a general description of the family and its single genus, *Azolla*, is provided here because (1) Ontario contains only isolated and rare occurrences of the native *A. caroliniana* and no other *Azolla* spp.^{11,12,13}, (2) both *A. pinnata* and *A. caroliniana* are available through the horticultural trade representing a pathway of introduction^{9,10}, and (3) identifying *Azolla* specimens to species is complicated, typically requiring characteristics be viewed through an electron microscope^{3,14}, therefore, any plant found that is suspected of being a species in this family should be collected and reported as per section 3.0 REPORTING PROCEDURE in this guide.

Azo-azo-pin

BUTOMACEAE / Flowering Rush Family

Flowering Rush

Butomus umbellatus

Other common name: None

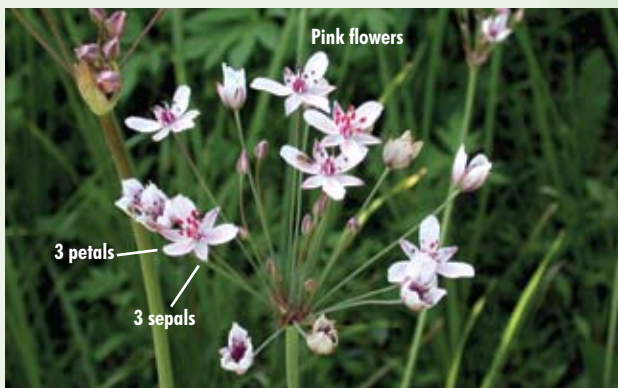


Photo: Wasyl Bakowsky



Photo: Nick Proulx

Leaf triangular in cross-section

Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants



DESCRIPTION: Emergent, with submergent forms, perennial aquatic plant. **Leaves:** erect, floating or submersed, arising from a rhizome, not differentiated into blade and petiole, linear, up to 2.7 m long, 5-10 mm wide, parallel-veined, blade triangular in cross-section, tip usually spiraling^{1,2}. **Flowers:** emergent, perfect, pink, 2-2.5 cm wide, pedicels 5-10 cm long; sepals 3, petals 3,

But-but-umb

stamens 9, pistils 6; numerous flowers per inflorescence, borne on an erect, leafless, flowering stalk to 1.5 m tall (or taller). Flowers during summer and fall^{1,2}. **Fruit:** long-beaks, in a whorl³; may contain either hundreds of seeds if from population with fertile plants or no seed if from population of sterile plants⁴. **Bulbils:** pea-sized vegetative propagules borne on rhizomes and inflorescences, detach and disperse through water; can develop into new plant^{5,6}.

SIMILAR SPECIES: None. However, when flowers are absent, flowering rush superficially resembles some native bur-reeds (*Sparganium* spp.) except the leaves of flowering rush tend to spiral at leaf tips.

HABITAT: Shallow water, to 2 m deep in lakes, rivers, marshes, ponds, and wet ditches^{2,3}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, occurs throughout Lakes Erie, St. Clair and Ontario, as well as in western St. Lawrence River, Severn River and the Winnipeg River system^{4,7,8}. Occurs in southern Québec and sparsely across the Canadian provinces as well as in northern United States⁹.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia².

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Flowering rush was first recorded in 1897 along the St. Lawrence River in Québec¹⁰. It is used as an ornamental plant of ponds and outdoor water gardens where it may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. It can spread between waterbodies via dispersal of seeds, rhizome fragments and bulbils transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment. Any of this plant material is capable of growing into a new plant^{4,6,11}.

IMPACTS: May displace native riparian vegetation and hinder recreational uses of water^{12,13}.

Fanwort

Cabomba caroliniana

Other common name: Cabomba



Photo: Donald A. Sutherland



Photo: Sam Brinker

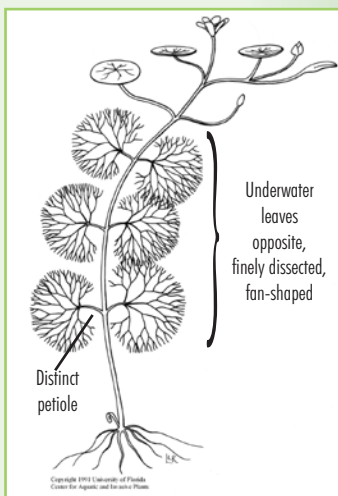


Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

DESCRIPTION: Submerged, perennial, rooted aquatic plant. **Submersed leaves:** opposite or (rarely) whorled, on petioles to 15 mm in length; leaf blade palmately and finely dissected, fan-shaped, less than 6 cm broad^{1,2}. **Floating leaves:** alternate, small, inconspicuous, on short to long petioles; leaf blade linear or oblong to 30 mm in length, margins entire; borne on flowering branches². **Flowers:** usually emergent, occasionally submersed, small, 6-15 mm diameter on long flower stalk, borne singly; sepals 3, petals 3, white to pale yellow in colour and may include a pink or purplish tinge; stamens 3-6, pistils 2-4; yellow centre. Flowers between late spring and early fall². **Main stem:** typically under 2 m and growing at water surface in Ontario, but reported up to 10 m tall elsewhere; branched, green-reddish in colour, white or reddish-brown hairs^{3,4,5}.

SIMILAR SPECIES: Bladderwort (*Utricularia vulgaris*), white water crowfoot (*Ranunculus aquatilis*), Northern water-milfoil (*M. sibiricum* = *exalbensis*), water marigold (*Megalodonta beckii*), coontail (*Ceratophyllum demersum*): however, only fanwort has the opposite, finely dissected, fan-shaped leaves on distinct petioles¹.

HABITAT: Rooted in silty substrate of stagnant to slow flowing waters in streams, small rivers, ponds, lakes, and ditches⁴. Occurs in permanent shallow water, usually less than 3 m but up to about 5 m deep in Ontario^{3,5}. Prefers low pH (4-6) but may be found in alkaline waters⁴. The plant is able to overwinter and exist beneath heavy ice, retaining green leaves to spring⁶.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the Crowe River watershed north of Peterborough is the only known occurrence in Canada, to date⁷. It is found in northeastern and southern United States, with occurrences in northwestern states⁸. Elsewhere, it occurs in India, Japan, Malaysia, and Australia^{4,9}.

NATIVE RANGE: Subtropic and temperate regions of South America⁴.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The first report of fanwort in Ontario (and Canada) was in 1991⁷. The source of this introduction is not known but it is commonly sold as an aquarium plant and can escape into the environment through dumping of aquarium contents into waterways. Also, it can spread between waterbodies via plant fragments that attach to boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear). A fragment of stem with a pair of expanded leaves can grow into a new plant¹⁰.

IMPACTS: Fanwort is extremely persistent. It can form dense stands, displacing native vegetation, clogging drainage canals and streams, and interfering with recreational uses like swimming and boating. The plant can significantly reduce water storage capacity and taint drinking water supplies.^{5,11}

European Lake Sedge

Carex acutiformis

Other common name: Lesser pond sedge



Photo: John Wilde

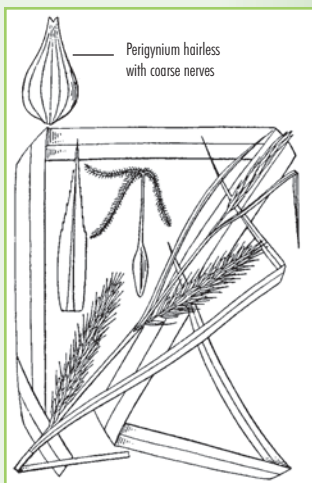


Illustration: From Britton, N.L. and A. Brown. 1913. Illustrated flora of the northern states and Canada. Vol. 1: 420.

DESCRIPTION: A large sedge, i.e., grass-like plant, often growing to 1 m in height or more. **Leaves:** plicate (M-shaped in cross-section), 5.5-15 mm in width. **Stems:** triangular in cross section. **Perigynium** (sac-like structure enclosing the 1-seeded fruit of *Carex*): hairless, coarsely 12- to 18- nerved (i.e., having simple but obvious veins) and 3-4.5 mm in length¹. Fruiting in this species occurs between June and August².

SIMILAR SPECIES: Sedges differ from grasses in that they have triangular stems in cross section, as opposed to grasses which have round stems. While sedges are in general a difficult group of plants to identify, *C. acutiformis* can be distinguished from other similar large wetland sedge species by the combination of plicate leaves (M-shaped in cross-section vs. V-shaped in other species) 5.5-15 mm in width and perigynium that is hairless, coarsely 12- to 18- nerved and 3-4.5 mm in length¹. Further, the leaves of this plant remain green longer into the fall and after frost than many native sedges.¹

HABITAT: Wide range of wetlands such as swamps and marshes, as well as wet open thickets, sedge meadows and lakeshores². In Ontario, it is found in swamp with permanent water up to 50 cm deep as well as in some adjacent drier areas³.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the species is present in Stony Swamp, near Ottawa, which is the only known occurrence in Canada, to date¹. It is present in six states in the northeastern United States².

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia and Africa².

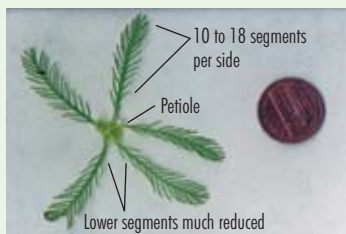
PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: European lake sedge was first collected in Ontario near Ottawa in 1987. It is suspected that the plant was introduced to the Ottawa area through hay from Europe. There are concerns that it may spread from roadside ditches where it occurs. The seeds, rhizome and root masses of the plant may attach to animals or possibly road maintenance equipment/vehicles passing through a stand of this plant.¹

IMPACTS: European lake sedge is able to dominate habitat area. The plant's dense leaf growth and extensive rhizome development enable it to effectively expand, compete for light and suppress other species.¹

Parrotfeather

Myriophyllum aquaticum

Other common names: Brazilian watermilfoil, water-feather



Photos: Peter W. Bergstrom,
National Oceanic and
Atmospheric Administration/
Department of Commerce.

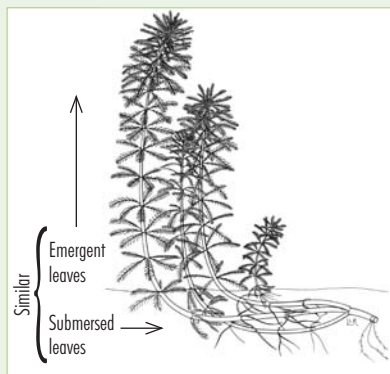


Illustration:
University of
Florida/IFAS Center
for Aquatic and
Invasive Plants

DESCRIPTION: Submerged, perennial aquatic plant.

Leaves: whorled, bright green in colour, feather-like, pinnately divided with 10-18 thread-like segments along each side, the lower segments much reduced, petiole 5-7 mm; emergent and submersed leaves alike, emergent leaves usually 2.5-3.5 cm long with segments 4-8 mm

long^{1,2,3}. **Flowers:** inconspicuous, in axils of emergent leaves (or bracts), forming terminal spike above water; uppermost flowers opposite or whorled; male and female flowers on different plants; only female, white flowers are known to occur in North America. Flowering occurs in spring and sometimes fall.^{1,3,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Introduced Eurasian water-milfoil (*M. spicatum*: Hal-myr-spi in this guide) lacks leaf petioles or has petioles <2 mm and pink flowers compared to parrotfeather with distinct petioles and white flowers³. Native Northern water-milfoil (*M. sibiricum* = *exalbenscens*) has leaves with 11 or fewer segments on each side of axis, not 10-18 as in parrotfeather. Additionally, the emergent leaves that are conspicuous and similar to submersed leaves in parrotfeather distinguish the species from other *Myriophyllum* species. Native coontails (*Ceratophyllum demersum*, *C. echinatum*) have leaves that are dichotomously divided rather than pinnately as in parrotfeather.²

HABITAT: Shallow waters of ponds, lakes, streams and ditches².

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, parrotfeather previously occurred in isolated ponds in Midhurst but was eradicated in 2006⁵. It is found in the Fraser Valley of British Columbia, numerous states in the United States and in Africa, Australia, Europe, Indonesia, Mediterranean, New Zealand, and South Africa^{6,7,8}.

NATIVE RANGE: South America¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Because it is commonly sold as an aquarium plant, parrotfeather can escape into the environment through dumping of aquarium contents into waterways. It can spread between waterbodies via plant fragments that attach to boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear), and which can give rise to new plants.

IMPACTS: Forms dense stands over large areas, shading out other organisms, interfering with irrigation and drainage canals, and restricting recreational activities⁴.

Eurasian Water-Milfoil

Myriophyllum spicatum

Other common name: None



Photo: Iowa Department of Natural Resources



Photo: John Hardy, University of Wisconsin - Stevens Point Department of Biology

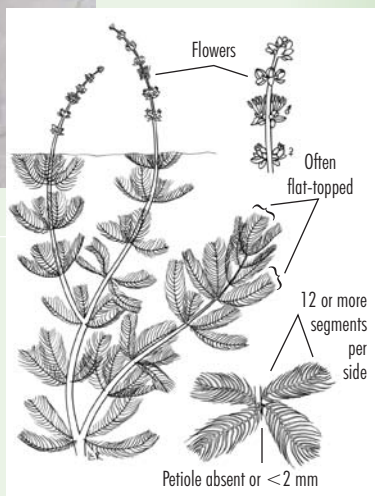


Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

DESCRIPTION: Submerged, perennial aquatic plant.

Leaves: whorled, feather-like, pinnately divided with 12 or more thread-like segments along each side, petiole absent or less than 2 mm^{1,2}. **Flowers:** emergent, on terminal spike above water, about 5-20 cm long, upper flowers male and lower flowers female, pink, in 3-10 whorls; bracts usually equal to twice (but no more) the length of female flowers. Flowers between late July and early August.³ **Stem:** leafy shoot, 0.5-7 m long, branching especially at water surface; tips usually reddish, stem below the inflorescence thicker to almost double the width of the lower stem, usually curved to lie parallel with the water surface^{1,2,3}.

SIMILAR SPECIES: Parrotfeather (*M. aquaticum*: Hal-my-r-aqu in this guide), introduced to North America but not currently in Ontario, can be distinguished from other

Myriophyllum spp. by its emergent and submersed leaves which are similar¹; parrotfeather also has longer petioles and white flowers compared to Eurasian water-milfoil with petioles absent or <2 mm and pink flowers². Native Northern water-milfoil (*M. sibiricum* = *exalbesens*) has leaves with 11 or fewer segments on each side of axis, forms turions and the stem below the inflorescence is same in width as the lower stem compared to Eurasian water-milfoil where it is thicker to twice the width, turions are not formed and leaves have 12 or more segments per side. In addition, knob-like, shoot tips of crowded leaves are diagnostic of Northern water-milfoil but not always present. Native coontails (*Ceratophyllum demersum*, *C. echinatum*) have leaves that are dichotomously divided rather than pinnately as in Eurasian water-milfoil.^{1,3,4}

HABITAT: Most common in 1-3 m deep water of lakes, rivers and ponds, but can occur at depths up to 10 m. It can be found in alkaline or acid waters. It flourishes in high nutrient environments but also can be found in nutrient poor waters.^{1,3}

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, it occurs in the Great Lakes and southern Ontario, to coastal Georgian Bay on the southern Canadian Shield^{2,5,6}. It is also found in southwestern Québec, the St. Lawrence River system, British Columbia, and throughout much of the United States^{2,7}.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The species was introduced to North America in the late 19th century and first recorded in Canada from Lake Erie in 1961. Initial introductions may have been from shipping ballast or aquarium release. It can spread between waterbodies via plant material that attaches to boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear), and which can give rise to new plants.³

IMPACTS: Forms dense stands with entangled branches near water surface over large areas, suppressing native vegetation and impeding water traffic and recreation^{3,8,9}. The plant may hybridize with native milfoils and possibly create more vigorous or aggressive forms of the invasive plant¹⁰.

Brazilian Waterweed

Egeria densa

Other common names: Brazilian Elodea, waterweed



Photo: Ann Murray, University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

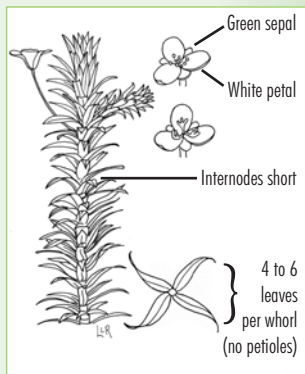


Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

DESCRIPTION: Submerged, perennial, rooted aquatic plant. **Leaves:** submersed, lowest leaves opposite or whorls of 3, smaller in size than middle and upper leaves in whorls of 4 to 6 and 12-40 mm long by 1.7-5 mm wide; attached to stem without a petiole; leaf margins minutely toothed requiring a hand lens to view; internodes short^{1,2}. **Flowers:** emergent, producing nectar, extend to surface by slender stalk, male and female flowers on separate plants; 3 green sepals, 3 white petals 4-11 mm in length, petals much longer than sepals. Flowers during summer and fall.^{1,2,3} **Stems:** erect, rooted in substrate, branched or unbranched, 1-3 mm diameter, up to 2 m in length^{1,3,4}.

SIMILAR SPECIES: Resembles native waterweeds (*Elodea canadensis*, *E. nuttallii*) but leaves are shorter and opposite or 3 in a whorl, flowers lack nectaries, and petals are about the same size as sepals, compared to Brazilian waterweed with main leaves 4-6 in a whorl, flowers with nectaries, and petals much longer than sepals¹. Aquarium plants Hydrilla (*Hydrilla verticillata*: Hyd-hyd-ver in this guide), introduced to North America but not yet Canada, and narrow leaf anacharis (*Egeria najas*), not introduced, have leaf margins distinctly toothed which can be seen with the

naked eye compared to the minutely toothed leaf margins of Brazilian waterweed (which require magnification to view). Additionally, Hydrilla has prickles on its lower leaf surface and fringed stipules with orange-brown hairs while the other species do not⁵. Hydrilla also lacks nectaries and has petals and sepals about the same in size¹.

HABITAT: Shallow waters of lakes, streams, ponds, and ditches^{3,6}. It is more common in warm-temperate and cool subtropical conditions but is capable of surviving winter^{1,4}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not known from Ontario, to date; in Canada, it is reported from southwestern British Columbia¹. Found in many states in the United States, central America, South Africa, Australia, Europe, and Japan⁴.

NATIVE RANGE: South America⁴.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The species was introduced to North America in the late 19th century and first recorded in Canada from Vancouver Island in 1974^{1,7}. It is commonly sold as an aquarium plant and also is widely used in teaching botany classes and plant research (because of its cellular structure), where it may subsequently escape into the environment through dumping of aquarium contents into waterways^{1,3,7}. It can spread between waterbodies via plant fragments that attach to boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear), and which can give rise to new plants.

IMPACTS: Forms dense monoculture stands over very large areas, restricting water movement, trapping sediment, and interfering with recreational uses, e.g., boating, fishing, swimming, and water skiing⁷.

European Frog-Bit

Hydrocharis morsus-ranae

Other common name: Common frog-bit



Photo: Michigan Sea Grant, www.mseagrant.umich.edu



Photo: Wasył Bakowsky

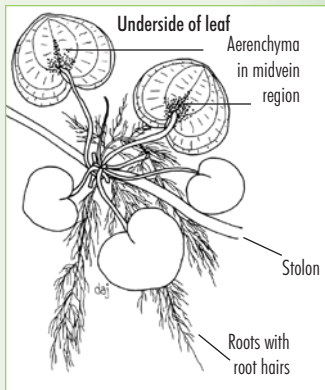


Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

DESCRIPTION: Free-floating, or rooted when on mud, perennial aquatic plant. **Leaves:** floating, forming a rosette; differentiated into blade and petiole, blade round or heart-shaped, up to about 6 cm wide, aerenchyma on underside of leaf in midvein region (not margin to margin); two lateral stipules (appendages) up to 2.5 cm long and free from the leaf petiole base^{1,2,3}. **Flowers:** emergent, male and female flowers on different plants; 3 green sepals; 3 white to pinkish petals, up to about 2 cm and 2-3 times the length of the sepals; male flowers 1-5 per inflorescence, pedicel to 4 cm, stamens 9-12; female flowers solitary, pedicel to 9 cm, styles 6. Flowers between spring and fall.^{1,3,4} **Fruits:** spherical, many-seeded berry^{1,5}. **Stolons:** lateral, below water surface or soft mud, produces terminal buds which develop a single root and give rise to new rosettes². **Turions:** modified stolon buds about 1 cm long, detach and overwinter on lake floor, then surface in spring to form new plants². **Roots:** unbranched, up to 50 cm long, with numerous root hairs^{1,3}.

SIMILAR SPECIES: North American frog-bit (*Limnobium spongia*) has aerenchyma on lower leaf surface from

margin to margin, a single stipule from leaf petiole base, and flower petals under 1.5 times the length of sepals compared to European frog-bit with aerenchyma confined to the midvein region, stipules in pairs, and petals 2 to 3 times the length of sepals^{1,2}. Native water-shield (*Brasenia schreberi*) has mucilaginous coating under water, stems arising from creeping rhizome, leaves not forming a rosette, and purplish flowers while European frog-bit has white to pinkish flowers, leaves forming a rosette and no mucilaginous coating^{4,6}.

HABITAT: Generally in areas with limited wave action, slow moving water, sheltered inlets, ponds, rivers, and ditches^{3,7}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the plant occurs in the St. Lawrence River to Lake Ontario, through the Kawartha Lakes, the Rideau and Ottawa Rivers systems, and some other inland waterbodies, with occurrences along Lakes Erie and St. Clair^{3,8,9}. It is also spreading northward with numerous occurrences scattered at sites throughout the southern margin of the Canadian Shield¹⁰. It is found across southwestern Québec and the St. Lawrence River, and in New York and Vermont^{5,8}.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: European frog-bit was originally introduced to an arboretum at the Central Experimental Farm in Ottawa in 1932, and then observed in the adjacent Rideau Canal in 1939¹¹. The plant can spread between waterbodies via dispersal of seeds, plant fragments and turions that are transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear). Turions and fragments of stem with stolon buds are capable of growing into new plants³.

IMPACTS: Forms large, dense, floating mats of intertwining plants, reducing native submerged plant cover by diminishing light and competing for gases and nutrients; European frog-bit also impedes water flow and traffic, and recreational activities^{3,7,8}.

Hydrilla

Hydrilla verticillata

Other common names: Water thyme, water weed, Florida elodea



Photo: Vic Ramey, University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

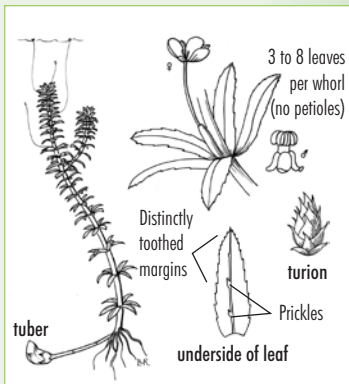


Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants



Photo: Maryland Department of Natural Resources

DESCRIPTION: Submerged, perennial, rooted aquatic plant. **Leaves:** submersed, 3-8 in a whorl, attached to stem without petioles; blade linear, 8-20 mm long, 1.2-4 mm wide; margins with prominent, sharp teeth and sometimes prickles on midvein of lower leaf surface readily seen with naked eye; stipules in leaf axis fringed with orange-brown hairs; internode as long as the leaves and up to 50 mm long^{1,2,3}. **Flowers:** small, male and female flowers on separate or same plants, petals 3, sepals 3; male flowers short stalked, solitary or in pairs in leaf axils, petals and sepals about 2-3 mm long and whitish to reddish in colour, released underwater as buds, floating to water surface to open; female flowers with petals and sepals

up to 4 mm long, white or light green with red streaks, extend to water surface on slender stalk to 10 cm in length. Flowers during summer and fall.^{2,4,5,6} **Stems:** erect, rooted in substrate, branched or unbranched, elongate, bearing turions². **Turions:** those from rhizomes are brownish with a smooth surface; those from erect stems are green and with scales².

SIMILAR SPECIES: Resembles native waterweeds (*Elodea canadensis*, *E. nuttallii*) and introduced Brazilian waterweed (*Egeria densa*: Hyd-ege-den in this guide), except Hydrilla has distinctly toothed leaf margins readily seen with naked eye. Presence of prickles on lower leaf surface and fringed stipules with orange-brown hairs also distinguish Hydrilla from these species as well as narrow leaf anacharis (*Egeria najas*) which is not known from North America but imported through the aquarium trade.³

HABITAT: Rivers, lakes, ponds, streams, and wet ditches, in shallow waters up to about 50 cm deep but also at depths over 7 m^{1,4,5,6}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not known from Ontario or Canada, to date⁷. Present in the United States but largely absent from the central states⁸. Found on every continent except Antarctica⁹.

NATIVE RANGE: Asia⁴.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Hydrilla is available as an aquarium plant and may escape into the environment through dumping of aquarium contents into waterways. It can spread between waterbodies via plant fragments and turions that attach to boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear). A fragment of stem as well as turions are able to grow into new plants⁴.

IMPACTS: Forms tall and dense stands in the water column, potentially displacing other aquatic organisms, impeding water flow, boating traffic, swimming, fishing, and other recreational activities as well as clogging irrigation pump filters^{5,9}.

IRIDACEAE / Iris Family

Yellow Iris

Iris pseudacorus

Other common name: Yellow flag



Photos: Wasył Bakowsky

DESCRIPTION: Emergent, perennial aquatic plant. **Leaves:** erect, simple, linear, sword-shaped, 40-100 cm by 2-3 cm, parallel-veined, arising from rhizomes^{1,2}. **Flowers:** bright yellow, 7-9 cm wide; sepals 3, spreading, with brown markings, 5-7.5 cm by 3-4 cm, much larger than petals; petals 3, erect, 2-3 cm; 4-12 flowered-inflorescence. Flowers between April and July.^{1,2,3} **Fruit:** capsule, 3- or 6-angled, 3.5-8.5 cm, beaked^{1,2}. **Stems:** solid, 70-150 cm tall². **Rhizomes:** pink, freely branching, 1-4 cm diameter, with

remains of old leaves. **Roots:** fleshy, about 10-30 cm long.^{2,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: In North America, iris plants with flowers entirely yellow belong only to *I. pseudacorus*. When only leafy material is present and flowers are absent, yellow iris resembles native blue flag (*I. versicolor*), which often is purplish in colour around the leaf base, and has shorter stems (20-60 cm) and typically smaller leaves (10-80 cm by 1-3 cm) than yellow iris.²

HABITAT: Wetlands, and shallow water along streams, rivers, ponds, and lakes^{1,5}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Occurrences through southern Ontario and parts of southern Canada^{3,6,7}. It is widespread through most of the United States⁸.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia⁵.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Likely introduced as an ornamental garden plant, the earliest record of yellow iris occurring in Canada was from Newfoundland in 1911; by 1940, it was observed in Ontario³. It is used as an ornamental plant of ponds and outdoor water gardens where it may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. It can spread between waterbodies via rhizome fragments and possibly fruit or seed that are transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear).

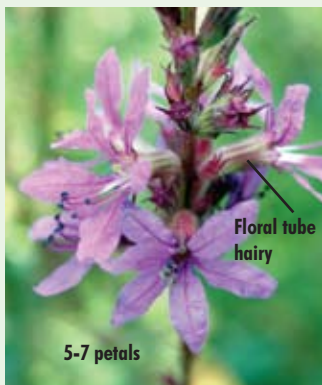
IMPACTS: Yellow iris can form dense stands, particularly with very thick rhizome mats; it may displace native vegetation and convert habitat from a wet to drier environment⁹. The plant causes poisoning in animals if rhizomes are ingested or plant juices make skin contact; in humans, general symptoms of poisoning include blistering¹⁰.

LYTHRACEAE / Loosestrife Family

Purple Loosestrife

Lythrum salicaria

Other common name: Spike loosestrife



Photos: Dave Britton



Leaves opposite or whorled
Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants



DESCRIPTION: Emergent, perennial wetland plant.

Leaves: opposite or whorled, 3-10 cm long, without petiole, lance-shaped to egg-shaped^{1,2}. **Flowers:** in axillary clusters of 2 or more, forming terminal spike-like inflorescence; floral tube hairy; petals 5-7, pink-purple in colour, 5-12.5 mm long, stamens 10-14. Flowering occurs from July to October^{1,2,3}. **Stem:** erect, hairy or not, angular or squarish; reaches over 2 m tall; numerous stems arising from a common rootstock^{1,4,5}.

SIMILAR SPECIES: Native winged loosestrife (*Lythrum alatum*), a much smaller plant, has alternate leaves on upper

stem with small, solitary flowers in leaf axils and floral tubes without hair compared to purple loosestrife which has floral tubes with hair and flowers located terminally (at the ends of stalks) in clusters in the axils of opposite/whorled leaves^{1,2,3}. Pickerel-weed (*Pontederia cordata*) has leaves which are basal, long-petioled and heart-shaped compared to opposite/whorled, without a petiole and lance- to egg-shaped, in purple loosestrife^{1,2,4}. Swamp loosestrife (*Decodon verticillatus*) leaves are short-petioled, flowers do not form a terminal spike, and its stem is arching and rooting at tips².

HABITAT: Marshes, floodplains, river and stream margins, wet ditches and fields^{2,3}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, it is abundant throughout the St. Lawrence River and Great Lakes basin¹; occurrences are scattered further north, in the vicinity of towns including Timmins, Geraldton and Sioux Lookout⁶; scattered occurrences on the Rainy River clay plain in western Ontario⁷. Present in all other provinces and, in the United States, it is present in most states^{1,8}.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia⁴.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Purple loosestrife arrived in Canada in the early 19th century: possible sources include unloading of solid ship ballast containing seed, imported wool or sheep with attached seeds, or deliberate introductions for medicinal purposes or as a nectar and pollen source in beekeeping¹. It is also used as an ornamental plant of ponds and outdoor water gardens where it may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. It can spread between waterbodies via plant material such as root buds or tiny seeds which can attach to, and be transported with, boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear).

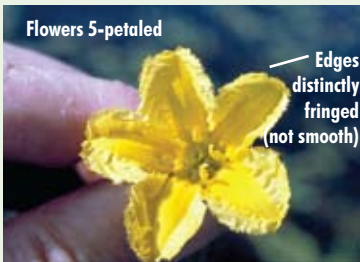
IMPACTS: Forms dense monocultural stands over very large areas, threatening wetland habitat and communities, potentially affecting decomposition rates and nutrient cycling, and reducing or displacing (directly or indirectly) native species of plants, birds and invertebrates^{5,9,10}.

MENYANTHACEAE / Buckbean Family

Yellow Floating Heart

Nymphoides peltata

Other common names: Fringed water lily, floating heart



Photos: Fred Hrusa

Flowers occur with
pair of opposite leaves



DESCRIPTION: Floating, perennial, rooted aquatic plant. **Leaves:** floating, simple, heart-shaped to almost circular, 3-10 cm broad, with long leaf stalk arising from underwater rhizomes; short-petioled leaves occur as a pair of opposite leaves and with yellow flowers just above^{1,2}. **Flowers:** occur at water surface, bright yellow in colour, 2-4 cm in diameter; 5-petaled with edges distinctly fringed. Flowers between June and October.^{3,4} **Fruit:** strongly beaked, 12-25 mm².

SIMILAR SPECIES: The bright yellow flowers with the pair of opposite leaves in this species distinguish it from other *Nymphoides* spp. in northeastern North America². Superficially, it is similar to native yellow pond and bullhead lilies (*Nuphar variegatum*, *N. advena*) which have yellow flowers but lack the fringed petal edges of yellow floating heart.

HABITAT: Prefers quiet waters, slow moving rivers, lakes, ponds, and canals; it can grow on damp mud and water to 4 m deep^{1,3}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the only known location of yellow floating heart is Ottawa, in ponds connected to the Rideau Canal^{5,6}. It is found in Québec⁷ and recently in Dartmouth, Nova Scotia⁸. It also occurs in several states in the United States⁷, and in New Zealand⁹.

NATIVE RANGE: Southern Europe and Asia⁴.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Yellow floating heart was first introduced to the United States in the late 19th century, likely as an ornamental garden plant⁴. It is still used as an ornamental plant of ponds and outdoor water gardens where it may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape to new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. It can spread between waterbodies via plant fragments and possibly fruit or seed that are transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear).

IMPACTS: Grows in dense patches, forming floating mats that can exclude native species, create stagnant water with low oxygen levels beneath mats, and interfere with recreational activities such as fishing, boating, and swimming¹.

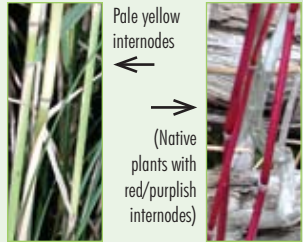
European Common Reed

Phragmites australis subsp. *australis*

Other common names: Phragmites, common reed, common reed grass, giant reed



Photo: Michigan Sea Grant, www.miseagrant.umich.edu



Photos: Wasył Bakowsky

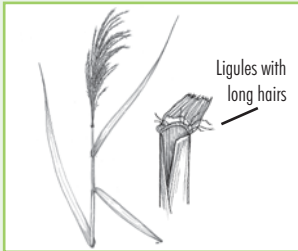


Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

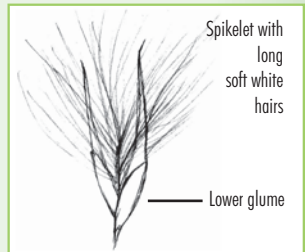


Illustration: Jessica da Silva

DESCRIPTION: Extremely tall, emergent, perennial grass growing in dense stands. **Leaves:** alternate, flat, elongate, gradually tapering to a point, 15-40 cm long, 2-4 cm wide^{1,2}. **Ligules:** about 1 mm, somewhat translucent, thin, fraying into short matted hairs; longer hairs at the collar^{2,3}. **Stem (culm):** erect, hollow, 1-4 m tall, 0.5-1.5 cm thick, from rhizome; internodes at culm base a pale yellow in summer to late fall^{1,2,4,5}. **Inflorescence:** terminal, dense, large, 5-35 cm long, 8-20 cm wide, many-branched with spikelets of 3-10 flowers; long soft white hairs give a feathery appearance to inflorescence; glumes (or bracts) smooth, lower glume of spikelet 2.6-4.2 mm long^{1,2,5}. Flowers in late summer and early fall⁶.

SIMILAR SPECIES: Native subspecies *P. australis* subsp. *americanus* has red or purplish internodes at the base of the plant and a longer lower glume, 3.8-7 mm, compared

to a 2.6-4.2 mm glume and yellow basal internodes in subsp. *australis*⁵. Native wild-rice (*Zizania* spp.) lacks the feathery-appearing inflorescence and has 1-flowered spikelets with no glumes compared to phragmites with feathery inflorescence, glumes present and many-flowered spikelets³. Ornamental plume-grass (*Miscanthus* spp.) is another introduced, tall perennial grass but its leaf blades are sharply toothed unlike phragmites³. Ornamental giant reed (*Arundo donax*) grows to 10 m, much taller than phragmites, and has glumes with soft whitish hairs, 6-8 mm long, while phragmites glumes are hairless^{2,6}.

HABITAT: Wide range, in shallow waters of brackish as well as freshwater wetlands, streambanks, lakeshores, wet fields and ditches^{7,8,9,10}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Southern Ontario, with scattered occurrences as far north as Georgian Bay and Lake Superior¹¹. Common throughout southern Québec, and present in Alberta, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia^{11,12}. Found throughout much of the United States^{13,14}.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia^{13,14}.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The species was probably introduced by dumping of solid ship ballast, which contained the plant, along the Atlantic Coast in the early 19th century¹³. In more recent times, phragmites has been planted for wetland rehabilitation and stabilization¹⁵, and may be sold through the horticultural trade as an ornamental plant: because the native and introduced subspecies are very similar and were only recently recognized as distinct from one another, the introduced type may also be available commercially. Consequently, *P. australis* subsp. *australis* may be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. It can spread between waterbodies via dispersal of seeds and rhizome or stolon fragments transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment.

IMPACTS: Forms large monocultural stands, displacing native wetland vegetation, reducing plant species richness, and threatening habitat of rare species, species at risk and other wetland species^{7,8,9,10,14,16,17}.

PONTEDERIACEAE / Pickerel-Weed Family

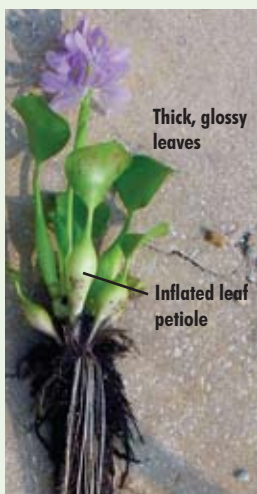
Water Hyacinth

Eichhornia crassipes

Other common name: None



Photo: Vic Ramey, University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants



Photos (bottom): Richard Old

DESCRIPTION: Free-floating, perennial aquatic plant. **Leaves:** floating or emergent, forming a rosette; blade thick, glossy, egg-shaped to round, up to 11 x 9.5 cm in size; petiole 3.5-33 cm, usually swollen (inflated); stipule 2.5-14 cm^{1,2}. **Flowers:** emergent, showy, violet-blue colour, one tepal with darkened middle area and yellow spot within; tepals 6, 16-37 mm, margins entire; stamens 6, up to 35 mm in length; 4-15 flowers per inflorescence^{2,3}.

Flowers between early spring and late fall². **Stolons:** extend outward from plant to produce new plants (rosettes) which readily break apart from one another^{1,4}. **Roots:** submersed, numerous, hanging beneath rosette¹.

SIMILAR SPECIES: None.

HABITAT: Ponds, rivers, canals and wet ditches, particularly in nutrient rich waters; survives large fluctuations in water levels^{3,4}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not currently known from Ontario; however, in 2004 only, two plants were found at Buckhorn Lake, which is one of the Kawartha Lakes in Peterborough County (it is not believed to have persisted there)⁵. Occurs in the United States, but largely absent from the central states⁶. Found in Asia, Africa, India, and Australia⁷.

NATIVE RANGE: South America⁴.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: It is used as an ornamental plant of ponds and outdoor water gardens where it may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. It can spread between water bodies via plant material such as rosettes or seeds that are transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear).

IMPACTS: In other parts of the world, water hyacinth grows and spreads rapidly over very large areas in a short time period forming continuous, dense floating mats sometimes up to 2 m thick; oxygen levels in the water are reduced under mats, native species are displaced, water flow and traffic are impeded, irrigation canals are blocked, and hydroelectric and water treatment plants are hindered as are recreational activities like fishing^{4,8}.

Curly-Leaved Pondweed

Potamogeton crispus

Other common name: Curly pondweed



Photo: Peter W. Bergstrom, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration/Department of Commerce

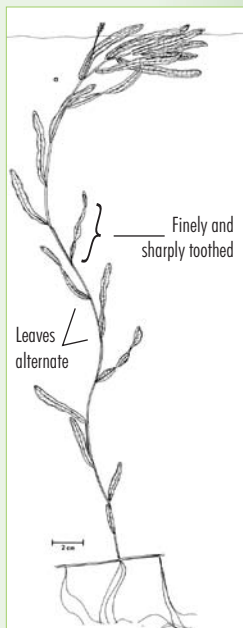


Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

DESCRIPTION: Submerged, perennial, rooted aquatic plant. **Leaves:** submersed, alternate, oblong, rounded at apex, green to red brown in colour, 3-8 cm long, 0.75-1.5 cm wide in spring and early summer but more narrow, 0.5-0.75 cm, in winter and early spring; distinct margins that are undulating (wavy), finely and sharply toothed^{1,2,3}. **Flowers:** emergent, small, red-brown in colour, several to many, stalkless on terminal spike. Flowers between May and June.^{1,3,4} **Fruit:** curved beak to 2 mm long¹.

SIMILAR SPECIES: None. The oblong leaves with curly and toothed edges of this species distinguish it from other aquatic plants in Canada³.

HABITAT: Freshwater lakes, rivers, streams, ponds, ditches, and canals, but also brackish waters; rooted in silt or clay, and sometimes gravel or sand^{2,3,4}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Found in southern Ontario, southern Canadian Shield, and Georgian Bay-Severn River area^{3,5}. Also occurs in southwestern Québec, southern British Columbia, Alberta, sparsely in south-central Saskatchewan, and recently in a pond in southern New Brunswick, as well as most of the United States, parts of Central and South America, Africa, and Australia^{2,3,4,6,7}.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia².

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The pathway by which the species was first introduced to North America in the mid-1800's and to Canada, in Toronto, near the end of the 19th century, is not known³. In some places, intentional planting of curly-leaved pondweed for waterfowl and wildlife habitat has occurred⁸. The plant can spread between waterbodies via plant material such as plant fragments or fruit that are transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear).

IMPACTS: Forms dense stands which cover and dominate large areas, crowding out other species, impeding water flow, restricting recreational activities in the water, and potentially altering oxygen levels with impacts on fish³.

Watermoss - *Salvinia* spp.

Eared watermoss (giant salvinia)

Salvinia auriculata

Water fern (water spangles)

Salvinia minima

Giant salvinia (kariba weed, water fern)

Salvinia molesta

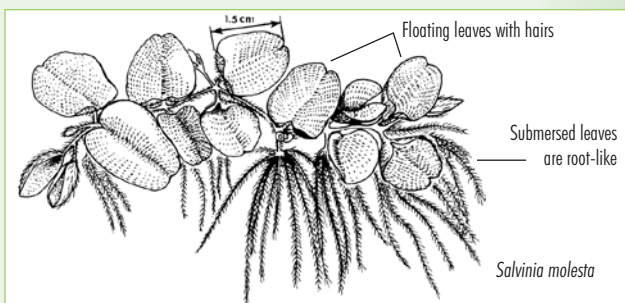
Floating watermoss (eared watermoss)

Salvinia natans



Photo: Vic Ramey, University of Florida/
IFAS Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants

Illustration: University of Florida/IFAS
Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants



DESCRIPTION*: Small, free-floating, annual or perennial aquatic ferns. **Leaves:** 3 in a whorl, but appearing paired with 2 floating and 1 submersed. Floating leaves green, simple, rounded, up to 4 cm in diameter, flat, entire, short-petioled or without, upper surface with erect, forked hairs. Submersed leaves root-like, finely dissected, with petiole.^{1,2,3} **Stems:** creeping, branched, bearing hairs¹. **Roots:** no true roots¹.

SIMILAR SPECIES: Native duckweeds (*Spirodela polyrrhiza*, *Lemna trisulca*, *Lemna minor*) are much smaller, have leaves that lack hairs and have short, unbranched roots, whereas the floating leaves of *Salvinia* have upper surface hairs and plants lack true roots^{1,3,4}. Non-native mosquito fern (*Azolla pinnata*: Azo-azo-pin in this guide) has minute leaves (1-2 mm), scale-like and overlapping, and plants appear triangular in shape compared to *Salvinia* with leaves larger (to 4 cm diameter), simple and rounded^{1,2,3,5}.

HABITAT: Generally found in open and still waters, flood canals, rivers, lakes, reservoirs, and swamps^{2,3}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not known from Ontario or Canada, to date. Some species reported in northeastern states (*S. minima* and *S. natans* in New York and Massachusetts), southern states (*S. minima*, *S. molesta*), and Puerto Rico (*S. auriculata*)⁶. Found mostly in tropical and sub-tropical regions of the world¹.

NATIVE RANGE: Warm temperate to tropical regions of the world⁷.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD:

Watermosses are used as ornamental plants of ponds and outdoor water gardens where they may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. They may also be sold as aquarium plants or arrive as contaminants in imports of other aquatic horticultural plants⁸, and subsequently escape into the environment through dumping of aquarium contents into waterways. They can spread between waterbodies via plant fragments that are transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear). This plant material can give rise to new plants and populations by multiplying vegetatively.

IMPACTS: Invasions of *S. molesta* in other parts of the world have involved hundreds of square kilometres of water covered in continuous, dense floating mats of the plant sometimes up to 1 m thick, severely impacting the aquatic ecosystem (habitat, community, species, nutrients) and essential means of transportation, food, water, livelihood, etc.².

*A general description of the family and its single genus, *Salvinia*, is provided here because (1) identifying specimens to species is complicated, requiring identification of very small characteristics under magnification, and (2) although possibly 4 species occur in North America (3 introduced, 1 native to Mexico), none are known from Ontario or Canada, to date^{1,6,9}, therefore, any plant found that is suspected of being a species in this family should be collected and reported as per section 3.0 REPORTING PROCEDURE in this guide.

European Water Chestnut

Trapa natans

Other common names: Water chestnut, water nut, water-caltrop

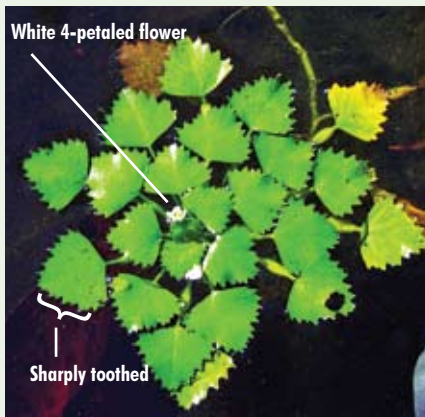


Photo: Michael D. Naylor, Maryland Department of Natural Resources



Photo: Daniel Brunton

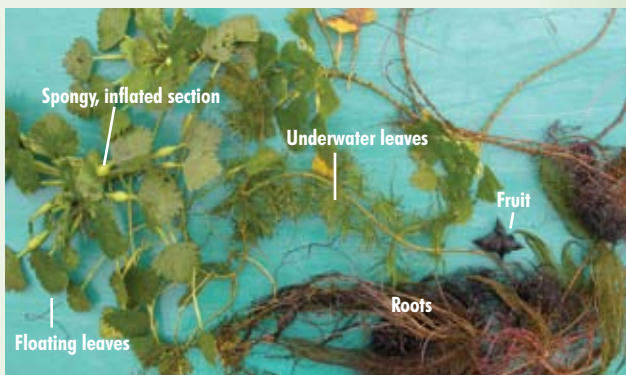


Photo: Stéphane M. Bailleul

DESCRIPTION: Floating, annual aquatic plant, rooted in substrate or free-floating¹. **Floating leaves:** alternate, forming densely crowded rosette up to 30 cm in diameter; blade rhomboid, 2-5 cm wide, margins sharply toothed; elongate petioles to 15 cm long, with spongy, swollen section^{1,2,3}. **Submersed leaves:** opposite, finely dissected, feather-like^{3,4}. **Flowers:** emergent, perfect, regular; 4 white petals, 8 mm long; borne in axils of floating leaves on short flower stalk¹. Flowering can begin in the summer

and occur until frost arrives⁴. **Fruit:** “woody” nut, 3-4 cm wide, with 4 sharp barbed spines^{1,3}. **Stem:** submersed portion up to 5 m but usually 1 m long, elongate internodes with underwater feather-like leaves and sometimes bearing slender, unbranched roots; emergent portion short, bearing rosette of leaves^{1,2,4}.

SIMILAR SPECIES: None.

HABITAT: Lakes, rivers, streams, ponds with soft substrate, full sun, and nutrient-rich waters; most abundant in 2 m deep water but can be found in water up to 4 m deep².

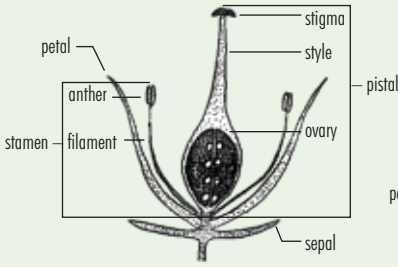
INTRODUCED RANGE: Recently established in Ontario, in a bay connected to the Ottawa River in Voyageur Provincial Park⁵; also found in southwestern Québec along Rivière du Sud^{4,6}. It is found in northeastern United States², as close as the south shore of Lake Ontario in New York and the Lake Champlain watershed of New York and Vermont⁴.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia and Africa¹.

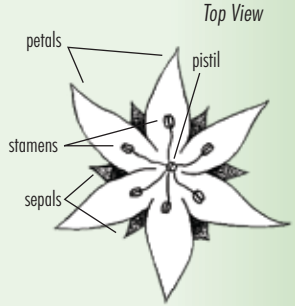
PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: European water chestnut was first introduced to the United States in the late 19th century, likely as an ornamental garden plant. The first record in Canada was from southwestern Québec in 1998⁴. The fruit has been used for medicinal purposes (e.g., rheumatism, sunburn)⁴ and, as well, the plant is used as an ornamental of ponds and outdoor water gardens where it may intentionally be planted near or along shorelines and escape into new areas as plant material is discarded into a waterway and/or carried off by flooding during rain events. It can spread between waterbodies via plant material such as fragments, fruits or seeds that are transported with boats, boat trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear).

IMPACTS: Forms dense, large floating mats, shading out submerged plants and other organisms, and interfering with recreational activities such as boating, fishing and swimming; the hard nut with barbed spines which accumulate on shore can cause injury when stepped on².

Parts of a Typical Flower

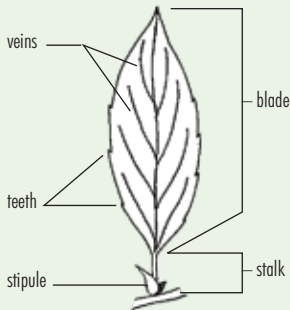


Cross-section; Side View

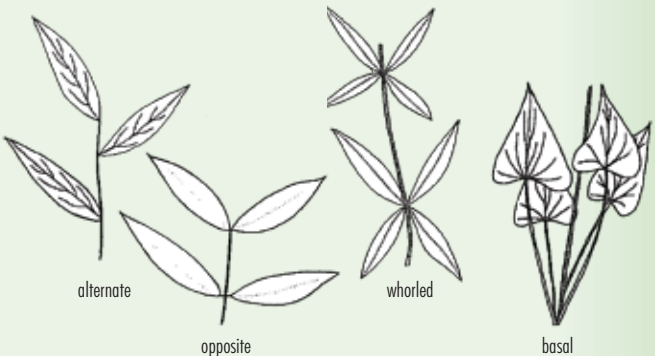


Top View

Parts of a Typical Leaf



Leaf Arrangement



From: S.G. Newmaster, A.G. Harris, and L.J. Kershaw. 1997. Wetland Plants of Ontario. Lone Pine Publishing and Queen's Printer for Ontario. Edmonton, Alberta.

Glossary

AERENCHYMA – type of plant tissue with thin-walled cells containing large intercellular spaces

ANNUAL – a plant that completes its life cycle in one year – germinating from seed, flowering, setting seed, and dying in one growing season

APEX – a tip

AXILLARY – in an axil, e.g., the angle between leaf and stem

AXIS – central line along which lateral parts of the plant are arranged

BEAK – a comparatively short and stout terminal appendage on a thickened organ like a seed or fruit

BIENNIAL – requiring two years to complete its life cycle, usually involving vegetative growth in the first year and reproduction (flowering, fruiting) and senescence (death) in the second year

BRACT – a specialized, reduced leaf associated with a flower or flower cluster

BULBIL – a small, bulb-like structure (vegetative propagule) produced by some plants in the axils of leaves, inflorescences or rhizomes

CULM – a plant stem

DICHOTOMOUS(LY) – forking in pairs

DISSECTED – divided into many small segments

ELONGATE – considerably longer than wide

EMERGENT – partly submersed in water, partly above water surface

ENTIRE – a continuous edge without teeth or lobes

EPHEMERAL – not permanent; existing for a short time

GLUME – one of a pair of bracts, found at the base of a grass spikelet, which do not subtend flowers

INFLORESCENCE – a flower cluster; the arrangement of flowers on the axis

INTERNODE – the part of a stem between two nodes

LIGULE – collar-like appendage at the upper edge of a leaf sheath

LINEAR – very long and narrow, with parallel edges

MIDVEIN – the central vein of a leaf

NECTARY – a gland that secretes nectar

NODE – the place where a leaf or branch is attached to a stem

OBLONG – shaped like a geometrical rectangle (other than a square)

PALMATE(LY) – lobes or leaf segments radiating from a common point

PEDICEL – the stalk of a single flower in an inflorescence

PERENNIAL – a plant that lives for more than two years

PERFECT – describes a single flower that has both male (stamen) and female (pistil) reproductive organs

PETIOLE – a leaf stalk

PINNATE(LY) – leaflets (or segments) arranged on two sides of an axis

PLICATE – having folds, usually lengthwise

PRICKLE – a sharp outgrowth

REGULAR – describes a flower that is symmetrical when divided in half or into equal parts through the middle

RHIZOME – an underground stem, usually elongate

RIPARIAN – adjacent to a river or stream, including shores and floodplains

ROSETTE – a cluster of leaves or other organs radiating from a centre point

SIMPLE – not divided or branched into parts

SPIKE – an elongate inflorescence with stalkless flowers

SPIKELET – the smallest unit of an inflorescence

STIPULE – an appendage at the base of a leaf stalk, usually leaf-like

STOLON – an elongate, creeping stem spreading horizontally on the surface of the ground, usually rooting at nodes or tips

SUBMERGED (SUBMERSED) – under water

TEPAL – a sepal or petal; the term is applied when these structures are not easily distinguished from one another

TERMINAL – at the end, or tip of

TURION – a winter bud; sometimes a scaly, bulb-like growth from a bud on a rhizome or other vegetative organ

WHORL – a ring of 3 or more similar structures (e.g., leaves) radiating from a node or common point

References:

- Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America, Volume 2: Angiosperms: Monocotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin.
- Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York.
- Newmaster, S.G., A.G. Harris, and L.J. Kershaw. 1997. Wetland plants of Ontario. Lone Pine Publishing and Queen's Printer for Ontario. Edmonton, Alberta.

Channeled Apple Snail

Pomacea canaliculata

Other common names: Golden apple snail, miracle snail, canaliculate apple snail



Photo: David Britton



Photo: David Britton

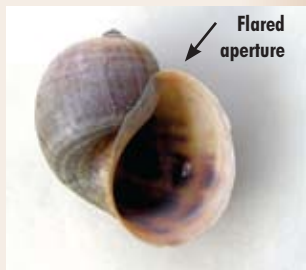


Photo: Bill Frank

DESCRIPTION: Largest freshwater snail in North America; amphibious gastropod with siphon for breathing while submerged. **Size:** very large, shell height 45-75 mm. **Shape:** spherical shell with 5-6 rounded whorls, deep indents between whorls, and deeply channelled growth lines. Shell may appear dented. **Colour:** shell color generally brownish or greenish but can vary from dark, almost black, to pale cream, often with spiral banding patterns around the whorls. **Operculum:** flared aperture, ear-shaped operculum with concentric growth lines. **Eggs:** conspicuous pink egg masses on plant or other structures above water surface often first sign of channelled apple snail.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Invasive banded and Chinese mysterysnails (*Viviparus georgianus* and *Cipangopaludina chinensis*: Viv-viv-geo and Viv-cip-chi in this guide) might resemble a channelled apple snail but they are less spherical in shape and usually much smaller¹. Other species of apple snail in the southern United States are very similar and may be difficult to separate because of high colour variation within species³.

HABITAT: Found in lakes, ponds, canals, and swamps⁴. Able to breathe in water as well as on land, and can survive burrowed in mud for long periods of drought^{1,2,5}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not known from Ontario or Canada, to date⁶. In the United States, it occurs in several southern states including Alabama, Florida, Texas, California, and Hawaii^{7,8}. Also documented in Dominican Republic, Asia, Guam, Papua New Guinea, and Taiwan³.

NATIVE RANGE: South America, including Brazil, Bolivia, and Argentina³.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD:

Deliberately introduced into the aquaculture industry for food in the United States⁵; consumed in Canada, but only through the imported frozen food industry. The snail is also available in North America through the aquarium industry. Deliberate or unintentional introductions of snail eggs or adults may be associated with the aquaculture or aquarium industries². Bait buckets, live wells, bilge water, boat hulls/motors/trailers, and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear), which could potentially be contaminated with snails, may help in their transport and spread between waterbodies.

IMPACTS: Feeds voraciously on aquatic plants, can modify habitat, and is a serious wetland agricultural pest threatening the taro crop industry in Hawaii and rice production in Asia^{5,9,10,11,12}. The snail also serves as a vector for bacteria and parasites, which potentially includes a nematode parasite causing meningoencephalitis in humans².

CAMBARIDAE / Crayfish Family

Rusty Crayfish

Orconectes rusticus

Other common name: None

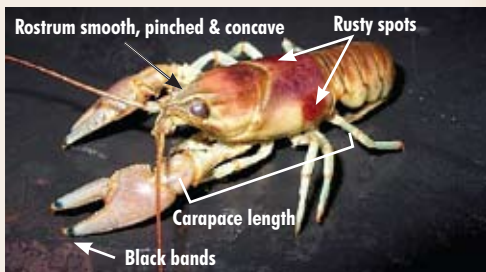


Photo: Dale Westaby

Lateral view of 1st copulatory stylet



Photo: Premek Hamr

Underside of male



Photo: Michael Butler

DESCRIPTION: Large, aggressive crustacean. **Size:** carapace length 14–45 mm (up to 54 mm). **Body features:** hard carapace covers head and thorax. Rostrum pinched and distinctly concave; upper surface smooth. 5 pairs of thoracic legs; last pair modified into large claws. First copulatory stylet (of male) is straight to slightly curved; processes are fairly long (almost $\frac{1}{2}$ total length of stylet) and uneven in length. **Colour:** variable, rusty patches on either side of carapace might be prominent; also red stripes along abdominal segments might be present. Black bands on claws tips usually distinctive.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Native northern clearwater crayfish (*O. propinquus*) has a small yet distinctive ridge on the upper surface of a pinched rostrum, lacks rusty spots on the carapace and black bands on the claws, and the copulatory stylets are relatively short and stubby; however, this species can hybridize with rusty crayfish, obscuring some distinguishing characteristics. Native virile crayfish

(*O. virilis*) has a mottled pattern on its back, lacks a pinched rostrum, and has very long stylets (processes $\geq \frac{1}{2}$ total length of stylet). Introduced obscure crayfish (*O. obscurus*) also lacks the pinched rostrum and black claw bands, and has very short stylets (processes $< \frac{1}{2}$ total length of stylet).¹

HABITAT: Occurs in a wide range of habitats including wetlands, ponds, lakes, and rivers; prefers areas with rocks and logs, with clay silt and gravel bottoms. Reproduction occurs above 5°C^{4,5}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: First documented in Ontario in the early 1960's, it now occurs throughout southcentral and southeastern Ontario (including Manitoulin Island, Magnetawan River, Kawartha Lakes drainage, Ottawa drainage), as well as in some northwestern regions of the province^{1,5,6,7,8}. It is reported in western Québec and southwestern New Brunswick². In the United States, its range has expanded as far west as North and South Dakota, east to Maine, and south to New Mexico⁴. Not known to occur outside North America.

NATIVE RANGE: Ohio River system running through Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, and Illinois, in the United States⁴.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Release or escape of unused rusty crayfish from bait buckets and fishing lines are thought to be primary pathways. The species may have been stocked in some lakes for commercial harvest. Aquarium releases of rusty crayfish collected as pets may occur as well as releases of rusty crayfish distributed as specimens through the scientific supply trade⁴.

IMPACTS: Competes with native crayfish and fish for resources, consuming invertebrates and large amounts of vegetation, reducing local invertebrate abundance and macrophyte biomass and species richness^{9,10,11,12}. Its negative effect on abundances of fish species is likely the result of habitat (vegetation) reduction, competition for food, and direct predation on fish eggs¹¹. The species displaces native crayfishes and can become the dominant crayfish species^{10,11,13,14,15}. Hybridization between rusty and northern clearwater crayfishes may also hasten local losses of native crayfish species¹⁶.

Cam-orc-rus

Spiny Waterflea

Bythotrephes longimanus

Other common names: Eurasian spiny water flea; former scientific name was *B. cederstroemi*



Photo: Pieter Johnson

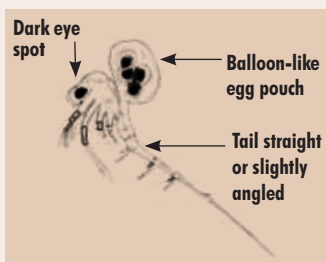


Illustration: Michigan Sea Grant Program



Photo: Jeff Gunderson

DESCRIPTION: Predatory cladoceran that collects in jelly-like masses on fishing lines, downrigger cables, or nets; masses may appear as clusters of tiny pins with black dots. **Size:** total length 10 mm, of which the tail spine comprises ~60%. **Body features:** tail spine is straight or slightly angled from body, with 1-3 pairs of barbs, and a straight needle-like tip. Head has single, large, dark, compound eye. Dorsal egg pouch is balloon-like in shape. Microscope often needed to differentiate these characteristics. **Colour:** body might have orange, blue and green colouring; red stripe runs half the length of tail.^{1,2}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Invasive fishhook waterflea (*Cercopagis pengoi*: Cer-cer-pen in this guide) has a longer tail spine, comprising ~80% of body length, with a distinctive loop at the tip, and its egg pouch is elongated and pointed^{2,3}. The only native relative, *Polyphemus pediculus*, is much smaller with a short body and tail spine, and much bigger eye⁴. Native cladocerans (e.g., *Daphnia mendotae*) may look superficially similar but have much shorter tail spines that are <25% of their total length¹.

HABITAT: Prefers large, deep, clear, oligotrophic lakes but will occur in slightly eutrophic waters^{2,3,5}. Tolerates water temperatures 5-28°C; migrates vertically in water column, to deeper, cooler waters in the day and surface waters at night^{6,7}. Greater abundances are likely found where refuge from fish predators is present⁸.

INTRODUCED RANGE: First reported in Lake Ontario in 1982, and found in all of the Great Lakes by 1987; it now occurs in over 100 inland lakes in Ontario^{5,7,9,10,11,12}. Not reported elsewhere in Canada. In the United States, reported in inland lakes for states bordering the Great Lakes¹³. Also introduced to many European lakes³.

NATIVE RANGE: Eurasia³.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Introduced to the Great Lakes probably via ballast water discharge of commercial shipping vessels^{10,14}. It spread to inland lakes likely through angling and recreational boating via live wells, bait buckets, fishing lines, downriggers or other equipment used in the water and which can be coated with eggs and adults^{11,15}. Spiny waterflea primarily reproduces parthenogenically and therefore has the capacity to colonize quickly with a single female¹⁶. Sexual reproduction produces 'resting eggs' which overwinter, can remain dormant for long periods of time, and may be transported via angling and boating activities^{11,17}.

IMPACTS: Since spiny waterflea invaded, significant changes to zooplankton communities have occurred in the Great Lakes and many inland lakes, including disappearances of species and declines in species abundance, density, richness, and biomass^{8,14,18,19}. Because of intense predation on smaller species by spiny waterflea, the cladoceran community have undergone a shift to larger species^{8,14,19,20}. Other zooplankton predators may be affected directly through competition for food or indirectly because of a shift in prey items available. Small fish have difficulty consuming spiny waterflea and larger fish that prey on the species may experience reduced growth rates because the waterflea spines are indigestible (accumulate in the stomach) and do not offer any nutritional value²¹. Also, the species can attach to and foul fishing lines, downrigger cables, and other equipment used for fishing¹⁵.

Fishhook Waterflea

Cercopagis pengoi

Other common name: None



Photo: NOAA, Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory

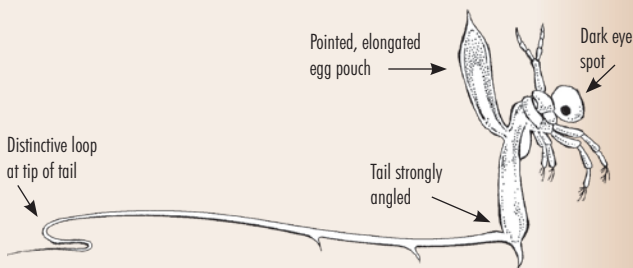


Illustration: Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters

DESCRIPTION: Predatory cladoceran that collects in cotton-like masses on fishing lines. **Size:** total length 10 mm; tail spine comprises ~80% of total length. **Body features:** tail spine is strongly angled (~90°) from body, with 1-3 widely spaced pairs of barbs, and a unique loop or “hook” at the tip. Head has single, dark, compound eye. Dorsal egg pouch elongated and pointed. Microscope often needed to differentiate these characteristics. **Colour:** transparent.¹

Note, in this species, another morph exists which usually occurs earlier in the season during spring but has a much shorter tail that lacks the loop at the end and bears up to four paired barbs².

SIMILAR SPECIES: Invasive spiny waterflea (*Bythotrephes longimanus*: Cer-byt-lon in this guide) has a relatively

shorter tail spine (~60% of total length), lacks the loop at the tip of the tail, and the egg pouch is balloon-like in shape^{3,4}. Native cladocerans (e.g., *Daphnia mendotae*) have short tails which are less than ¼ of their total body length³.

HABITAT: Found in open deep waters, preferring the upper, warmer water layer (epilimnion) but able to tolerate a wide range of water temperatures from approximately 8–30°C^{1,5,6}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: First recorded in Lake Ontario in 1998, the St. Lawrence River by 1999, and Lake Erie by 2001^{1,7}. Not reported elsewhere in Canada, to date. In the United States, occurs in Lake Michigan, Lake Erie and the connected Detroit River, and several 'Finger Lakes' in New York State^{2,8,9}. Also introduced to waterways and reservoirs in Eastern Europe and the Baltic Sea⁴.

NATIVE RANGE: Ponto-Caspian region of Eurasia¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Introduced probably via ballast water discharge of a commercial shipping vessel, with Great Lakes populations derived from the Baltic Sea^{1,10}. Fishhook waterflea primarily reproduces parthenogenically and therefore has the capacity to colonize quickly with a single female¹. Sexual reproduction produces 'resting eggs' which overwinter and may be transported, along with adults, to inland lakes in bait buckets, live wells, mud, bilge water, or on fishing and other equipment¹¹.

IMPACTS: Predation by fishhook waterflea on small native zooplankton has likely led to the declines observed in several zooplankton species in Lake Ontario^{6,12}. The fishhook waterflea may compete with native planktivorous fish or other zooplankton predators for food^{2,6}. Because of its barbed tail, the species attaches to fishing gear and clogs nets and trawls, fouling equipment used for recreational and commercial fishing^{1,13,14}.

Asian Clam

Corbicula fluminea

Other common names: Asiatic clam, prosperity clam, gold clam

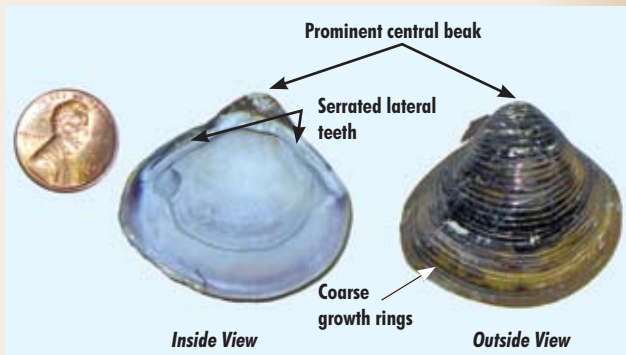


Photo: Jason Goeckler



Photo: U.S. Geological Survey,
Florida Integrated Science Centre

DESCRIPTION: Small freshwater clam. **Size:** shell usually less than 2.5 cm, but up to 6.5 cm long. **Shape:** shell triangular, relatively thick, with coarse growth rings. On shell interior, lateral teeth are finely serrated (visible with hand lens). **Colour:** periostracum thick, deciduous, yellowish- to blackish-brown. **Juveniles:** microscopic, free-floating larvae, called veligers, are “D”-shaped and less than 1 mm in length.^{1,2,3,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Native and introduced fingernail or pea clams (Sphaeriids) may resemble Asian clam, but their lateral teeth are smooth vs. serrated in Asian clam. Sphaeriids are also generally smaller, have thinner shells, and less prominent growth rings.^{1,3}

HABITAT: Found in wide range of habitats, including lakes, ponds, streams, and canals. Prefers flowing freshwater with mixed mud-sand substrate, but inhabits rock and gravel substrates as well^{4,5}. Tolerates low temperatures well (e.g., 0-2°C)⁶; however, temperatures of 16°C or higher are needed for reproduction^{1,7}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not known from Ontario, to date, but documented in Lakes Superior, Michigan and Erie from the United States^{8,9}. Elsewhere in Canada, dead specimens were found in British Columbia in the early 1920's¹⁰. In the United States, it is documented in 40 states⁹. It is also found in South America and Europe⁵.

NATIVE RANGE: Southeast Asia, Turkey, Japan, Indonesia, Australia, Africa⁵.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: May have been introduced into the United States as a food item for humans^{7,9}. Deliberate or unintentional introductions of the clam may be associated with the aquaculture or aquarium industries. Bait buckets, live wells, bilge water, boat hulls/motors/trailers, and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear), which could potentially be contaminated with clams, may help in their transport and spread between waterbodies.

IMPACTS: Asian clam filters suspended matter from the water column, which significantly increases water clarity, leads to excessive plant growth and alters lake nutrient regimes. It may compete with native molluscs for food and habitat⁵. The clam can infest and interfere with irrigation systems and canals, and block water flow through industrial raw water intake pipes^{7,11}.

Quagga Mussel

Dreissena bugensis

Other common name: None

Side View

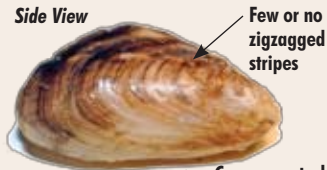


Photo: Michigan Sea Grant,
www.mseagrant.umich.edu

Few or no
zigzagged
stripes

Convex ventral
surface

Ventral View



Photo: Myriah Richardson (USGS)

Bilaterally asymmetrical;
curved midventral line



Quagga mussel cluster
on boat hull

Photo: Dave Britton

DESCRIPTION: Small, variably striped, freshwater mussel. **Size:** small, up to 3 cm long. **Shape:** round to triangular in cross-section. Ventral surface convex. Left and right valves asymmetrical with curved midventral line. **Colour:** variable, pale, may have coloured bands, bars, or few to no zigzagged stripes. **Juveniles:** microscopic larvae, called veligers, are round in shape and free-float for up to 5 weeks; during post-veliger stage, foot is formed to attach to substrate.^{1,2}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Introduced zebra mussel (*D. polymorpha*: Dre-dre-pol in this guide) is a close relative but has a flat to concave ventral surface, a prominent ridge, and conspicuous zigzagged stripes¹.

HABITAT: Found in freshwater lakes, reservoirs, ponds, quarries, and slow-moving or sluggish rivers; can occur in shallow, warm waters as well as deeper, cool waters^{1,3,4}. Attaches to hard surfaces such as rocks, docks, cement, wood, and macrophytic vegetation or may partially bury itself into soft sediments^{5,6}. Quagga mussel reproduction can occur at low water temperatures, as cold as 4-9°C^{1,7}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, it was first reported in Lake Erie in 1989, and now occurs in Lakes Ontario, Huron, and Simcoe, the Rideau River, and several locations along the St. Lawrence River^{8,9,10}. It is also reported in Québec along the St. Lawrence River. In the United States, it is documented along the south shores of all the Great Lakes, Lake St. Clair, in a few northeastern states, one location along the Mississippi, as well as in California⁹ and Southern Nevada¹¹. It also spread through Europe².

NATIVE RANGE: Tributary of the Black Sea, Ponto-Caspian region of Eurasia².

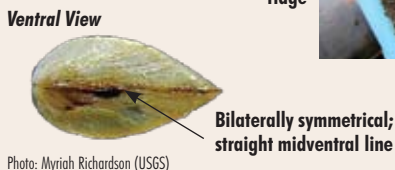
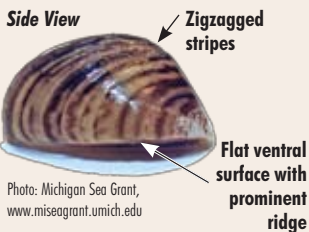
PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Originally introduced by ballast water transported in commercial vessels and potentially on fouled ship hulls^{1,12,13}. Veliger and adult mussels spread between waterbodies when they are transported in bait buckets, live wells and bilge water or attached to boat hulls/motors/trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear). Adult quagga mussels can survive for up to 22 days out of water if the air is humid and about 15°C in temperature⁵.

IMPACTS: Quagga mussel (like zebra mussel) forms colonies in great densities, is able to filter large quantities of plankton from the water column and consequently increase water clarity; it poses competition for food with native organisms; indirectly effects the community structure of plants (from planktonic to macrophytic) and potentially fish^{1,6}; dense colonization of mussels in a waterbody has been followed by declines or complete losses in native mussels^{1,14}. In the Great Lakes, it may help facilitate the round goby (*Neogobius melanostomus*: Gob-neo-mel in this guide) invasion as it is a food source and component of round goby diet in its native range^{6,12}; mussel colonies also provide additional habitat for the invasive gammarid (*Echinogammarus ischnus*: Gam-ech-isc in this guide)^{6,9}. Moreover, the mussel pollutes swimming areas with sharp shells and can be a serious biofouler of water intake pipes causing significant cost and safety concerns to industry and municipal water users¹. Quagga mussel may be replacing zebra mussel populations in some regions of their Great Lakes distribution^{4,7}.

Zebra Mussel

Dreissena polymorpha

Other common names: Zebra clam, tiger mussel



DESCRIPTION: Small, striped, strongly ridged, freshwater mussel. **Size:** usually 2 to 2.5 cm, up to 4 cm in length. **Shape:** shell “D”-shaped or triangular in cross-section. Pronounced ridge, ventral surface flat to concave. Left and right shell valves symmetrical with straight midventral line. **Colour:** black or brown with variable white to yellow striped or zigzagged patterns. **Juveniles:** microscopic larvae, called veligers, are round in shape and free-float for up to 5 weeks; during post-veliger stage, foot is formed to attach to substrate.^{1,2}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Introduced quagga mussel (*D. bugensis*: Dre-dre-bug in this guide) is a close relative, but has a convex rather than flat to concave ventral surface, lacks a prominent ridge, and has few to no zigzagged stripes¹.

HABITAT: Found in lakes, rivers, reservoirs, ponds, and quarries. Veligers are free-floating in the water column while post-veligers settle on submerged vegetation and adults tend to settle on hard surfaces such as rocks, docks, cement, wood, and macrophytic plants^{3,4}. Settlement cannot easily occur in areas with swift current or strong wave action^{1,2}. Greater densities are found at depths shallower than 12 m⁴. Water temperatures greater than 10°C are needed for reproduction^{5,6}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, zebra mussel was first collected in Lake St. Clair in 1988; it spread to all the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River, and is spreading to inland lakes and rivers, including the Rideau Canal and Trent-Severn Waterway^{1,7,8}. In the United States, it has spread to many inland lakes in the Great Lakes region and most large navigable rivers in eastern United States, including the Mississippi River². Also spread through most of Europe¹.

NATIVE RANGE: Ponto-Caspian region of Eurasia⁹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Originally introduced by ballast water transported in commercial shipping vessels and potentially on fouled ship hulls^{7,9,10}. Adults can only survive out of water for up to five days at 25°C, however, if the air is humid and cooler at 15°C, they can survive up to 22 days out of water³. Veliger and adult mussels can spread between waterbodies when they are transported in bait buckets, live wells and bilge water or attached to boat hulls/motors/trailers and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear).

IMPACTS: Forms colonies in great densities and filters large quantities of plankton from the water column; it poses competition for food with native organisms¹¹; dense colonization in a waterbody has been followed by declines or complete losses in native mussels^{12,13,14}; attachment to native mussels and formation of colonies over top their shells threaten their ability to filter, feed and survive^{1,11,14,15}; indirectly effects the community structure of plants (from planktonic to macrophytic) and potentially fish (e.g., walleye which prefer turbid waters) as removal of suspended matter from the water column leads to an increase in water clarity¹¹; bioaccumulates high levels of contaminants, which are passed to species higher in the food chain^{1,16}; may be a contributing factor to botulism outbreaks in the Great Lakes¹⁷. Establishment in the Great Lakes has facilitated the invasion of round goby (*Neogobius melanostomus*: Gob-neo-mel in this guide) as it is a food source and component of round goby diet in its native range^{11,18}; also, colonies provide additional habitat for the invasive gammarid (*Echinogammarus ischnus*: Gam-ech-isc in this guide)^{11,19}. Pollutes swimming areas with sharp shells¹ and can be a serious biofouler of water intake pipes causing significant cost and safety concerns to industry and municipal water users^{20,21}.

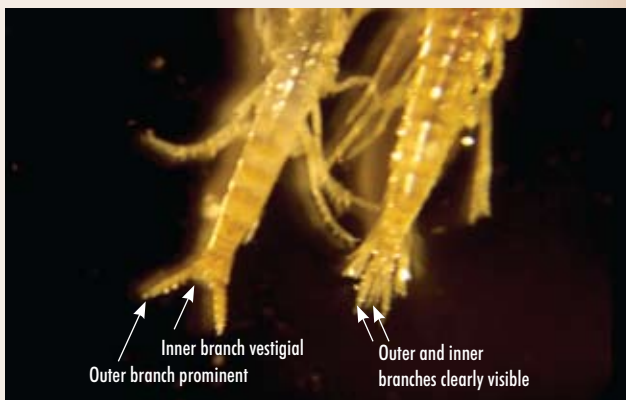
Gammarid

Echinogammarus ischnus

Other common names: Amphipod, gammarus, scud, sideswimmer, freshwater shrimp



Photos: Colin van Overdijk



Tail comparison in third uropods: invasive *Echinogammarus* (left) and native *Gammarus* (right).

Photo: Ron Dermott

DESCRIPTION: Small, laterally-compressed macroinvertebrate. **Size:** 8 to 11 mm in length. **Body features:** eyes fairly large, kidney-shaped, and black. Second antennae in males have dense, curly bristles and in females they are sparsely bristled. In the tail fan (observed under low magnification), well developed outer branches with strong 'V' shape and vestigial, inner branches comprise the third uropods. **Colour:** light-orange with reddish antennae.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Native amphipod, *Gammarus fasciatus*, is best distinguished from the invasive gammarid by its tail shape using a hand lens or low magnification microscope: third uropods of the native species have

less prominent outer branches but clearly visible inner branches. Other native amphipods from the genus *Diporeia* can be distinguished from the gammarids because their third uropod is not well developed.¹

HABITAT: Found in slow-moving waters of rivers and lakes and habitats with gravel or rocky bottoms⁴. It is often associated with *Dreissena* mussel-encrusted rocks but also has been found on soft-bottom sediments^{5,6,7}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: First documented in Ontario from western Lake Erie in 1994⁷. It is found in all the Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence River, Niagara River, St. Clair River, and Detroit River^{2,4,6,7,8, 9,10}. Also spread throughout Europe^{2,11}.

NATIVE RANGE: Ponto-Caspian region of Eurasia¹².

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Likely introduced to the Great Lakes by ballast water discharge from commercial shipping vessels². Its spread to inland lakes may be facilitated if transported via bait buckets, live wells or bilge water, which could potentially be contaminated with the gammarid.

IMPACTS: Evidence suggests it has become the dominant amphipod in some introduced regions and may be replacing the native *Gammarus fasciatus* in the lower Great Lakes^{7,10}. It has potential to displace other native macroinvertebrates and alter food webs¹¹.

HYDROBIIDAE / Spire Snail (or Mud Snail) Family

New Zealand Mud Snail

Potamopyrgus antipodarum

Other common name: Jenkin's spire snail



Photo: Daniel L. Gustafson

DESCRIPTION: Small, slender, freshwater snail. **Size:** shell height usually 5 mm but up to 8 mm; height about 2x maximum shell width. **Shape:** spire cone-shaped and slender with pointed apical whorl. Usually 5-6 whorls, up to 8. May have weak keel mid-whorl with coarse hairs. **Colour:** variable, normally horn-coloured but can range from light to dark brown. **Operculum:** ear-shaped with off-centre nucleus.^{1,2,3,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: In Ontario, native snails *Marstonia decepta* (Hydrobiidae) and *Pomatiopsis lapidaria* (Pomatiopsidae), may resemble the New Zealand mud snail but both have a less pointed spire. Other superficially similar elongated snails from the widely-distributed family Lymnaeidae lack an operculum, are generally taller, and have a narrower aperture⁵.

HABITAT: Prefers silty sand sediments in freshwater (or slightly brackish) habitats including rivers, reservoirs, lakes, and estuaries. Restricted to permanent waterbodies, although it has tolerated temporary desiccation². Cannot survive freezing temperatures in freshwater but may be able to tolerate temperatures just below 0°C in low salinity waters⁶.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, it is reported in Lake Superior at Thunder Bay, Lake Ontario near Niagara and Kingston, and in the St. Lawrence River^{2,7,8}. It is not known from elsewhere in Canada, to date. In the United States, the snail occurs in several northeastern and western states and is reported for Lake Erie^{8,9}. Also found in Australia and Europe⁸.

NATIVE RANGE: New Zealand^{2,4}.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The first record of New Zealand mud snail for North America was in 1987 in Idaho and for Lake Ontario it was 1991 in New York. Its introduction was likely via ballast water transport on commercial shipping vessels and/or associated with the movement of aquaculture products (e.g., trout eggs, live fish)². Its spread between waterbodies may be facilitated if transported via bait buckets, live wells, bilge water, boat hulls/motors/trailers, and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear) which could potentially be contaminated with the snail. The species can become established in a new waterbody with the introduction of a single individual since females can reproduce asexually, without a mate (parthenogenesis)^{2,10}.

IMPACTS: New Zealand mud snail reaches high densities, e.g., up to 300,000 individuals/m² in some North American populations^{3,11}, and can be a dominate species in secondary production among benthic invertebrates, suggesting possible impacts on the food web¹². In experiments, high densities have been associated with low colonization of other macroinvertebrates, potentially indicating New Zealand mud snail competes for resources with native species¹¹.

Red Mysid

Hemimysis anomala

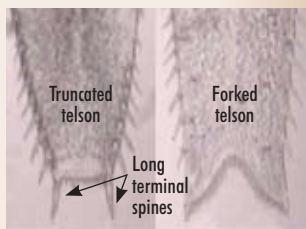
Other common names: Bloody red shrimp, red mysis, hemimysis



Photo: Steven Pothoven, Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory



Photo: Gary Fahnenstiel, Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory



Telson of red mysid (left) and native mysid (right) under low magnification. Photos: Steven Pothoven, Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory

DESCRIPTION: Small macroinvertebrate that may be observed forming reddish swarms during daylight hours in shadows of piers, boats, or breakwalls. **Size:** length 6.5-11 mm. **Body features:** large, black, stalked eyes. Soft carapace covers head and thorax, with 8 pairs of thoracic legs. Telson (observed under low magnification) is truncated (uncleft) with two terminal, prominent spines and short spines along the outer margins. **Colour:** may have bright red to orangish-red pigmentation but can change to ivory-yellow and almost transparent.^{1,2,3,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Native opossum shrimp (*Mysis relicta*, which recently may be referred to as *Mysis diluviana* in some literature⁵) looks very similar but its telson is forked

and lacks long terminal spines compared to red mysid in which the telson is truncated with two prominent spines^{1,2,4}. The unique swarming behaviour of red mysid is unlikely to be confused with anything else in the Great Lakes.

HABITAT: Found in brackish or freshwater, in slow-moving waters with hard bottom substrates (rocks, shells), and less frequently on finer or soft bottom substrates⁴. During the day, it actively avoids direct sunlight, swarming in shaded areas and rocky crevasses³ (particularly during late summer and fall⁷) or migrating to deeper waters; at night, red mysid moves higher in the water column, up to surface waters^{1,8}. May be found to 50 m in depth².

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, red mysid was first found in Lake Ontario at Pickering in 2006; it is being reported from several other locations on Lake Ontario and Lake Erie⁹. Not known elsewhere in Canada, to date. In the United States, occurrences have been reported from Lakes Ontario and Erie in New York, and Lake Michigan in Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin⁹. It is also spread across Europe to the Baltic Sea and the United Kingdom^{3,10}.

NATIVE RANGE: Ponto-Caspian region of Eurasia⁴.

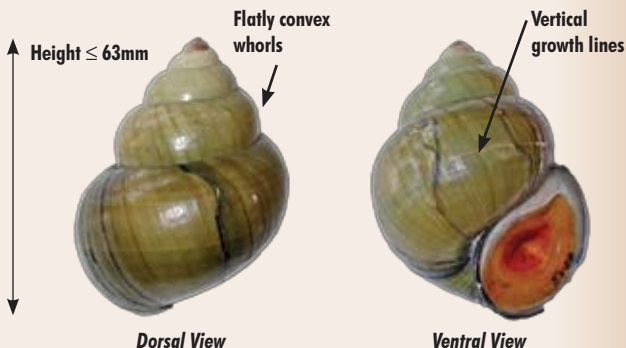
PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The first record of the species in North America was from the Lake Michigan basin in Michigan, in 2006⁴. It was likely introduced to the Great Lakes via ballast water discharge from commercial shipping vessels¹¹. Its spread between waterbodies may be facilitated by inter-basin transfer or if transported via bait buckets, live wells, bilge water, boat hulls/motors/trailers, or other equipment used in the water.

IMPACTS: Red mysid consumes phytoplankton and zooplankton, and it was estimated that swarms contained more than 500 individuals/m³ at the docking site where the species was first reported in the Lake Michigan basin^{1,4,8}. This new invader might potentially alter the plankton community through predation on or resource competition with native zooplankton or planktivorous fish.

Chinese Mysterysnail

Cipangopaludina chinensis

Other common names: Oriental mysterysnail, Chinese vivipara, rice snail, Asian apple snail



Photos: Gerry Mackie



Photo: Dave Britton

DESCRIPTION: Largest freshwater snail in Canada. **Size:** shell height up to 6.5 cm. **Shape:** spherical, inflated, up to 7 flatly convex whorls separated by prominent sutures. Shell contains fine vertical and horizontal lines, with fine to moderate dents or indentations. **Colour:** brownish to olive-green. **Operculum:** oblong with concentric growth lines. **Juveniles:** young snails can be held in uterus until 4-whorl stage.^{1,2}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Introduced banded mysterysnail (*Viviparus georgianus*: Viv-viv-geo in this guide) is

generally smaller (up to 3.5 cm in height), has strongly convex whorls, and has prominent dark horizontal bands^{3,4}. Introduced Japanese mysterysnail (*C. japonicus*), documented in southern Lake Erie, looks so similar to *C. chinensis* that some consider them synonymous⁵. Native brown mysterysnail (*Campeloma decisum*) is generally smaller in size, has a more oblong spire, a blunt or corroded terminal whorl, and lower whorls that are less inflated or convex¹.

HABITAT: Found in shallow, quiet waters of ponds, marshes, lakes, canals, and slow-moving rivers with some vegetation and muddy or sandy substrate^{1,6,7}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, found in the Rideau River at Ottawa, the Kawartha Lakes, and the Crowe, Moira, and Trent River drainages, as well as on the shores of Lake Erie and embayments of western Lake Ontario^{1,8,9,10}. Also reported in Nova Scotia, Québec, and British Columbia¹. The species occurs widely through the United States, in Lake Erie, the drainages of Lakes Ontario and Michigan, and the Hawaiian Islands^{6,11,12,13}.

NATIVE RANGE: Southeast Asia to Japan, Russia^{6,13}.

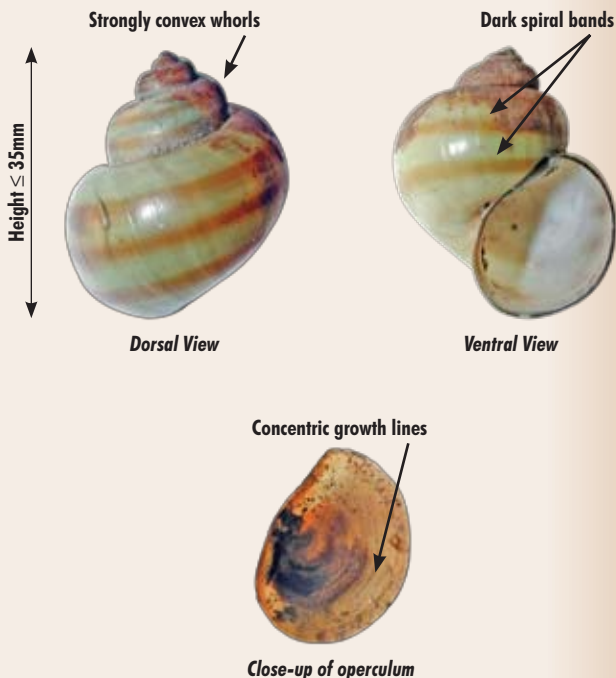
PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Introduced into the Great Lakes basin in the Niagara River in the 1930-40's as an aquarium release and imported as a food item for the Asian food industry^{7,14}. Its spread between waterbodies may be facilitated if transported via bait buckets, live wells, bilge water, boat hulls/motors/trailers, and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear) which could potentially be contaminated with the snail.

IMPACTS: Research on impacts of the Chinese mysterysnail in North America is lacking; little is known but it has been suggested that the snail may compete with native native snail species⁶.

Banded Mysterysnail

Viviparus georgianus

Other common name: Georgia mysterysnail



Photos: Gerry Mackie

DESCRIPTION: Large, banded, freshwater snail. **Size:** shell height up to 3.5 cm. **Shape:** spherical, inflated, 4-5 strongly convex whorls separated by deep sutures. Shell contains coarse and fine vertical growth lines. **Colour:** yellow to greenish brown with prominent dark-reddish spiral bands. **Operculum:** ear-shaped with concentric growth lines. **Juveniles:** young snails can be held in uterus until 3-whorl stage.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Introduced Chinese mysterysnail (*Cipangopaludina chinensis*: Viv-cip-chi in this guide) is generally larger (up to 6.5 cm in height), has flatly convex whorls, and lacks prominent horizontal bands^{1,4}.

Introduced Japanese mysterysnail (*C. japonicus*), documented in southern Lake Erie, has no horizontal banding and looks so similar to *C. chinensis* that some consider them synonymous⁵. Native brown mysterysnail (*Campeloma decisum*) is similar in size but has a more oblong spire, a blunt or corroded terminal whorl, lower whorls that are less inflated or convex and lack spiral bands¹.

HABITAT: Prefers lakes and slow-moving streams with a muddy substrate, and vegetation¹.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, found in Lakes Erie and Ontario, the Kawartha Lakes, the lower Trent-Severn, Crowe and Moira River watersheds, the lower Rideau Lakes and Ottawa River system, and the Grand River^{1,6,7}. Also documented in Richelieu River and lower St. Lawrence River in Québec^{1,8}. Introduced through the northeastern United States^{8,9}.

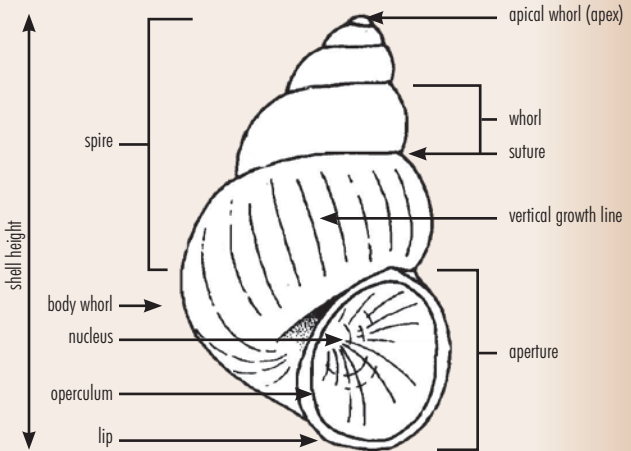
NATIVE RANGE: The United States, in the Mississippi River system, north to Indiana and southward, including many southeastern states⁸.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The earliest introduction likely was the deliberate release of snails, for unknown reasons, into New York's Hudson River watershed in the mid-1800's⁸. Deliberate or unintentional introductions may be associated with aquarium releases^{8,10}, while bait buckets, live wells, bilge water, boat hulls/motors/trailers, and other equipment (e.g., fishing or scuba gear), which could potentially be contaminated with snails, may help in their transport and spread between waterbodies.

IMPACTS: Research on impacts of the banded mysterysnail in North America is lacking. Lab and pond experiments have shown predation on largemouth bass embryos by the banded mysterysnail¹¹. May compete with native snails for food and habitat.

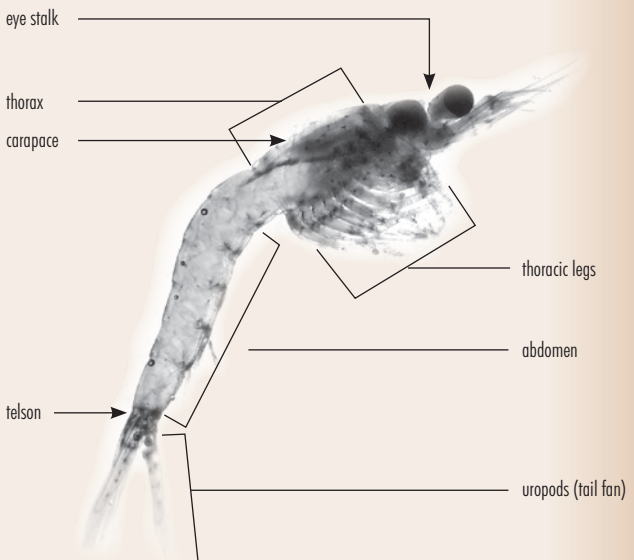
Shell of a freshwater prosobranch snail

(adapted from Clarke 1981)



Parts of a freshwater shrimp

(adapted from NOAA-GLERL 2007)



Glossary

AMPHIPOD – any of numerous small, flat-bodied crustaceans of the group Amphipoda

APERTURE – opening of a snail shell from which foot and body protrude

APEX – tip

APICAL WHORL – top or apex of the spire; the first formed part of snail shell

APPENDAGE – external body part

BARB – point or pointed part projecting backward from a main point, as of a fishhook

BEAK – apex or umbo of a bivalve shell; the first formed part

CARAPACE – the dorsal section of the exoskeleton; the hard outer covering or case of certain organisms

CAUDAL – at, or near the tail or the posterior end of the body

CONCENTRIC – describes the growth lines of a snail operculum that lie entirely within each other; not forming a spiral

CRUSTACEAN – any chiefly aquatic arthropod of the class Crustacea, typically having the body covered with a hard shell or crust

DISTAL – farthest; situated away from the point of origin or attachment

GONOPOD – male sexual organ; first pair of pleopods specialized for fertilization in male crayfish (copulatory stylets)

HINGE TEETH – part of the thickened part of a bivalve shell where the two halves join

LIP – structure surrounding the aperture of a snail shell

LOBE – roundish projection or division

MALLEATIONS – flattened areas, as if hammered

NUCLEUS – center point of growth rings in a snail operculum

OPERCULUM – thin plate-like structure attached to the foot of a prosobranch snail that covers the aperture when the foot is withdrawn

PARTHENOGENIC – asexual reproduction; cloning

PERIOSTRACUM – hard chitinous covering on the outer shell of many molluscs

PLEOPODS – first of five pairs of abdominal legs or swimmerets; may be modified into male gonopod or copulatory stylets

PROSOBRANCH – gill-breathing snail

PROXIMAL – nearest; situated toward the point of origin or attachment

ROSTRUM – anterior part of carapace between eyes [ref to crayfish]

SPIRE – cone-shaped surface of a snail shell that tapers to a point; the whorl containing the snail body usually not considered to be part of the spire

STYLETS – [copulatory stylets] pair of pleopods specialized for fertilization in male crayfish

SUTURE –groove marking the junction of adjacent whorls

TELSON –last segment or division of the body of a crustacean; helps form the tail fan of crustaceans

UMBO – beak or apex [tip] of a bivalve mussel

UNIONID – native freshwater clams of the order Unionoida, with a ‘pearly’ appearance on shell surface

UROPOD – the three appendages that form the tail fan of a crustacean

VELIGER – zooplanktonic, larval form of some molluscs, including introduced *Dreissena* mussels

VIVIPAROUS – a type of reproduction in which the young are internally maintained in uterus up until a 4-whorl stage before birth (e.g. livebearing snail)

WHORL – a single spiral turn of a snail shell

References:

Clarke, A.H. 1981. The freshwater molluscs of Canada. National Museums of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario.

Hobbs, H.H. III and J.P. Jass. 1988. The crayfishes and shrimp of Wisconsin (Cambaridae, Palaemonidae). Milwaukee Public Museum.

National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory (GLERL). 2007. *Hemimysis anomala* survey & monitoring network [online]. Great Lakes Aquatic Nonindigenous Species Information System, National Research Centre for Aquatic Invasive Species. Available from http://www.glerl.noaa.gov/hemimysis/finding_hemi.html (accessed June 2007).

Thorp, J.H. and A.P. Covich. 1991. Ecology and classification of North American freshwater invertebrates. Academic Press, Inc. New York.

Goldfish

Carassius auratus

Other common names: Koi, golden carp

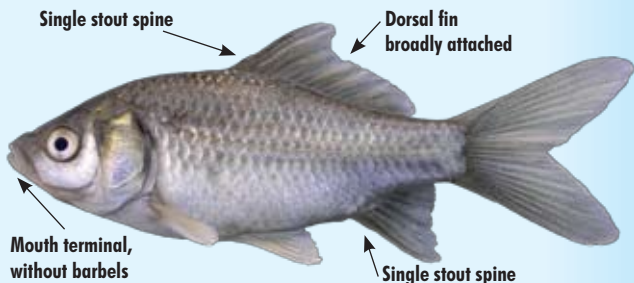


Photo: Douglas Watkinson, Fisheries and Oceans Canada

DESCRIPTION: Body: stout; lacks a keel along the midventral line; total length 127-254 mm (up to 400 mm). **Fins:** base of dorsal fin long, with 13 or more branched soft rays; first ray of dorsal and anal fins modified to form a stout spine with a serrated trailing edge; caudal fin forked. **Mouth:** small, terminal, without barbels. **Scales:** usually 26-32 in the lateral line. **Colour:** variable, from olive through orange (sometimes with black patches) to creamy white. Individuals from wild populations are mostly olive to gray in colour.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*: Cyp-cyp-car in this guide) has two pairs of barbels on upper jaw and usually has more than 32 scales in the lateral line¹. The goldfish hybridizes with common carp, producing individuals of intermediate morphology⁴.

HABITAT: Vegetated ponds and pools, sometimes shallow backwaters in the lower Great Lakes¹. Can be found in lotic systems as well.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Most Ontario populations of goldfish are found in built up areas along the north shores of Lake Erie and the Golden Horseshoe⁵. It is widespread but sporadic elsewhere in the world⁴.

NATIVE RANGE: Eastern and Central Asia¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The goldfish has been intentionally introduced for ornamental purposes to ponds, fountains and small lakes from which they may disperse through connected waters. Goldfish owners have also released their stock into public waters⁴.

IMPACTS: The ecology of goldfish in North America is understudied⁴. Its varied diet includes gastropods, small insects, fish eggs and fry, which makes this species a potential competitor with, and predator of, native fishes^{3,6}. When feeding on rooted vegetation, goldfish may resuspend sediments, thus increasing turbidity and inhibiting plant growth⁷. The goldfish is most successful in degraded habitats. It may not compete well within a native fish assemblage⁴.

Grass Carp

Ctenopharyngodon idella

Other common names: White Amur, Amur



Photo: John Derkson, Lethbridge College

DESCRIPTION: Body: fusiform and moderately compressed; head broad and scaleless; caudal peduncle short and relatively deep; total length from 50-90 cm (up to 125 cm). **Mouth:** terminal to subterminal, of moderate size, without barbels. **Pharyngeal teeth:** a double row of four pointed, finely grooved or serrated teeth on each side, visible on dissection. **Fins:** spines absent; anal fin set far back; dorsal fin short with 7-9 rays. **Scales:** large with dark margins creating cross-hatched pattern, 34-47 in lateral line. **Colour:** olive-brown above blending to white below; juveniles are silvery.^{1,2,3,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Suckers (Catostomidae) have a sub-terminal mouth, thick lips with folds or small, nipple-like fleshy bumps⁵. Common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*: Cyp-cyp-car in this guide) and goldfish (*Carassius auratus*: Cyp-car-aur in this guide) have a stout serrated spine in the dorsal fin and anal fin³. The fallfish (*Semotilus corporalis*) has a head that is not as broad, and its anal fin is set farther forward: the distance from the origin of the anal fin to the base of the caudal fin is more than 1.5 times the distance from the origin of the pelvic fin to the origin of the anal fin⁶. It resembles the black carp (*Mylopharyngodon piceus*: Cyp-myl-pic in this guide) which tends to have darker colouration and possesses a single row of four or five flat, molariform pharyngeal teeth on each side. This identification character may not be applicable to juvenile fish, <30 mm in total length⁴.

HABITAT: Vegetated lakes, ponds and backwaters of rivers⁷. It tolerates low levels of dissolved oxygen and a broad range of temperatures⁸.

INTRODUCED RANGE: There are fewer than ten records in Ontario from Lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario (including the Don River)^{9,10}. The grass carp was intentionally stocked for vegetation management in Alberta and Saskatchewan as it was in the United States, where it is now widespread in the upper reaches of the Mississippi watershed¹¹. Also found in Europe, Africa, Australia, Indian subcontinent, Central and South America^{8,12}.

NATIVE RANGE: Eastern Asia, from southern Russia to northern Vietnam⁸.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The source of Ontario occurrences is uncertain; however, before the possession of live grass carp was prohibited in 2005, its availability in the live food fish industry and water garden trade posed a considerable risk of accidental or unlawful release¹³. Another potential source is dispersal or transfer from the Mississippi watershed within states bordering the Great Lakes¹³. It was lawfully stocked as a food fish and to control nuisance aquatic vegetation throughout the United States where the range has increased through population growth and dispersal¹¹.

IMPACTS: Removal of vegetation by grass carp may eliminate food sources, shelter and spawning/nursery habitat for native invertebrates, birds and fishes. Its feeding activities may promote algal blooms, increase turbidity and alkalinity while lowering dissolved oxygen levels. The grass carp can be a vector of parasites and diseases affecting native species^{8,11}.

Common Carp **See note on 2nd page for this species*

Cyprinus carpio

Other common names: European carp, mirror carp, koi

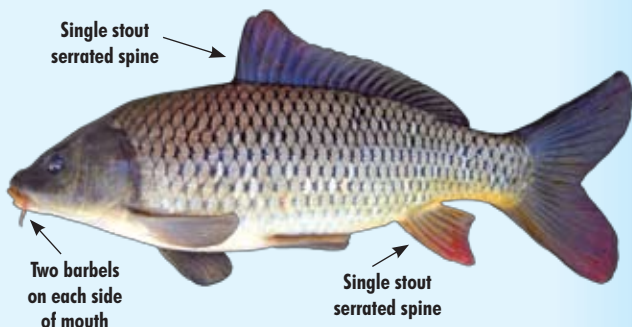


Photo: Douglas Watkinson, Fisheries and Oceans Canada

DESCRIPTION: Body: robust and deep-bodied; total length 38-46 cm (up to 120 cm). **Mouth:** terminal on young, subterminal on adult; two pairs of barbels present. The posterior pair at the corners of the mouth are the more conspicuous. **Fins:** dorsal fin base long with 17-21 soft rays. Dorsal and anal fins each have a single, stout spine with a serrated trailing edge. **Scales:** thick and large, 35-39 in the lateral line. Some uncommon morphs, *i.e.*, leather carp and mirror carp, have much reduced scalation. **Colour:** usually olive-grey on back lightening to white or yellow on the belly.^{1,2}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The goldfish (*Carassius auratus*: Cyp-car-aur in this guide) lacks barbels and usually has fewer than 32 scales in the lateral line¹. Grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*: Cyp-cte-ide in this guide) lacks barbels, has a short dorsal fin without a spine, fusiform body shape, and eyes set low on the sides of the head^{3,4}.

HABITAT: Found in low gradient streams, reservoirs and lakes, commonly in waters with high levels of organic matter, the common carp forages over a variety of bottoms and may thrive in highly eutrophic, disturbed habitats unsuitable for many native species¹.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the common carp is well established in the Great Lakes basin and connected waterways, most abundantly in the south⁵. It has been introduced throughout the Americas, Africa, the Middle East and Australia^{1,6}.

NATIVE RANGE: Temperate Eurasia¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The common carp was introduced widely as a food fish in Canada, where population growth and dispersal increased its geographic range¹. Colourful varieties (nishikigoi or koi) from garden ponds have also been introduced to public waters in many countries⁷. In the United States, it has been sold as a baitfish⁸. Because juvenile common carp may be superficially similar in appearance to, and potentially mistaken for, some Ontario baitfish species, it may be unintentionally spread through the use of live bait.

IMPACTS: Because its establishment predates many of the earliest fish surveys, the impact of common carp upon native fish assemblages in Ontario is difficult to assess¹. In other regions, substantial and varied negative impacts have been documented. Feeding activity uproots aquatic plants, reducing food and breeding habitat for native invertebrates, birds and fishes⁹. The associated disturbance of bottom sediments may increase turbidity and further inhibit plant growth. Larval carp may compete with native fish species for zooplankton⁹. Adults compete with native fishes for benthic invertebrate prey. Predation on eggs of native fishes may adversely impact prey populations⁶.

***NOTE - We are not seeking reports on common carp:** This information sheet has been included to help you differentiate common carp from similar-looking species of carp in the guide, e.g., grass carp (Cyp-cte-ide) and goldfish (Cyp-car-aur) which should be reported as per section 3.0 REPORTING PROCEDURE.

Silver Carp

Hypophthalmichthys molitrix

Other common name: None

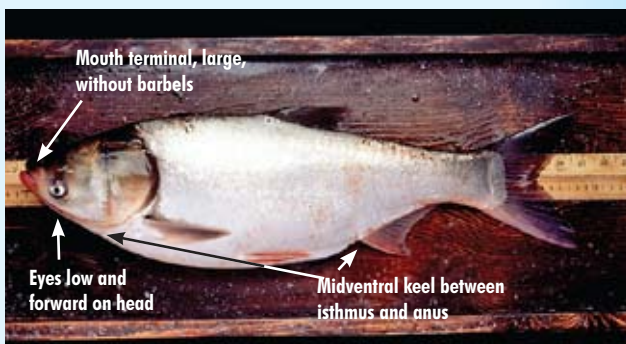


Photo: David Riecks, Great Lakes Sea Grant Network Exotic Species Library

DESCRIPTION: Body: fusiform, broad, moderately compressed with a moderately long caudal peduncle; a smooth midventral keel runs from the anus to the isthmus; total length 40-70 cm (up to 130 cm). **Mouth:** terminal, disproportionately large, without barbels; lower jaw slightly longer than the upper one. **Eyes:** positioned ventrally, forward on the head. **Fins:** dorsal fin short, lacking spines, with 7-10 rays, originating behind the origin of the pelvic fins. **Scales:** very small, 91-124 along a ventrally curved lateral line. **Colour:** olive to grayish black on back with silvery sides blending to white below, with fins showing darker pigmentation.^{1,2}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Suckers (Catostomidae) have thick lips with folds or small, nipple-like fleshy bumps³. Common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*: Cyp-cyp-car in this guide) and goldfish (*Carassius auratus*: Cyp-car-aur in this guide) have a stout serrated spine in the dorsal fin and anal fin⁴. The golden shiner (*Notemigonus crysoleucas*) and rudd (*Scardinius erythrophthalmus*: Cyp-sca-ery in this guide) possess a midventral keel but have larger scales numbering fewer than 60 in the lateral line⁵. The silver carp closely resembles the bighead carp (*Hypophthalmichthys nobilis*: Cyp-hyp-nob in this guide),

which differs in having a midventral keel that is less extensive, running from the anus to the pelvic fins and has dark blotches on the body¹.

HABITAT: Large river systems, lakes and impoundments from temperate to subtropical climates. Has been reported feeding at temperatures as low as 2.5°C⁶. Often swims near the surface. It can withstand low levels of oxygen².

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not yet recorded in Ontario^{7,8}. Documented from open waters of the Mississippi, Missouri and Ohio watersheds in the United States. In 2002, an electric barrier was installed in the Chicago Sanitary and Ship Canal to prevent the dispersal of this and other species between the Mississippi and Great Lakes watersheds⁹. Also found in Central America, Cuba, India and Japan¹⁰.

NATIVE RANGE: Lowland rivers of eastern China and Russia^{2,9}.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Before the possession of live silver carp was prohibited in Ontario in 2005, its availability in the live food fish industry posed a considerable risk of accidental or unlawful release¹¹. Another potential source is dispersal or transfer from the Mississippi watershed within states bordering the Great Lakes⁹. In the United States, it has become established following escape from freshwater aquaculture facilities where it is used to control phytoplankton blooms. Because the juvenile silver carp is similar in appearance to, and may be mistaken for, some baitfish species, it may be unintentionally spread through the use of live bait.

IMPACTS: The ecology of silver carp in its introduced North American range remains largely unstudied. As it feeds primarily on phytoplankton, and secondarily on zooplankton, it may compete for food with native fishes and filter-feeding invertebrates, with wider effects on food web and trophic structure^{2,9}. When disturbed, silver carp frequently leaps clear of the water, posing a risk of harm to boaters². It may also be a vector for parasites and diseases affecting native species¹¹.

Bighead Carp

Hypophthalmichthys nobilis

Other common name: None

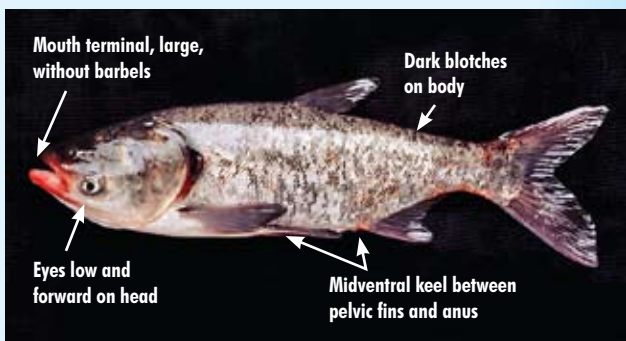


Photo: David Riecks, Great Lakes Sea Grant Network Exotic Species Library

DESCRIPTION: Body: fusiform, broad and moderately compressed with a moderately long caudal peduncle; a smooth midventral keel runs from the anus to the pelvic fins; total length 40-70 cm (up to 130 cm). **Mouth:** terminal, disproportionately large, without barbels, lower jaw slightly longer than the upper one. **Eyes:** positioned ventrally, forward on the head. **Fins:** dorsal fin short, lacking spines, with 7-10 rays, originating behind the origin of the pelvic fins; males possess a sharp-edged bony margin to the dorsal surface of several anterior pectoral fin rays. **Scales:** very small, 91-120 along a ventrally curved lateral line. **Colour:** solid grey on back blending to white below, with numerous, irregular grayish-black blotches.^{1,2}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Suckers (Catostomidae) have a sub-terminal mouth, thick lips with folds or small, nipple-like fleshy bumps³. Common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*: Cyp-cyp-car in this guide) and goldfish (*Carassius auratus*: Cyp-car-aur in this guide) have a stout serrated spine in the dorsal fin and anal fin⁴. The golden shiner (*Notemigonus crysoleucas*) and rudd (*Scardinius erythrophthalmus*: Cyp-sca-ery in this guide) possess a midventral keel but have larger scales numbering fewer than 60 in the lateral line⁵. Very closely resembles the silver carp (*Hypophthalmichthys molitrix*: Cyp-hyp-mol in this guide) which differs in

having a midventral keel that is more extensive, running from the anus to the isthmus. Silver carp also lacks dark blotches on the body¹.

HABITAT: Large river systems and lakes from temperate to subtropical climates⁶. Often swims near the surface. Can withstand low levels of oxygen².

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, there have been three occurrences documented from 2000 through 2003, all in western Lake Erie⁷. In 2002, an electric barrier was installed in the Chicago Sanitary and Ship Canal to prevent the dispersal of this and other species between the Mississippi and Great Lakes watersheds⁶. Recorded in open waters of the Mississippi watershed in the United States, and also in Central America, Cuba, India, and Japan⁸.

NATIVE RANGE: Eastern Asia in China and far eastern Russia⁶.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Before the possession of live bighead carp was prohibited in Ontario in 2005, its availability in the live food fish industry posed a considerable risk of accidental or unlawful release⁷. Another potential source is dispersal or transfer from the Mississippi watershed within states bordering the Great Lakes⁶. In the United States, it has become established following escape from freshwater aquaculture facilities where it is raised for food or used to control phytoplankton blooms. Because the juvenile bighead carp is similar in appearance to, and may be mistaken for, some baitfish species, it may be unintentionally spread through the use of live bait.

IMPACTS: The ecology of bighead carp in its introduced North American range remains largely unstudied. As it is a large bodied fish feeding primarily on zooplankton, and secondarily on phytoplankton, it may compete for food with native fishes and filter-feeding invertebrates, with wider effects on food web and trophic structure^{2,6}. It may be a vector for parasites and diseases affecting native species⁷.

Black Carp

Mylopharyngodon piceus

Other common names: Black Amur, snail carp



Photo: Black Carp (261 millimeter SL) from the species' native range in the Chang (Yangtze) River Basin, Hunan Province, People's Republic of China. (Collected by C. Zhang, F. Fang, and colleagues during trip financed by the European Commission, INCO-DEV program, project ECOCARP, contract number ICA4-CT-2001-10024. Photography courtesy of Fang Fang Kullander, Swedish Museum of Natural History, Stockholm.)

DESCRIPTION: Body: stout and fusiform, cylindrical to slightly compressed; caudal peduncle short and relatively deep; total body length may reach 200 cm. **Mouth:** terminal to slightly subterminal, of small to moderate size, without barbels. **Pharyngeal teeth:** a single row of four or five large, flat, molariform teeth on each side, visible on dissection. **Fins:** spines absent; anal fin set far back; dorsal fin short with 7–9 rays; caudal fin large and forked. **Scales:** moderately large, 39–46 in the lateral line. **Colour:** variable, dark brown to black on back and sides, some white on underside, fins dark.¹

SIMILAR SPECIES: Suckers (Catostomidae) have a subterminal mouth, thick lips with folds or small, nipple-like fleshy bumps². Common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*: Cyp-cyp-car in this guide) and goldfish (*Carassius auratus*: Cyp-car-aur in this guide) have a stout serrated spine in the dorsal fin and anal fin³. The fallfish (*Semotilus corporalis*) has a head that is not as broad, and its anal fin is set farther forward: the distance from the origin of the anal fin to the base of the caudal fin is more than 1.5 times the distance from the origin of the pelvic fin

to the origin of the anal fin². Resembles the grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*: Cyp-cte-ide in this guide), which tends to be lighter in colouration and possesses two rows of long, finely grooved pharyngeal teeth on each side. This identification character may not be applicable to juvenile fish (< 30 mm total length)¹.

HABITAT: Large river systems and embayments, in temperate to sub-tropical climates⁴. Found lower in the water column than other Asian carps and at a wide range of depths⁵.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Not recorded from the wild in Ontario^{5,6,7}. Recorded in open waters of the Mississippi River and Red River watersheds in the United States; also found in Mexico, Cuba, Europe and Japan⁴.

NATIVE RANGE: Far eastern Asia from southern Russia to northern China⁴.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Before the possession of live black carp was prohibited in Ontario in 2005, its availability in the live food fish industry posed a considerable risk of accidental or unlawful release⁵. There is some possibility that records of this species in Toronto markets are based on the misidentification of other species⁵. Another potential source is dispersal or transfer from the Mississippi watershed within states bordering the Great Lakes⁵. In the United States, it has escaped from freshwater aquaculture facilities where it is raised for food or is introduced for the control of disease-carrying snails⁴.

IMPACTS: As a dedicated molluscivore, this species poses a considerable threat to native snails and mussels in the Great Lakes basin, a high proportion of which are already at risk⁴. It may be a vector for parasites and diseases affecting native species^{4,5}.

Rudd

Scardinus erythrophthalmus

Other common name: None

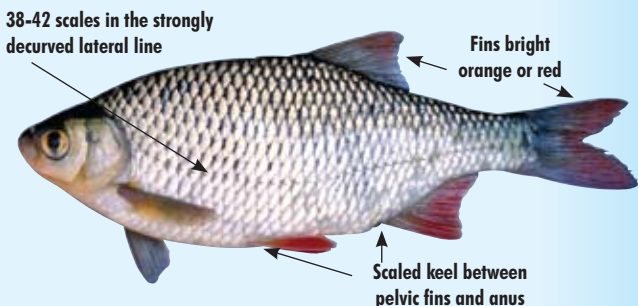


Photo: John Lyons, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources

DESCRIPTION: Body: robust, laterally compressed and elliptical in profile; scaled keel between pelvic fins and anus; lateral line strongly decurved; total length 100-250 mm (up to 360 mm). **Mouth:** terminal and oblique, without barbels. **Eyes:** iris yellow to orange, often with red spot over pupil. **Scales:** anterior radii present; lateral line count 38-42. **Colour:** brown-green above, brassy yellow to rosy sides, fins bright orange or red.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The juvenile rudd closely resembles the golden shiner (*Notemigonus crysoleucas*) which differs in the following characters: fins clear to pale orange (usually yellow), not bright orange or red⁴, lateral line scales 44-54; anterior radii on scales absent; midventral line keeled and not scaled; red spot on the iris above pupil absent².

HABITAT: The rudd is most often found in still or sluggish, often vegetated water but it can inhabit a variety of freshwater habitats³. Commonly occurs in the upper portion of the water column⁵ and may thrive in degraded habitats unsuitable for native species⁶.

INTRODUCED RANGE: Since the rudd was first detected in Ontario in 1990, there have been scattered occurrences

from the lower Great Lakes and one inland record on Wilcox Lake, Humber River watershed, north of Toronto^{7,8}. It is widely established in United States⁶.

NATIVE RANGE: Western Europe to the Caspian and Aral Sea basins⁶.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The Ontario occurrences of the rudd were likely derived from populations in New York State, where, as elsewhere in the United States, it has been introduced for sport and food and is cultured and sold as a baitfish². The source of many introduced populations is unknown; however, in some instances, the founders are presumed to have dispersed far from the point of original release⁶. Because rudd may be superficially similar in appearance to, and potentially mistaken for, some baitfish species, it may be unintentionally spread through the use of live bait.

IMPACTS: Largely unknown and unstudied in North America. The rudd may compete with native fishes for invertebrate food sources⁶. By feeding on macrophytes, it may alter the structure and composition of spawning and nursery sites utilized by native fishes. It has been suggested that genetic compatibility between the rudd and the golden shiner poses a threat to the genetic integrity of the latter species⁹.

Tench

Tinca tinca

Other common name: None



Photo: Mark Malchoff, Lake Champlain Sea Grant Project

DESCRIPTION: Body: deep and moderately laterally compressed; caudal peduncle is deep and short; total length 203-254 mm (up to 840 mm). **Mouth:** terminal, a single, slender barbel at the corner of the mouth, on each side of the head. **Fins:** dark and rounded, without spines. **Scales:** characteristically small, numbering from 95-105 along the lateral line. **Colour:** dark olive to pale golden tan above, white to bronze below with a bright reddish-orange eye.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Superficially resembles other native and introduced cyprinids but can be distinguished by the deep body, high lateral line scale count and the single barbel at each corner of the mouth³.

HABITAT: The tench inhabits lakes and slow-moving, weedy waterways with muddy substrates. It can tolerate low levels of dissolved oxygen and a broad temperature range from near freezing to 24°C^{1,4}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: The tench is not yet known from Ontario^{5,6}. The range in Canada is limited to the Columbia watershed in British Columbia⁷ and the Richelieu River in Québec⁴. It is well established in the United States, particularly in the Mississippi watershed.

It has also been introduced to Australia, Africa and South America⁷.

NATIVE RANGE: Europe and western Asia¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The tench has been lawfully introduced for food and sport across the United States⁷. An unlawful release in Québec following an aquaculture trial has led to its establishment in the Richelieu River, a tributary of the St. Lawrence River from which it may enter Ontario⁴. Another potential path of entry to Ontario is through dispersal or transfer from the Mississippi watershed within states bordering the Great Lakes. Because tench may be superficially similar in appearance to, and potentially mistaken for, some baitfish species, it may be unintentionally spread through the use of live bait.

IMPACTS: Direct impacts on other fish have not been documented; however, it is a potential competitor with minnows, bullheads and suckers for prey including gastropods and insect larvae⁴. Selective predation upon grazing snails may result in increased algal biomass and the feeding behaviour may stir up sediments, leading to decreased water clarity⁷.

Fourspine Stickleback

Apeltes quadracus

Other common names: Stickleback, pinfish, mud-pouch, mud-perch, bloody stickleback

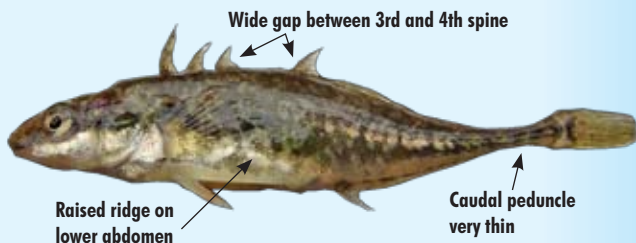


Photo: Mark Goutreau, Canadian Rivers Institute, University of New Brunswick

DESCRIPTION: Body: fusiform, compressed laterally; caudal peduncle very thin, without a lateral keel; ridge on both sides of the lower abdomen behind pectoral fins; total length 51–64 mm (up to 70 mm). **Mouth:** terminal, small, lower jaw projecting slightly. **Fins/spines:** four dorsal spines, inclined alternately to left and right, of graduated size (decreasing towards posterior) with the first three close together followed by a wide gap between the third and the fourth, which is attached to a soft dorsal fin with 10–13 soft rays; pelvic fin modified to form one serrated spine with two soft rays. **Scales/plates:** none. **Colour:** olive-green to brown on back, dark, mottled brown sides and silvery-white on belly; males may be all black; breeding male has red pelvic fins.^{1,2,3,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The brook stickleback (*Culaea inconstans*) has four to six (usually five) free dorsal spines of similar length, typically less than eye diameter. The threespine stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*: Gas-gas-acu in this guide) has two to four (usually three) free dorsal spines, the first inserted over the pectoral base, the first two substantially larger than the third, or fourth, if present; caudal peduncle usually with a lateral keel^{1,5,6}.

HABITAT: Shallow, brackish estuarial waters and, less frequently, fresh water streams and lakes¹. In its introduced range in Lake Superior, it is found in heavily vegetated shallows⁷.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the fourspine stickleback is found in Lake Superior, from Thunder Bay east to the mouth of the Black River^{7,8}. In the United States, it is established in Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Alabama⁹.

NATIVE RANGE: Coastal areas of eastern North America from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Virginia¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Its detection in Lake Superior in 1986 is thought to have followed an introduction from ballast water transport. Bait bucket transfers pose the risk of further spread⁷.

IMPACTS: The fourspine stickleback may compete with other species for invertebrate prey. It may also prey upon the eggs and larvae of other fishes in the nearshore habitats preferred by this species. Populations of native sticklebacks declined following the establishment of this species in Lake Superior⁷.

Threespine Stickleback

Gasterosteus aculeatus

Other common names: Twospine stickleback, banstickle, spanstickle, saw-finned stickleback, eastern stickleback

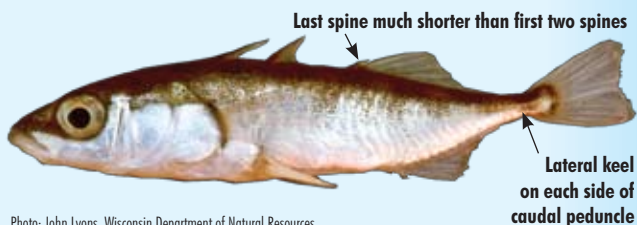


Photo: John Lyons, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources

DESCRIPTION: Body: fusiform, compressed laterally; narrow caudal peduncle usually with a lateral keel; total length 35-65 mm (up to 100 mm). **Mouth:** small, terminal and slightly oblique. **Fins/spines:** two to four (usually three) free dorsal spines, the first inserted over the pectoral base, the first two substantially larger than the third, or fourth, if present; soft dorsal fin with 9-11 connected rays; pelvic fin modified to form one spine with a single pointed cusp and one soft ray. **Scales/plates:** lacks scales and may have up to 30 small bony plates on the sides; native Lake Ontario form partially plated. **Colour:** green to brownish above with some darker markings, shading to silvery below; breeding males are bright red on lower sides and belly.^{1,2,3,4,5}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The brook stickleback (*Culaea inconstans*) has four to six (usually five) free dorsal spines of similar length, typically less than eye diameter and is without lateral keels on the caudal peduncle. The fourspine stickleback (*Apeltes quadracus*: Gas-ape-quaa in this guide) usually has four dorsal spines, inclined alternately to left and right, of graduated size (decreasing towards posterior) with the first three being close together followed by a wide gap between the third and the fourth^{1,2}.

HABITAT: Varied - common in shallow weedy areas in rivers, streams, lakes and ponds as well as pelagic and deep-water (up to 50 m) habitats^{1,2,6}. It also occurs in brackish and marine waters¹.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the threespine stickleback is established in Lakes Erie, Huron, Superior and connecting waterways^{6,7}; also found in inland waters of California and parts of Europe⁸.

NATIVE RANGE: In Ontario, from Niagara Falls, through Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence and Ottawa Rivers, and the Hudson Bay Lowland. Widely distributed throughout the northern hemisphere, in North America along the west and east coasts south to Baja California and Virginia, respectively; also in Europe, Greenland and the Pacific coast of Asia^{1,3}.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: In the Great Lakes, the species was first detected beyond Lake Ontario (where it is native) in Lakes Huron, Michigan, Superior, and Erie from the years 1980 to 1988⁶. These introductions are thought to have resulted from both ballast water and bait bucket transfers^{5,6}.

IMPACTS: Populations of native sticklebacks declined following the establishment of this species in Lake Superior⁶. Hybridization between native and introduced forms may be occurring in Lake Ontario, with unknown consequences. It may compete with other species for invertebrate prey and it may prey upon the eggs and larvae of other fishes⁸.

GOBIIDAE / Goby Family

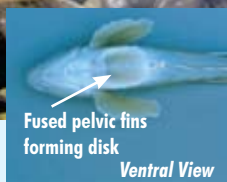
Round Goby

Neogobius melanostomus

Other common name: None



Photo: Michael Butler



Inset: John Lyons, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources

DESCRIPTION: Body: cylindrical, snout rounded to blunt; total length 60-160 mm (up to 250 mm). **Mouth:** wide, terminal to slightly subterminal; lips large, without barbels; nostril tubes do not reach upper lip. **Fins:** first dorsal with 5-7 spines; second dorsal long with one spine followed by 13-16 soft rays; the pelvic fins are fused to form a suction disk; anal fin has one spine and 11-14 soft rays; caudal fin rounded. **Scales:** small, covering the top of the head, behind the eyes, and body, 45-57 along midline (without a lateral line). **Colour:** back and sides mottled black, brown, or gray on a lighter brown, olive, or gray background, cream to white below; characteristic black spot, larger than the eye, on the rear of the first dorsal fin, although this feature is not apparent on some specimens. During spawning and nest guarding, males are black with yellow spots on the body.^{1,2,3,4,5}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The tubenose goby (*Proterorhinus marmoratus*: Gob-pro-mar in this guide) differs in having elongated nostril tubes extending over the upper lip and is without a black spot on first dorsal fin. Native sculpins

(*Cottus* spp. and *Myoxocephalus thompsonii*) are without scales and usually without a black spot on the first dorsal fin; pelvic fins are separate and do not form a suckorial disk^{1,4}.

HABITAT: Cobble, gravel and sandy substrates, with or without vegetation, in nearshore and deep waters, in lakes and the middle and lower reaches of rivers². It can withstand low levels of dissolved oxygen³.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, found in all Great Lakes, as well as the Trent River, Rice Lake, and Lake Simcoe in the Trent-Severn Waterway^{6,7}. Also in western Europe².

NATIVE RANGE: Black and Caspian Sea basins².

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD:

Introduced from Europe in ballast water. All Great Lakes were invaded in a short time span following the initial discovery in the St. Clair River in 1990. This suggests that inter- and intra-lake transfers via ballast water, along with population growth and dispersal, have facilitated its spread. The diel vertical migration of round goby larvae may also have contributed to their rapid dispersal⁸. It is illegal to possess the round goby in Ontario; however, because round goby has the potential to be mistaken for some baitfish species, it may be unintentionally spread through the use of live bait.

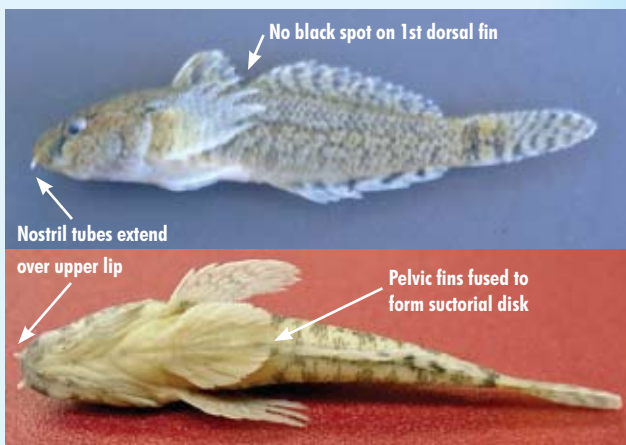
IMPACTS: The round goby competes with, and/or preys upon, native benthic fishes including mottled sculpin (*Cottus bairdii*) and logperch (*Percina caprodes*)^{9,10} and threatens at least a dozen already imperiled fish species in the Lake Erie basin¹¹. The round goby also eats fish eggs and larvae and so may pose a threat to stocks of game fish¹². It has been shown to alter energy, contaminant, and nutrient pathways in the Great Lakes¹³.

GOBIIDAE / Goby Family

Tubenose Goby

Proterorhinus marmoratus

Other common name: None



Photos: Top - John Lyons, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources; Bottom - Lynda Corkum, University of Windsor

DESCRIPTION: Body: cylindrical but somewhat flattened on ventral surface; snout rounded to blunt; total length 60-110 mm (up to 115 mm). **Mouth:** wide, slightly subterminal; lips large, without barbels; nostril tubes extend over the upper lip. **Fins:** first dorsal with 7-8 spines; second dorsal long with one spine followed by 14-18 soft rays; pelvic fins are fused to form a suction disk; anal fin has one spine and 12-15 soft rays; caudal fin rounded. **Scales:** small, covering the top of the head, behind the eyes, and body, 45-48 along midline (without a lateral line). **Colour:** back and sides with dark, broad, oblique blotches on a lighter brown, olive, or tan background; cream to white below; prominent oblique black lines on dorsal fins; a triangular black spot, bordered by two white spots at the base of the caudal fin.^{1,2,3,4,5}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The round goby (*Neogobius melanostomus*: Gob-neo-mel in this guide) differs in having nostril tubes which do not reach over the upper lip. The round goby often has a black spot on the posterior portion of the first dorsal fin. Native sculpins (*Cottus* spp.

and *Myoxocephalus thompsonii*) are without scales and the pelvic fins are separate and do not form a suction disk^{2,4}.

HABITAT: Inshore areas with plant cover in lakes and rivers³. In the Detroit River, tubenose gobies were positively associated with complex macrophytes in the fall, and strongly negatively associated with complex macrophytes in the spring and summer⁶. It can withstand low levels of dissolved oxygen³.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, from the St. Clair River to Lake St. Clair and Lake Erie^{7,8}. In Lake Superior, recorded from Duluth Harbor, Minnesota⁹. Also found in central Europe³.

NATIVE RANGE: Black and Caspian Sea basins³.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: First detected in the St. Clair River in 1990³, it was introduced from eastern Europe in ballast water¹⁰. It is illegal to possess tubenose goby in Ontario; however, there is a possibility that it may be unintentionally spread through the use of live bait. Inter- and intra-lake transfers via ballast water may result in further spread. This species has not dispersed as widely or reached the densities documented for round goby¹¹.

IMPACTS: While the impacts are not yet known, the tubenose goby may compete with, and prey upon, native benthic fishes in a manner similar to that documented for the larger round goby^{11,12}. It may also impact, through predation and competition, non-benthic fish species that utilize the tubenose goby's preferred littoral zone habitat as sites for spawning and nurseries.

White Perch

Morone americana

Other common names: Narrow-mouthed bass, silver perch, perch, bass, sea perch

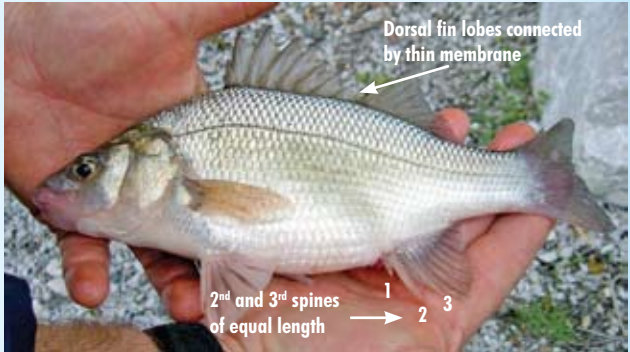


Photo: Jeff White, St. Michael's College, Vermont

DESCRIPTION: Body: laterally compressed and deep, deepest under the first dorsal fin, steeply sloped from the dorsal origin to the eye; total length 127-178 mm (up to 300 mm). **Mouth:** terminal and moderately large, extending to below the eye. **Fins:** spiny and soft-rayed dorsal fins joined at base by a small membrane; anal fin with 8-10 soft rays preceded by three stout anal spines, not graduated in length, the second and third are of approximately equal length. **Colour:** from grayish green to dark green-brown above, paler on sides and silvery-white below.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The white bass (*Morone chrysops*) grows larger and is more uniformly silver, usually with prominent dark horizontal stripes, anal fin with 12-13 soft rays, anal spines graduated in length, and the first and second dorsal fins not joined by a small membrane¹. Hybridization, producing blended characters has been documented in Lake Erie⁴.

HABITAT: The white perch thrives in brackish and freshwaters that exceed 23°C in summer. Exploits shallow and deep waters¹.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the Great Lakes (excluding Lake Superior) as well as the Thames, St. Clair and Detroit Rivers. It is not yet known from the Trent-Severn or Rideau Waterways⁵. In the United States, white perch has become established in numerous states in the Mississippi watershed⁶.

NATIVE RANGE: Atlantic coastline of North America including lower St. Lawrence River south to South Carolina¹.

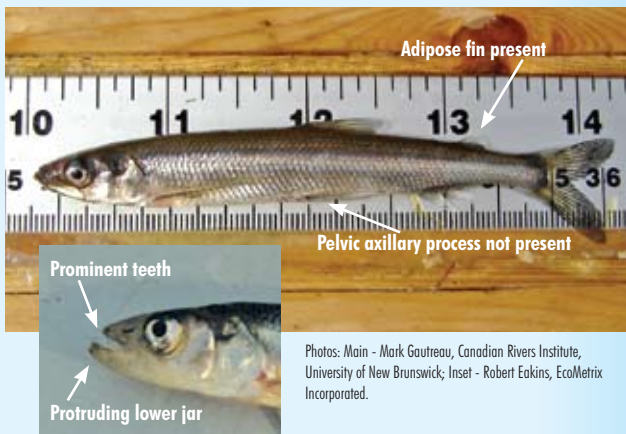
PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The white perch entered the lower Great Lakes via the Erie Barge and Welland Canals in the early 1950's and spread westward¹. It is widely stocked as a sport fish throughout much of the Mississippi River watershed in the United States⁶.

IMPACTS: The diet includes zooplankton, insect larvae and fishes and so the white perch may compete with native game and forage fishes⁶. In spring, fish eggs are a major food source⁷ and this may limit the recruitment of walleye. In the Bay of Quinte, Lake Ontario, the establishment of large populations of white perch coincided with the decline of yellow perch and walleye stocks⁷. Hybridization with native white bass may degrade the gene pool of that species⁴.

Rainbow Smelt

Osmerus mordax

Other common names: Smelt, American smelt, freshwater smelt, leafish



DESCRIPTION: Body: elongate, compressed laterally, deepest anterior to dorsal fin origin; total length 178-203 mm (up to 350 mm). **Mouth:** terminal, large, without barbels, with prominent teeth on the tongue and the roof of mouth; lower jaw protruding. **Fins:** without spines; single dorsal fin with 8-11 soft rays; caudal fin forked; anal fin with low profile and long base, 12-16 soft rays; adipose fin present. **Scales:** thin and easily detached, 62-72 pored scales in an incomplete lateral line. **Colour:** black to olive-tan back, silvery sides with iridescent blue, purple and pink hues, and whitish belly; head and posterior edge of tail darkly pigmented.^{1,2,3,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Superficially similar minnow species lack an adipose fin and prominent teeth. In salmonids, including trout, salmon, lake herring and whitefish, the lateral line is complete and a pelvic axillary process is present^{1,3,4}.

HABITAT: Clear lakes, rivers and coastal waters, often schooling in open water and spawning in streams^{1,2}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, found in all of the Great Lakes, the Trent-Severn Waterway from Lake Simcoe to Port Severn as well as Stony Lake, many Muskoka and Parry Sound area lakes, the Ottawa River and Lake Nipissing. In northwest Ontario, found in the Lake Nipigon basin and in the Rainy and English-Wabigoon River systems including Lake of the Woods^{5,6}. In the United States, established in the northeast as well as parts of the Colorado, Missouri, Mississippi and Tennessee River drainages⁷.

NATIVE RANGE: In eastern North America, Atlantic coastal drainages from Labrador to New Jersey, as well as landlocked waters in Québec, the Maritime Provinces and New England states. Also found in Pacific drainages of North America and Asia^{1,2}.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD:

Populations in Lake Erie and the upper Great Lakes are derived from deliberate stocking in Michigan in the early 1900's¹. The rainbow smelt likely invaded Lake Ontario from inland populations in New York State⁸. Its spread may be abetted by inter- and intra-lake transport in ballast water. Population growth, dispersal and bait bucket transfers resulted in further spread in Canada^{1,5}. Another possible vector is through the improper disposal of fish remains, containing gametes, following the harvest of ripe fish during the spring spawning run⁹. In the United States, this species has been introduced as forage and sold as bait for game fishes⁷.

IMPACTS: Native fish species are impacted, sometimes extirpated, through competition with, and/or predation by, rainbow smelt. Affected species include yellow perch (*Perca flavescens*), walleye (*Sander vitreus*), lake herring (*Coregonus artedii*), bloater (*C. hoyi*), whitefish (*C. clupeaformis*), lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*), and slimy sculpin (*Cottus cognatus*)^{9,10}. Invasive rainbow smelt may disrupt food webs and induce significant changes in zooplankton communities¹¹.

Ruffe

Gymnocephalus cernuus

Other common names: Eurasian ruffe, blacktail, redfin darter, river ruffe

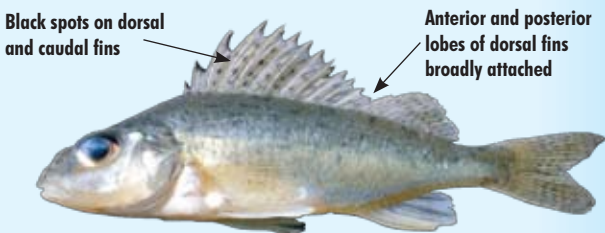


Photo: John Lyons, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources

DESCRIPTION: Body: fusiform, fairly deep and compressed; total length 110-150 mm (up to 250 mm).

Fins: long anterior lobe of dorsal fin with 11-18 spines broadly attached by a membrane to a posterior soft lobe with one spine and 11-16 soft rays. **Head:** unscaled.

Mouth: terminal to slightly subterminal. **Colour:** green-brown above, dark patches on light brown sides, yellowish below, black spots on dorsal and caudal fins.^{1,2,3}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Yellow perch (*Perca flavescens*) has two separate dorsal fins and a body pattern with dark vertical bars. The trout-perch (*Percopsis omiscomaycus*) has a short, single-lobed dorsal fin, and an adipose fin is present².

HABITAT: Highly adaptable - exploits a very wide range of depths and conditions in lakes and rivers. Spawns between 4.9° and 20°C⁴.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the ruffe has been recorded from Thunder Bay, Lake Superior^{5,6}. In the United States it is found in Lakes Superior, Michigan and Huron⁷. It has been introduced to the United Kingdom⁸.

NATIVE RANGE: Northern Europe and Asia¹.

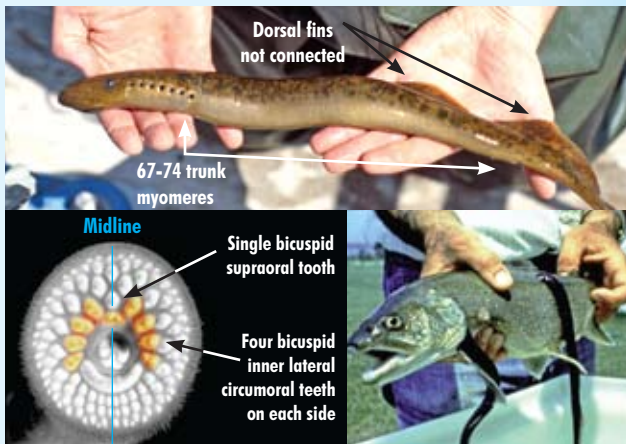
PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: The ruffe was transported to North America in the ballast water of vessels arriving from Europe before 1996, when it was first detected in Duluth Harbour, in Lake Superior⁸. It may spread further through ballast water exchange within the Great Lakes⁸. It is illegal to possess ruffe in Ontario; however, there is a possibility that it may be unintentionally spread through the use of live bait.

IMPACTS: Invasive ruffe can reach very high densities in short periods of time⁸, suggesting the potential of significant impacts upon other species. It may compete for zooplankton and benthic insects with native game and forage fishes. Direct predation on eggs and larvae may also impact other fish species^{4,8}.

Sea Lamprey

Petromyzon marinus

Other common names: Great sea lamprey, landlocked sea lamprey, lake lamprey, lamprey eel



Photos: Top - John Lyons, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources; Bottom - Great Lakes Sea Grant Network Exotic Species Library

DESCRIPTION: Body: long and flexible, nearly cylindrical to the dorsal fin where it becomes more laterally compressed; 67-74 trunk myomeres (counted from the last branchial pore to the anterior edge of the vent slit); total length 305-460 mm (up to 762 mm). **Mouth:** a sucking disc, as wide, or wider in diameter than the branchial region; buccal funnel filled with hard, hooked, sharp teeth, radiating in series from the centre; supraoral teeth reduced to a large, single, median bicuspid tooth; inner lateral circumoral teeth bicuspid, a row of four on each side. **Fins:** two dorsal fins separate; second dorsal connected to a broadly pointed caudal fin; without paired or anal fins. **Scales:** none; skin smooth and leathery. **Colour:** variable, newly transformed adults (total length 135-175 mm) grey blue above blending to violet on sides to silver-white below; in larger adult, body and first dorsal with dark blotches; breeding adult olive to orange above and on sides.^{1,2,3,4,5}

SIMILAR SPECIES: Silver lamprey (*Ichthyomyzon unicuspis*), chestnut lamprey (*I. castaneus*) and northern brook lamprey (*I. fossor*) have a single dorsal fin with a notch. Although the teeth of silver lamprey are similar to those of sea lamprey,

the silver lamprey has unicuspid inner lateral circumoral teeth. Northern brook lamprey and American brook lamprey (*Lampetra appendix*) are smaller (total length <205 mm) than mature sea lamprey and have an oral disk that is not as wide as the branchial region, and contains fewer, more blunt teeth^{1,4,5}. Immature individuals (ammocoetes) of *Ichthyomyzon* spp. can be distinguished from those of the sea lamprey by having a single notched dorsal fin and <62 trunk myomeres. Ammocoetes of American brook lamprey can be distinguished from those of sea lamprey by an absence of pigment on the upper lip and suborbital and branchial regions².

HABITAT: Immature sea lampreys (ammocoetes) are most common in the silty bottoms of rivers, streams, and sometimes lakes. Adults in landlocked populations feed in open waters of large rivers and lakes^{1,3}.

INTRODUCED RANGE: In Ontario, the introduced range includes the Great Lakes and associated channels and rivers upstream from Niagara Falls^{3,6}.

NATIVE RANGE: In Ontario, the native range is limited to Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River⁷. In eastern North America, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic coast from Labrador to the Gulf of Mexico. Also along the Atlantic coast of Europe and the Mediterranean Sea¹.

PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD: Sea lamprey colonized Lake Erie from Lake Ontario following improvements made to the Welland Canal in 1919. Population growth and dispersal led to the spread of this species through the remaining Great Lakes⁷.

IMPACTS: The parasitic feeding of sea lamprey weakens and most often kills its fish host. While sea lamprey preys upon a wide range of fishes, the invasive populations played a significant role in decimating native stocks of lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*), whitefish (*Coregonus clupeaformis*) and walleye (*Sander vitreus*). The reduction in stocks of large predatory fishes triggered a cascade of effects through the associated food web⁸. Some fish stocks have recovered as a result of costly and ongoing sea lamprey control programs⁸. With respect to the Lake Ontario population, the absence of records of its occurrence prior to 1835 suggests that it acquired the role of significant apex predator, necessitating control, in the last century⁹.

Pet-pet-mar

Eastern Mosquitofish *Gambusia holbrooki*

Western Mosquitofish *Gambusia affinis*

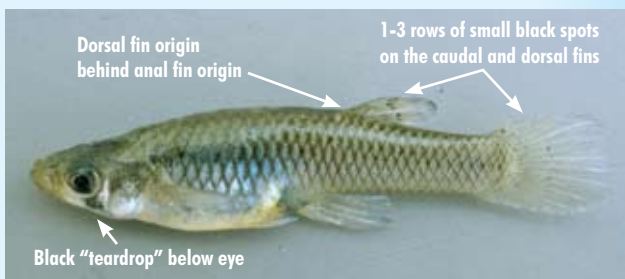


Photo: [*Gambusia affinis*, female] John Lyons, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources

DESCRIPTION: Body: elongate and somewhat compressed; females grow much larger than males and when pregnant show a distended abdomen, total length 22-55 mm (up to 65 mm). **Mouth:** small, supraterritorial. **Fins:** single dorsal fin with 6-7 soft rays, originating behind origin of the anal fin; anal fin of male modified to form the gonopodium, a long rod-like structure. **Scales:** 26-32 along the midline (without a lateral line). **Colour:** olive-grey to yellow-brown above, yellow and blue iridescence on silver-grey sides; sometimes with a darker midlateral stripe; black spot beneath eye; black anal spot on pregnant female; 1-3 rows of black spots on pale dorsal and anal fins; dark scale outline gives an overall cross-hatched appearance.^{1,2,3,4}

SIMILAR SPECIES: The banded killifish (*Fundulus diaphaneus*) and the central mudminnow (*Umbra limi*), both native to Ontario, have a dorsal fin origin ahead of the anal fin origin and more than 33 scales in lateral series³. Once considered subspecies of *Gambusia affinis*, the eastern and western mosquitofish are now recognized as species on the basis of differences in the chromosomes and the structure of the gonopodium⁵.

HABITAT: Shallow areas in streams, ponds and ditches, with and without vegetation. The mosquitofish

can tolerate low levels of dissolved oxygen and high temperatures². It may thrive in degraded and artificial habitats⁶.

INTRODUCED RANGE: The mosquitofishes are not yet known from the wild in Ontario. In the United States, they are established widely in the west, midwest and northeast, including several states bordering the Great Lakes^{7,8}. Established on all continents except Antarctica⁶.

NATIVE RANGE: The eastern mosquitofish is found in the eastern United States in Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico slope drainages, west through Alabama. The western mosquitofish is native to watersheds draining into the Gulf of Mexico, from Alabama through Texas, including much of the Mississippi River drainage as far north as Indiana and Illinois^{1,5}.

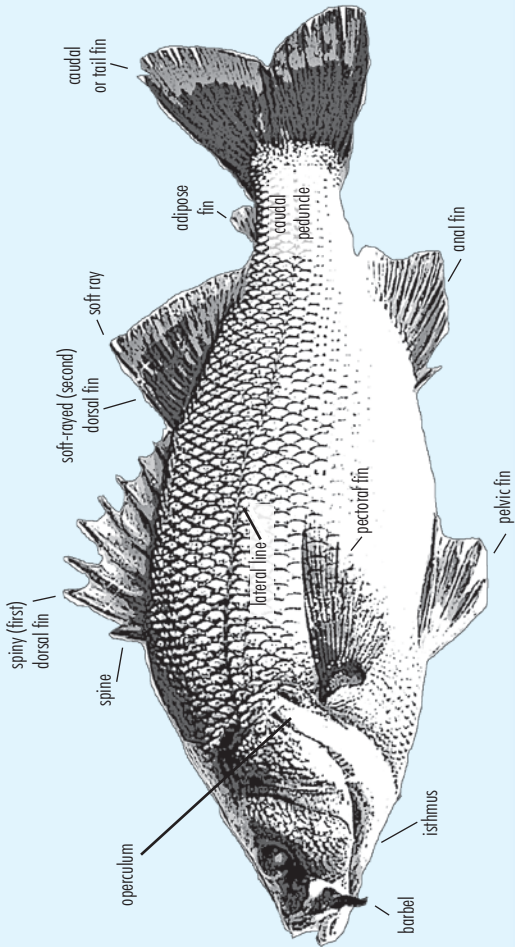
PATHWAY OF INTRODUCTION AND SPREAD:

Intentionally introduced in other parts of the world as an agent of mosquito control; subsequent spread resulted through population growth and dispersal^{6,7,8}. The aquarium and ornamental pond industries are potential vectors of accidental or unlawful release into open waters, particularly given ongoing public concern about mosquito-borne disease.

IMPACTS: As opportunistic predators, mosquitofish readily consume zooplankton and the eggs and larvae of other aquatic vertebrates⁹. This has led to the extirpation or reduction of populations of amphibians and other fishes^{6,10}, as well as changes to food web structure and water chemistry^{6,9}. The Invasive Species Specialist Group of the IUCN Species Survival Commission designated the mosquitofishes as being among the world's worst invasive species^{11,12}.

Fish Anatomy

(Image: Michael Butler, Trent University)



Glossary

AMMOCOETE – a larval form of a lamprey lacking eyes and teeth

BICUSPID – two-pointed

CAUDAL PEDUNCLE – posterior fleshy portion of the body between the anal and tail fins

BARBEL – a fleshy sensory appendage extending from the mouth, chin or nose

BRANCHIAL – pertaining to the gills

BUCCAL FUNNEL – the circular, jawless mouth of a lamprey

FUSIFORM – spindle shaped, tapering at both ends

ISTHMUS – fleshy narrowing between gill openings on the underside of the head

KEEL – a raised edge running lengthwise along the ventral midline or on the sides of the caudal peduncle

LATERAL LINE – series of pore-like openings along both sides of the body

MOLARIFORM – teeth with flattened, molar-like grinding surfaces

MYOMERE – a section of repeated muscle units

OBLIQUE (MOUTH) – the line of the closed mouth forms an angle of 45° or more

ORIGIN (FIN) – the most anterior point where the fin meets the body

PELVIC AXILLARY PROCESS – a lance-shaped projection at the base of each pelvic fin

PERITONEUM – the lining of the abdominal wall, the colour of which distinguishes some species

PHARYNGEAL TEETH – toothlike projections from the fifth gill arch, visible through dissection

SCALATION – the extent of the skin covered with scales

SCALE RADIUS – line radiating from the focus of the scale

SUBTERMINAL (MOUTH) – snout overhangs the mouth opening

SUPRATERMINAL (MOUTH) – lower jaw extends forward beyond the upward opening of the mouth

SUCTORIAL DISK – a round structure formed by the fusion of the pelvic fins on the underside of a goby

TERMINAL (MOUTH) – tips of both jaws form the most anterior portion of the head

UNICUSPID – single pointed

Reference:

Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.

3.0 REPORTING PROCEDURE

Collect A Specimen & Record Information



Report The Sighting

Your assistance with this process, when you encounter a species new to Ontario or an AIS already present but in a new waterbody, is an important step in managing invading species.

3.1 Collecting A Specimen

3.1.1 Algae

The simplest method to obtain algae for identification involves placing a sample of the algae in a sealable container with water and immediately refrigerating it until it can be brought to an expert for identification. A refrigerated specimen is only viable, for identification purposes, up to about 48 hours. See Method A in the table below for further details.

A different method involves adding to samples a preservative compound which preserves them for a couple of months. Methods B and C describe relatively easy applications with Lugol's preservative (iodine-based) or 70% ethanol. More information on these methods and other preservatives can be found in Stein (1973).

Materials & Methods - ALGAE

A. Refrigeration

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Container with lid• Water | <ol style="list-style-type: none">(1) Place a small clump of algae inside the container; if it is attached to substrate, scrape algae from surface into the container.(2) Fill about 3/4 of the container with water(3) Seal lid to prevent spillage(4) Label (date, location, species, contact)(5) Refrigerate as soon as possible and keep cold until ready to submit |
|--|---|

Materials & Methods - ALGAE

B. Lugol's preservative

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Container with lid• Water• Lugol's preservative | <ol style="list-style-type: none">(1) Place a small clump of algae inside the container; if it is attached to substrate, scrape algae from surface into the container.(2) Place about 5-10 ml of water in container(3) Add enough drops of Lugol's to turn the water a strong tea colour(4) Seal lid to prevent spillage(5) Label (date, location, species, contact)(6) Store away from heat and direct sunlight |
|---|---|

C. Ethanol

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Container with lid• 70% ethanol | <ol style="list-style-type: none">(1) Place a small clump of algae inside the container; if it is attached to substrate, scrape algae from surface into the container.(2) Fill about 3/4 of the container with 70% ethanol(3) Seal lid to prevent spillage(4) Label (date, location, species, contact)(5) Store away from heat and direct sunlight |
|--|--|

Notes: Water can be taken from the collection site or tap water. A small glass or plastic container, no more than 250 ml in size, is typically sufficient. Lugol's is usually applied to stain and preserve specimens for algal counts. Ethanol is a common preservative, but is not ideal for soft-celled algal species that may be in the sample.

References:

- Kirkwood, A. 2007. University of Calgary. Personal communication.
- Stein, J.R. 1973. Handbook of Phycological Methods. University Press, Cambridge, England.
- University of Wisconsin. 2007. Madison Botany 330 Algae Webpage, Preservation of Algal Samples. Available from http://www.botany.wisc.edu/courses/botany_330/preservation.html / [accessed August 2007].

3.1.2 Plants

Aquatic plants may be collected in two ways. The simplest method is to place the plant in a watertight bag, along with a sufficient quantity of water to keep it wet. The bag should be stored in a refrigerator, no longer than a week, until it can be brought to an expert for identification. If transporting the specimen via post or courier, the bag can be placed within a second bag to further reduce the risk of leakage. Additional protection can be afforded by placing the bags within an airtight container, such as a plastic jar. Further details can be found in Methods A and B in the following table.

The preferred method for collecting plant specimens is to press them using a plant press. This method produces a museum-quality specimen which is the best way to document an occurrence of an introduced species. Instructions for pressing robust aquatic plants are presented in Method C below. For finely-leaved species such as *Cabomba*, *Myriophyllum* and some *Potamogeton*, which tend to clump together into an undistinguishable mass when removed from water, follow the instructions in Method D where water is used to “float” out the plant onto waxed paper prior to pressing. This way, the plant features which are needed to confirm identification are easily visible.

For details on more effective plant presses for routine collections or longer-term storage, see the references at the end of this section.

Important! For all plant specimens, attempt to collect the entire plant, including fruits, flowers, stem, leaves, roots, and other vegetative organs like rhizomes or stolons. Rinse or shake away any excess soil on site. It is recommended to press and dry plants as soon after collecting them as possible. While collecting plants, avoid breaking them into fragments or allowing fruit or seeds to break free and fall. If it cannot be avoided, dispose of this material in the garbage so that fragments, fruit and seed are not spread to new areas where they can often produce more plants.

Materials & Methods - PLANTS

A. Refrigeration

- | | |
|----------------------|--|
| • Container with lid | (1) Fill about half of the container with water
(2) Place plant inside container |
| • Water | (3) Seal lid to prevent spillage
(4) Label (date, location, species, contact)
(5) Keep specimen refrigerated until ready to submit |

B. Refrigeration

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| • Plastic bags | (1) Soak paper towel with water |
| • Water | (2) Place wet paper towel in bag with enough water to line bottom of bag |
| • Paper towel | (3.a) Place entire plant inside bag, <u>or</u>
(3.b) For larger plants, place underwater or underground portion of plant (roots, rhizomes) in the bag and tighten around stem to keep moisture in
(4) If fruit or seed are falling off, cover this portion with another plastic bag
(5) Close bag(s) full with air, which helps cushion and protect contents
(6) Label (date, location, species, contact)
(7) Keep specimen refrigerated until ready to submit |

Notes: Water can be taken from the collection site or tap water. Size of container or bag needed depends on size or amount of plant collected. A 500 ml container or a freezer-size, watertight bag are generally sufficient but grocery-size or larger bags may be more appropriate.

C. Pressing plants

- | | |
|--|---|
| • Paper towel | (1) Gently dry wet plant with paper towel |
| • Newspaper | (2) On top of corrugated cardboard, place a layer of folded newspaper |
| • Corrugated cardboard (about same size as folded newspaper) | (3) Lay plant on folded newspaper - spread plant parts so there is minimum overlap between parts
- The stem can be folded zig-zag-like to fit, if needed |
| • Ribbon or straps, or some weight to press plant flat | - Display the underside of at least one leaf
- Press open flowers to display the inside
- Place any loose seed and fruit into a small paper packet/envelope |

Materials & Methods - PLANTS

C. Pressing plants *continued*

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Small paper packets or envelopes • (<i>preferable but optional</i>) <i>Thick blotting paper, felt, or thin foam sheets used in carpet underpadding</i> 	<p>(4) Cover plant with a layer of newspaper, then another piece of cardboard</p> <p>(5) Tie ribbon or straps around layers of cardboard and newspaper to fasten pieces together so contents stay in place</p> <p>(6) A weight of some form (e.g., book) may also be placed on top to help flatten and secure contents</p> <p>(7) Label (date, location, species, contact)</p> <p>(8) Store in a well ventilated, dry and warm area</p> <p>(9) If newspaper is damp after first 24 hours, replace it with dry newspaper and store as described in (8).</p> <p><i>If using blotting paper/felt/foam, place a sheet of this material between the cardboard and newspaper on each side of the specimen.</i></p>
---	--

D. Pressing plants

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Same as in Method C, plus wax paper (sufficient amount to fold and cover the bottom and top of plant) 	<p>(1) Float plants in water (at site or in a sink)</p> <p>(2) Place a sheet of wax paper under the plant in the water</p> <p>(3) Raise the sheet horizontally and let the plant catch or stick on the paper</p> <p>(4) Slowly tilt the sheet, in which the plant now lays, and remove them from the water</p> <p>(5) Follow steps in Method C above. In step C.3, rather than transferring the plant from wax paper to newspaper, place the wax paper, with the plant, onto the folded newspaper and cover plant with wax paper.</p>
---	---

Notes: The cardboard, newspaper and blotting paper/felt/foam help the drying process. The latter material also helps press thicker plant pieces as it cushions or takes the shape of its contents.

References:

- Bowles, J.M. 1996. Guide to plant collection & identification. University of Toronto, Toronto. Available from http://www.botany.utoronto.ca/courses/BOT307/B_How/janecoll.html [accessed July 2007].
- Savile, D.B.O. 1962. Collection and care of botanical specimens. Canada Department of Agriculture, Research Branch, Publication 113. Ottawa, Ontario.

3.1.3 Invertebrates

Collecting specimens of aquatic invertebrates may involve preserving them in alcohol, air drying or freezing them. These relatively simple methods are described in the table below. Instructions for alcohol preservation are presented in Method A; for very small organisms like waterfleas or zebra mussel veligers, apply Method B with alcohol. Directions to prepare dried specimens of molluscs, snails, clams, or crayfish smaller than about 4 cm in length (larger specimens may spoil before drying) are presented in Method C. These methods are preferred for identification purposes and for longer-term storage as voucher specimens. If they cannot be applied, freezing larger specimens will suffice for the immediate need of identification and is described in Method D.

It is recommended that these directions be preceded by cleaning of specimens (removing dirt from shells, etc.) and followed as soon after collecting organisms as possible. Live invertebrates kept in cool water usually die within one day of collection and start to spoil on the second day. If organisms are alive, particularly larger-bodied organisms (snail or crayfish-sized), euthanize them humanely (University of Alberta 2007 and Cordeiro and Bowers-Altman 2007 provide some options) before preserving them, i.e., prior to placing them in alcohol or drying.

Materials & Methods - INVERTEBRATES

A. Alcohol preservation

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Container with lid• 70-80% ethanol or isopropyl alcohol (rubbing alcohol) | <ol style="list-style-type: none">(1) Fill most of container with alcohol (more than enough to cover specimens fully)(2) Place specimen inside container(3) Seal lid to prevent spillage(4) Label (date, location, species, contact)(5) Store away from direct sunlight and heat(6) If alcohol appears cloudy after a few days, replace all but an inch from container bottom with fresh alcohol. |
|--|--|

B. Alcohol preservation

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Same as in Method A | <ol style="list-style-type: none">(1) Collect up to 1/3 of container with a water sample containing small organisms(2) Add 2x or more that amount of alcohol to the sample (2 parts alcohol: 1 part sample)(3) Seal lid to prevent spillage |
|---|---|

Materials & Methods - INVERTEBRATES

B. Alcohol preservation *continued*

- (4) Label (date, location, species, contact)
- (5) Store away from direct sunlight and heat

C. Air drying

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Newspaper or a flat pan• Container with lid• Cotton balls or tissue | <ul style="list-style-type: none">(1) Lay specimen on newspaper or flat pan(2) Air dry at 20-28°C for 3 to 4 days(3) Place completely dried specimen in container with cotton ball or tissue, which helps secure them in place(4) Seal lid(5) Label (date, location, species, contact)(6) Store in dry area |
|---|--|

D. Freezing

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Container with lid• Plastic bag | <ul style="list-style-type: none">(1) Place specimen inside plastic bag and seal(2) Place plastic bag, with the specimen, inside a container and close with lid (protects specimen during delivery)(3) Label (date, location, species, contact)(4) Store in freezer until ready to submit |
|--|--|

Notes: Size of container needed depends on size or number of specimens collected. A 500 ml container for alcohol preservation or a small plastic vial for dried specimens are generally sufficient.

References:

- Clarke, A.H. 1981. The freshwater molluscs of Canada. National Museum of Canada, Ottawa. Pp. 12-16.
- Cordeiro, J. and J. Bowers-Altman. 2007. Freshwater mussels of the New York Metropolitan Region and New Jersey. Center for Biodiversity and Conservation at the American Museum of Natural History, New York. Available from <http://cbc.amnh.org/mussel/> [accessed September 2007].
- Crocker, D.W. and D.W. Barr. 1971. Handbook of the crayfishes of Ontario. University of Toronto Press, Toronto. Pp. 137-138.
- Dermott, R. 2007. Fisheries and Oceans Canada. Personal communication.
- Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters. Invading Species Watch Program: an instruction manual for volunteers. Available from www.invadingspecies.com/downloads/pdf/WatchManual2006.pdf#Zoom=90% [accessed July 2007].
- University of Alberta. 2007. Freshwater invertebrate diversity: Zoology 351. Available from www.biology.ualberta.ca/courses.hp/zool351/general.htm [accessed September 2007].

3.1.4 Fishes

The discovery of an invasive fish species can be significant depending on the species and the location of capture. Even in cases where a competent biologist identifies the fish, properly collected voucher specimens allow for verification if identification is called into question. When you encounter a fish you wish to report, it is recommended that digital photos of the fish are taken and the fish be refrigerated, as described below in Methods A & B. Maintain the fish whole - do not gut, dissect, collect tissue or otherwise cut the fish - this step ensures that key morphological features needed for identification remain intact. It is important not to preserve or freeze the fish to ensure integrity of the specimen is maintained, which will enable confirmation of identification and various analyses including ploidy testing, DNA sequencing, morphological analyses, etc. The exception is for suspected invasive carp species that, in the case where there is no other way to prevent the fish from spoiling, it can be frozen as described in Method C. In this situation, extraction of eyeballs for ploidy testing is recommended (see tips under freezing).

Materials & Methods - FISHES

A. Photograph

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Camera (preferably digital so images can be sent ASAP)• Computer to download photos to send via email | <ol style="list-style-type: none">(1) Photograph whole fish with a ruler or other object so that the relative size of the fish is evident(2) Photograph significant external features (e.g., pelvic fin of the Round Goby, the tubular nostrils of the Tubenose Goby, the ventral keel of the Rudd) |
|--|--|

B. Refrigeration

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Plastic bags• Refrigerator or cooler with ice | <ol style="list-style-type: none">(1) Double bag the whole fish in plastic bags or other suitable container that will surround the entire fish and minimize abrasion and damage to body and fins, or drying out of the specimen(2) Place label with date, location, species and contact information for collector in bag |
|--|---|

Materials & Methods - FISHERIES

B. Refrigeration *continued*

- (3) Gently force as much air as possible from the bag, seal and place in the fridge
- (4) If refrigeration is not an option, place the bagged specimen in a cooler or some other suitable container with ice to keep cool, and store away from heat and direct sunlight.

C. Freezing

- Plastic bags
 - Freezer
- (1) Only freeze the fish if there is no other way to keep it from spoiling
 - (2) Place the whole fish in double plastic bags or other suitable container that will surround the entire fish and minimize abrasion and damage to body and fins, or drying out the specimen
 - (3) Place label with date, location, species, and contact information for collector in the bag
 - (4) Gently force as much air as possible from the bag, seal and place the plastic bag in the freezer

Notes: In the case of invasive carp specimens (bighead, black, silver and grass carps), if the only option to prevent the fish from spoiling is to freeze it, collect the eyeballs before freezing the fish. Take care to excise eyeballs whole, place in plastic bag, gently force air out of bag, seal, put in a sturdy container and keep refrigerated or on ice – Do Not Freeze Eyeballs – it is important that eyeballs do not dry out or get crushed.

References:

- Chapman, D. 2008. United States Geological Survey. Columbia, Missouri. Personal communication.
- Cudmore, B. 2008. Fisheries and Oceans Canada. Burlington, Ontario. Personal communication.
- Holm, E. 2008. Department of Natural History, Royal Ontario Museum. Toronto, Ontario. Personal communication.

3.2 Recording Information

Important details to document and submit are listed here. Items with asterisks * are the most significant pieces of information to document if not all details can be recorded. **Digital photos** (e.g., extent of the occurrence, specimen close-ups showing key ID features) are extremely helpful and can be emailed to invading_species@ofah.org.

Contact name*	Affiliation*
Phone number*	Email*
Date of observation* yyyy/mm/dd	Species scientific name*, common name
Waterbody name*	County*
Township*	Datum* Record the Datum being used with your GPS (NAD 83 preferred)
DDLatitude*, DDLongitude* In decimal degrees (DD); include at least 5 decimal places. E.g., 44.10016, -78.29386.	
<i>Or - UTM*</i> Although latitude/longitude are preferred, if providing UTM coordinates, include UTM Zone, Easting and Northing. E.g., Zone 17, 716599 E, 4886588 N.	
Source of coordinates* E.g., paper map, GPS, electronic or online maps and software, other (explain).	
Directions* Use stable landmarks or reference points (intersections, nearest town, etc.) which will remain long after the observation. E.g., East of the town of Bewdley, on South shore of Rice Lake, 250 metres East from Bamsey Dr. and Oak Hills Rd. intersection.	
Description of occurrence* Describe the habitat, number of individuals or size of occurrence, etc. E.g., in 20 x 50 metre shallow marsh, with approximately 10 flowering individuals.	
Other noteworthy information	

References:

Chapman, A.D. and J. Wiczorek (eds). 2006. Guide to best practices for georeferencing. Copenhagen: Global Biodiversity Information Facility.

Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. InvadingSpecies.com Report a sighting online form. Available from www.invadingspecies.com/Report.cfm [accessed July 2007].

3.3 Report The Sighting

Any occurrence of species new to Ontario or AIS already present but in a new area, whether they are included in the field guide or not, is important to *report to* the

Invading Species Hotline (1-800-563-7711) or

website (www.invadingspecies.com).

Once you submit information on the sighting via the hotline or website, program staff will contact you (or whomever was given as the contact) to clarify any details and discuss where the specimen you collected should go to confirm identification. This confirmation is done by a taxonomist/expert which might be, for example, at the local OMNR District Office, a university or museum. If you cannot bring the specimen to the appropriate location, alternative arrangements can be made for it to be picked-up, couriered or mailed.

Didymo

Didymosphenia geminata

1. MDDEP-MRNF Scientific Advisory Committee on *Didymosphenia geminata*. 2007. What is didymo and how can we prevent it from spreading in our rivers? Québec, ministère du Développement durable, de l'Environnement et des Parcs et ministère des Ressources naturelles et de la Faune. ISBN: 978-2-550-49391-4 (PDF).
2. Spaulding, S. and L. Elwell. 2007. Increase in nuisance blooms and geographic expansion of the freshwater diatom *Didymosphenia geminata*: recommendations for response. United States Environmental Protection Agency and Federation of FlyFishers, United States.
3. Kirkwood, A. 2007. University of Calgary. Personal communication.
4. Wehr, J.D. and R.G. Sheath. 2003. Freshwater algae of North America: ecology and classification. Academic Press, San Diego, USA.
5. Kilroy, C. 2004. A new alien diatom, *Didymosphenia geminata* (Lyngbye) Schmidt: its biology, distribution, effects and potential risks for New Zealand fresh waters. National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research, New Zealand. Client Report: CHC2004-128. Available from www.biosecurity.govt.nz/pests-diseases/plants/didymo/didyo-schmidt-report.pdf [accessed December 2006].

Water Lettuce

Pistia stratiotes

1. Thompson, S.A. 2000. Araceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 22: Magnoliophyta: Alismatidae, Arecidae, Commelinidae (in part), and Zingiberidae: Araceae. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 128-142.
2. Dray, F.A. Jr. and T.D. Center. 2002. Waterlettuce. *In* Biological control of invasive plants in the Eastern United States. *Edited by* R. Van Driesche, S. Lyon, B. Blossey, M. Hoddle, and R. Reardon. USDA Forest Service Publication FHTET-2002-04 [online]. Available from www.invasive.org/eastern/biocontrol/5Waterlettuce.html [accessed January 2007].
3. Darbyshire, S.J. 2002. Ephemeral occurrence of the Mosquito Fern, *Azolla caroliniana*, at Ottawa, Ontario. Canadian Field-Naturalist 116:441-445.
4. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
5. Cochran, P.A., S. Pociask, H. Warthesen, and N. Proulx. 2006. Noteworthy collection: Minnesota. *Pistia stratiotes* L. (Araceae). Waterlettuce. The Michigan Botanist 45: 210-213.
6. Stoddard, A.A. 1989. The phytogeography and paleofloristics of *Pistia stratiotes* L. Aquatics 11: 21-24.
7. Rivers, L. 2002. Water lettuce, *Pistia stratiotes* [online]. Available from <http://www.iisgcp.org/EXOTICSP/waterlettuce.htm> [accessed November 2006].
8. Attionu, R. H. 1976. Some effects of water lettuce (*Pistia stratiotes*, L.) on its habitat. Hydrobiologia 50: 245-254.

Mosquito Fern

Azolla pinnata

1. Webb, C.J., W.R. Sykes, and P.J. Garnock-Jones. 1988. Flora of New Zealand. Volume IV: Naturalised pteridophytes, gymnosperms, dicotyledons. Botany Division, Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, New Zealand [online]. Available from <http://floraseries.landcareresearch.co.nz> [accessed April 2007].

Mosquito Fern *continued*

2. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America: Volume 1 Pteridophytes, gymnosperms, and angiosperms: Dicotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 14-15.
3. Lumpkin, T.A. 1993. Azollaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 2: Pteridophytes and Gymnosperms. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 338-342.
4. Oliver, J.D. 1993. A review of the biology of Giant Salvinia (*Salvinia molesta* Mitchell). *Journal of Aquatic Plant Management* 31: 227-231.
5. Nauman, C.E. 1993. Salviniaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 2: Pteridophytes and Gymnosperms. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 336-337.
6. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 650-651.
7. Wagner, G.M. 1997. *Azolla*: a review of its biology and utilization. *The Botanical Review* 63: 1-26.
8. Global Invasive Species Database. 2005. *Azolla pinnata* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=2048&fr=1&sts=> (accessed November 2006).
9. Kay, S.H. and S.T. Hoyle. 2001. Mail order, the Internet, and invasive aquatic weeds. *Journal of Aquatic Plant Management* 39: 88-91.
10. Maki, K. and S. Galatowitsch. 2004. Movement of invasive aquatic plants into Minnesota (USA) through horticultural trade. *Biological Conservation* 118: 389-396.
11. Pryer, K.M. 1987. Rare species in Salviniaceae. *In* Atlas of the rare vascular plants of Ontario, Part 4. *Edited by* K.M. Pryer and G.W. Argus. National Museum of Natural Sciences, Ottawa. (looseleaf).
12. Cody, W.J. and D.M. Britton. 1989. Ferns and fern allies of Canada. Research Branch, Agriculture Canada, Ottawa.
13. Darbyshire, S.J. 2002. Ephemeral occurrence of the Mosquito Fern, *Azolla caroliniana*, at Ottawa, Ontario. *Canadian Field-Naturalist* 116: 441-445.

Mosquito Fern *continued*

14. Sweet, A. and L.V. Hills. 1971. A study of *Azolla pinnata* R. Brown. American Fern Journal 61: 1-13.

BUTOMACEAE / Flowering Rush Family

Flowering Rush

Butomus umbellatus

1. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 631-632.
2. Haynes, R.R. 2000. Butomaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 22: Magnoliophyta: Alismatidae, Arecidae, Commelinidae (in part), and Zingiberidae: Butomaceae. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 3-4.
3. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 1982. Aquatic vascular plants of New England: Part 4. Juncaginaceae, Scheuchzeriaceae, Butomaceae, Hydrocharitaceae. The University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire.
4. Lui, K., F.L. Thompson, and C.G. Eckert. 2005. Causes and consequences of extreme variation in reproductive strategy and vegetative growth among invasive populations of a clonal aquatic plant, *Butomus umbellatus* L. (Butomaceae). Biological Invasions 7: 427-444.
5. Marie-Victorin, F. 1938. Phytogeographic problems of eastern Canada. American Midland Naturalist 19: 489-558.
6. Eckert, C.G., K. Lui, K. Bronson, P. Corradini, and A. Bruneau. 2003. Population genetic consequences of extreme variation in sexual and clonal reproduction in an aquatic plant. Molecular Ecology 12: 331-344.
7. Stuckey, R.L. 1968. Distributional history of *Butomus umbellatus* (Flowering-rush) in the western Lake Erie and Lake St. Clair Region. The Michigan Botanist 7: 134-142.
8. Crins, W.J. 2007. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
9. White, D.J., E. Haber, and C. Keddy. 1993. Invasive plants of natural habitats in Canada. Canadian Wildlife Service, Environment Canada, Ottawa, Ontario.
10. Marie-Victorin, F. 1908. Addition à la flore d'Amérique. Naturaliste Canadien 34: 65-67.

Flowering Rush *continued*

11. Eckert, C.G., G. Massonnet, and J.J. Thomas. 2000. Variation in sexual and clonal reproduction among introduced populations of flowering rush, *Butomus umbellatus* (Butomaceae). *Canadian Journal of Botany* 78: 437-446.
12. Staniforth, R.J. and K.A. Frego. 1980. Flowering Rush (*Butomus umbellatus*) in the Canadian Prairies. *Canadian Field-Naturalist* 94: 333-336.
13. Boutwell, J.E. 1990. Flowering-rush: a plant worth watching. *Aquatics* 12: 8-11.

CABOMBACEAE / Water-Shield Family

Fanwort

Cabomba caroliniana

1. Voss, E.G. 1985. Michigan Flora, Part II: Dicots (Saururaceae-Cornaceae). The Regents of the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
2. Wiersema, J.H. 1997. Cabombaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 3: Magnoliophyta: Magnoliidae and Hamamelidae: Cabombaceae. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 78-80.
3. Noel, J.C. 2004. Growth, reproduction and control of an invasive aquatic plant, *Cabomba caroliniana* in Kassarabog Lake, Ontario and its potential dispersal. M.Sc. Thesis, Trent University, Peterborough, Ontario.
4. Ørgaard, M. 1990. The genus of *Cabomba* (Cabombaceae) – a taxonomic study. *Nordic Journal of Botany* 11: 179-203.
5. Canadian Food Inspection Agency. 2001. Weed risk assessment: Fanwort, *Cabomba caroliniana* Gray. Plant Health Risk Assessment Unit, Nepean, Ontario.
6. Riemer, D.N. and R.D. Ilnicki. 1968. Reproduction and overwintering of *Cabomba* in New Jersey. *Weed Science* 16: 101-102.
7. MacDonald, F. 2002. Canada's response to the introduction of fanwort in Ontario waters: a case study. *In* Alien invaders in Canada's waters, wetlands, and forests. *Edited by* R. Claudi, P. Nantel, and E. Muckle-Jeffs. Natural Resources Canada, Ottawa. Pp. 161-167.
8. Kartesz, J.T. 1999. A synonymized checklist and atlas with biological attributes for the vascular flora of the United

Fanwort *continued*

- States, Canada, and Greenland. First edition. *In* Synthesis of the North American flora. Version 1.0. *Edited by* J.T. Kartesz and C.A. Meacham. North Carolina Botanical Garden, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.
9. Mackey, A.P. and J.T. Swarbrick. 1997. The biology of Australian weeds, 32. *Cabomba caroliniana* Gray. Plant Protection Quarterly 12: 154-165.
 10. Sanders, D. 1979. The ecology of *Cabomba caroliniana*. *In* Weed control methods for public health applications. *Edited by* E.O. Gangstad. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida.
 11. Wilson, C.E., S.J. Darbyshire, and R. Jones, 2007. The biology of invasive alien plants in Canada. 7. *Cabomba caroliniana* A. Gray. Canadian Journal of Plant Science 87: 615-638.

CYPERACEAE / Sedge Family

European Lake Sedge

Carex acutiformis

1. Catling, P.M. and B. Kostiuk. 2003. *Carex acutiformis* – Dominance of a cryptic invasive sedge at Ottawa. Botanical Electronic News 315: 1-5.
2. Reznicek, A.A. and P.M. Catling. 2002. *Carex* Linnaeus sect. Paludosae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 23: Magnoliophyta: Commelinidae (in part): Cyperaceae. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 302-306.
3. Catling, P.M. 2005. New “top of the list” invasive plants of natural habitats in Canada. Botanical Electronic News 345: 1-7.

HALORAGACEAE / Water-Milfoil Family

Parrotfeather

Myriophyllum aquaticum

1. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada, Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 307-308.

Parrotfeather *continued*

2. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America, Volume 1: Pteridophytes, gymnosperms, and angiosperms: Dicotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 50-51, 194-201.
3. Aiken, S.G. 1981. A conspectus of *Myriophyllum* (Haloragaceae) in North America. *Brittonia* 33: 57-69.
4. Washington State's Department of Ecology. 2003. Technical information about parrotfeather (*Myriophyllum aquaticum*). Water Quality Program: Non-Native Freshwater Plants [online]. Available from <http://www.ecy.wa.gov/programs/wq/plants/weeds/aqua003.html> [accessed March 2007].
5. Robinson, S. 2006. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
6. Warrington, P.D. 1994. Identification keys to the aquatic plants of British Columbia. Ministry of Environment, Lands and Parks, Victoria, BC. RIC Report 029 [online]. Available from http://ilmbwww.gov.bc.ca/risc/o_docs/aquatic/029/assets/029.pdf [accessed January 2007].
7. Swearingen, J., K. Reshetiloff, B. Slattery, and S. Zwicker. 2002. Plant invaders of Mid-Atlantic natural areas. National Park Service and U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service. Available from <http://www.invasive.org/eastern/midatlantic/myaq.html> [accessed March 2007].
8. Global Invasive Species Database. 2005. *Myriophyllum aquaticum* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/distribution.asp?si=401&fr=1&sts=sss> [accessed March 2007].

HALORAGACEAE / Water-Milfoil Family

Eurasian Water-Milfoil

Myriophyllum spicatum

1. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America, Volume 1: Pteridophytes, gymnosperms, and angiosperms: Dicotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 50-51, 194-201.
2. Aiken, S.G. 1981. A conspectus of *Myriophyllum* (Haloragaceae) in North America. *Brittonia* 33: 57-69.

Eurasian Water-Milfoil *continued*

3. Aiken, S.G., P.R. Newroth, and I. Wile. 1979. The biology of Canadian weeds. 34. *Myriophyllum spicatum* L. Canadian Journal of Plant Science 59: 201-215.
4. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 307-308.
5. White, D.J., E. Haber, and C. Keddy. 1993. Invasive plants of natural habitats in Canada. Canadian Wildlife Service, Environment Canada and Canadian Museum of Nature. Ottawa, Ontario.
6. Crins, W.J. 2007. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
7. United States Department of Agriculture. 2007. The PLANTS Database [online]. Natural Resources Conservation Service. Available from <http://plants.usda.gov> [accessed April 2007].
8. Madsen, J.D., J.W. Sutherland, J.A. Bloomfield, L.W. Eichler, and C.W. Boylen. 1991. The decline of native vegetation under dense Eurasian watermilfoil canopies. Journal of Aquatic Plant Management 29: 94-99.
9. Swearingen, J., K. Reshetiloff, B. Slattery, and S. Zwicker. 2002. Plant invaders of Mid-Atlantic natural areas. National Park Service and U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service [online]. Available from <http://www.invasive.org/eastern/midatlantic/myaq.html> [accessed January 2007].
10. Moody, M.L. and D.H. Les. 2002. Evidence of hybridity in invasive watermilfoil (*Myriophyllum*) populations. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 99: 14867-14871.

HYDROCHARITACEAE / Frog-Bit Family

Brazilian Waterweed

Egeria densa

1. Catling, P.M. and W. Wojtas. 1986. The waterweeds (*Elodea* and *Egeria*, Hydrocharitaceae) in Canada. Canadian Journal of Botany 64: 1525-1541.
2. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 636-637.

Brazilian Waterweed *continued*

3. Haynes, R.R. 2000. Hydrocharitaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 22: Magnoliophyta: Alismatidae, Arecidae, Commelinidae (in part), and Zingiberidae: Hydrocharitaceae. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 26-38.
4. Cook, C.D.K. and K. Urmi-Konig. 1984. A revision of the genus *Egeria* (Hydrocharitaceae). *Aquatic Botany* 19: 73-96.
5. Catling, P.M. 2001. *Egeria najas* at the Canadian border and its separation from the related aquatic weeds *Egeria densa* and *Hydrilla verticillata* (Hydrocharitaceae). *Botanical Electronic News* 278: 1-2.
6. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America, Volume 2: Angiosperms: Monocotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 28-33.
7. Washington State Department of Ecology. 2006. Technical information about *Egeria densa* (Brazilian Elodea). Water Quality Program: Non-Native Freshwater Plants [online]. Available from <http://www.ecy.wa.gov/programs/wq/plants/weeds/aqua002.html> [accessed February 2007].

HYDROCHARITACEAE / Frog-Bit Family

European Frog-Bit

Hydrocharis morsus-ranae

1. Haynes, R.R. 2000. Hydrocharitaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 22: Magnoliophyta: Alismatidae, Arecidae, Commelinidae (in part), and Zingiberidae: Hydrocharitaceae. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 26-38.
2. Catling, P.M. and W.G. Dore. 1982. Status and identification of *Hydrocharis morsus-ranae* and *Limnobium spongia* (Hydrocharitaceae) in Northeastern North America. *Rhodora* 84: 523-545.
3. Catling, P.M., G. Miltrow, E. Haber, U. Posluszny, and W.A. Charlton. 2003. The biology of Canadian weeds. 124. *Hydrocharis morsus-ranae* L. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 83: 1001-1016.
4. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada:

European Frog-Bit *continued*

Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 636-638.

5. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America, Volume 2: Angiosperms: Monocotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 11-28.
6. Wiersema, J.H. 1997. Cabombaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 3: Magnoliophyta: Magnoliidae and Hamamelidae: Cabombaceae. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 78-80.
7. Catling, P.M., K.W. Spicer, and L.P. Lefkovitch. 1988. Effects of the introduced floating vascular aquatic, *Hydrocharis morsus-ranae* (Hydrocharitaceae), on some North American aquatic macrophytes. *Le Naturaliste Canadien* (Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics) 115: 131-137.
8. Catling, P.M. and Z.S. Porebski. 1995. The spread and current distribution of European frogbit, *Hydrocharis morsus-ranae* L., in North America. *Canadian Field-Naturalist* 109: 236-241.
9. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
10. Sutherland, D. 2007. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
11. Minshall, W.H. 1940. Frog-bit – *Hydrocharis morsus-ranae* L. at Ottawa. *Canadian Field-Naturalist* 54: 44-45.

HYDROCHARITACEAE / Frog-Bit Family

Hydrilla

Hydrilla verticillata

1. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada, Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 636-637.
2. Haynes, R.R. 2000. Hydrocharitaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 22: Magnoliophyta: Alismatidae, Arecidae, Commelinidae (in part), and Zingiberidae: Hydrocharitaceae. *Edited by* Flora of North

Hydrilla continued

- America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 26-38.
3. Catling, P.M. 2001. *Egeria najas* at the Canadian border and its separation from the related aquatic weeds *Egeria densa* and *Hydrilla verticillata* (Hydrocharitaceae). Botanical Electronic News 278: 1-2.
 4. Cook, C.D.K. and R. Luond. 1982. A revision of the genus *Hydrilla* (Hydrocharitaceae). Aquatic Botany 13: 485-504.
 5. Yeo, R.R., R.H. Falk, and J.R. Thurston. 1984. The morphology of *Hydrilla* (*Hydrilla verticillata* (L.f.) Royle). Journal of Aquatic Plant Management 22: 1-17.
 6. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America, Volume 2: Angiosperms: Monocotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 31-33.
 7. Kartesz, J.T. 1999. A synonymized checklist and atlas with biological attributes for the vascular flora of the United States, Canada, and Greenland. First edition. *In* Synthesis of the North American flora, Version 1.0. *Edited by* J.T. Kartesz and C.A. Meacham. North Carolina Botanical Garden, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.
 8. United States Department of Agriculture. 2007. The PLANTS Database [online]. Natural Resources Conservation Service. Available from <http://plants.usda.gov> [accessed March 2007].
 9. Global Invasive Species Database. 2006. *Hydrilla verticillata* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=272&cfr=1&sts=sss> [accessed November 2006].

IRIDACEAE / Iris Family

Yellow Iris

Iris pseudacorus

1. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada. Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 845-848.
2. Henderson, N.C. 2002. Iris. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 26: Magnoliophyta: Liliidae: Iridaceae. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial

Yellow Iris *continued*

- Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 371-391.
3. Cody, W.J. 1961. *Iris pseudacorus* L. escaped from cultivation in Canada. Canadian Field-Naturalist 75: 139-142.
 4. Sutherland, W.J. 1990. Biological flora of the British Isles, *Iris pseudacorus* L. Journal of Ecology 78: 833-848.
 5. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America: Volume 2: Angiosperms: Monocotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 323-325.
 6. Darbyshire, S.J. 2003. Inventory of Canadian Agricultural Weeds. Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Research Branch, Ottawa, Ontario [online]. Available from http://sci.agr.ca/ecorc/weeds_herbes/title-titre_e.htm [accessed January 2007].
 7. Sutherland, D. 2007. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
 8. United States Department of Agriculture. 2007. The PLANTS Database [online]. Natural Resources Conservation Service. Available from <http://plants.usda.gov> [accessed March 2007].
 9. Global Invasive Species Database. 2005. *Iris pseudacorus* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=873&fr=1&sts=sss> [accessed March 2007].
 10. Munro, D.B. 1993. Canadian poisonous plants information system [online]. Available from http://www.cbif.gc.ca/pls/pp/poison?p_x=px [accessed January 2007].

LYTHRACEAE / Loosestrife Family

Purple Loosestrife

Lythrum salicaria

1. Mal, T.K., J. Lovett-Doust, L. Lovett-Doust, and G.A. Mulligan. 1992. The biology of Canadian weeds. 100. *Lythrum salicaria*. Canadian Journal of Plant Science 72: 1305-1330.
2. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America: Volume 1: Pteridophytes, gymnosperms, and angiosperms:

Purple Loosestrife *continued*

- Dicotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 203-206.
3. Voss, E.G. 1985. Michigan Flora, Part II: Dicots (Saururaceae-Cornaceae). The Regents of the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
 4. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 631-632, 821.
 5. Thompson, D.Q., R.L. Stuckey, and E.B. Thompson. 1987. Spread, impact and control of purple loosestrife (*Lythrum salicaria*) in North American wetlands. United States Department of the Interior Fish and Wildlife Service, Washington, DC.
 6. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
 7. Bakowsky, W. 2007. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
 8. United States Department of Agriculture. 2007. The PLANTS Database [online]. Natural Resources Conservation Service. Available from <http://plants.usda.gov> [accessed June 2007].
 9. Farnsworth, E.J. and D.R. Ellis. 2001. Is purple loosestrife (*Lythrum salicaria*) an invasive threat to freshwater wetlands? Conflicting evidence from several ecological metrics. WETLANDS 21: 199-209.
 10. Blossey, B., L.C. Skinner, and J. Taylor. 2001. Impact and management of purple loosestrife (*Lythrum salicaria*) in North America. Biodiversity and Conservation 10: 1787-1807.

MENYANTHACEAE / Buckbean Family

Yellow Floating Heart

Nymphoides peltata

1. Noxious Weed Control Board. 2003. Yellow Floating Heart (*Nymphoides peltata* (Gmel.) Kuntze) [online]. Available from http://www.nwcb.wa.gov/weed_info/yfloatingheart.html [accessed February 2007].

Yellow Floating Heart *continued*

2. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 412-413.
3. Crowe, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America, Volume 1: Pteridophytes, gymnosperms, and angiosperms: Dicotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 276, 283.
4. Stuckey, R.L. 1974. The introduction and distribution of *Nymphoides peltatum* (Menyanthaceae) in North America. *Bartonia* 42: 14-23.
5. Darbyshire, S.J. 2002. Ephemeral occurrence of the Mosquito Fern, *Azolla caroliniana*, at Ottawa, Ontario. *Canadian Field-Naturalist* 116:441-445.
6. Canadian Food Inspection Agency. 2007. Database of the native and naturalized flora of Canada. Unpublished. Prepared for the Plant Health Division, CFIA by NatureServe Canada and the Canadian Museum of Nature, National Herbarium.
7. Kartesz, J.T. 1999. A synonymized checklist and atlas with biological attributes for the vascular flora of the United States, Canada, and Greenland, First edition. *In* Synthesis of the North American flora, Version 1.0. *Edited by* , J.T. Kartesz and C.A. Meacham. North Carolina Botanical Garden, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.
8. Elderkin, M.F. 2006. Nova Scotia Department of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
9. Global Invasive Species Database. 2006. *Nymphoides peltata* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=225&fr=1&xsts=> [accessed November 2006].

POACEAE / Grass Family

European Common Reed

Phragmites australis subsp. *australis*

1. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 737-781.

European Common Reed *continued*

2. Allred, K.W. 2003. *Phragmites* Adans. In: Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 25: Magnoliophyta: Commelinidae (in part): Poaceae, part 2. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. New York and Oxford. P.10.
3. Dore, W.G. and J. McNeill. 1980. Grasses of Ontario. Research Branch, Agriculture Canada. Hull, Québec. Monograph 26.
4. Robichard, L. and P.M. Catling. 2003. Potential value of first glume length in differentiating native and alien races of common reed, *Phragmites australis*. Botanical Electronic News 310: 1-3.
5. Catling, P.M. 2006. Notes on the lectotypification of *Phragmites berlandieri* and identification of North American *Phragmites*. Botanical Electronic News 366: 4-6.
6. Small, E. and P.M. Catling. 2001. Poorly known economic plants of Canada – 29. Common reed, *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. Ex Steud. Canadian Botanical Association Bulletin 34: 21-26.
7. Chambers, R.M., L.A. Meyerson, and K. Saltonstall. 1999. Expansion of *Phragmites australis* into tidal wetlands of North America. Aquatic Botany 64: 261-273.
8. Meyerson, L.A., K. Saltonstall, L. Windham, E. Kiviat, and S. Findlay. 2000. A comparison of *Phragmites australis* in freshwater and brackish marsh environments in North America. Wetlands Ecology and Management 8: 89-103.
9. Catling, P.M. 2005. New “top of the list” invasive plants of natural habitats in Canada. Botanical Electronic News 345: 1-4.
10. Mal, T.K. and L. Narine. 2004. The biology of Canadian weeds. 129. *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. Ex Steud. Canadian Journal of Plant Science 84: 365-396.
11. Canadian Biodiversity Information Facility. 2007. Biodiversity data were drawn from the distributed data network entitled Species Analyst, a project of the North American Biodiversity Information Network, and participating institutions. Available from www.cbif.gc.ca/portal/digir-class.php?p_classid=6&p_lang=en [accessed May 2007].
12. Catling, P.M., G. Mitrow, L. Black, and S. Carbyn. 2004. Status of the alien race of common reed (*Phragmites australis*) in the Canadian maritime provinces. Botanical Electronic News 324: 1-3.

European Common Reed *continued*

13. Saltonstall, K. 2002. Cryptic invasion by a non-native genotype of the common reed, *Phragmites australis*, into North America. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science* 99: 2445-2449.
14. Saltonstall, K., P.M. Peterson, and R.J. Soreng. 2004. Recognition of *Phragmites australis* subsp. *americanus* (Poaceae: Arundinoideae) in North America: evidence from morphological and genetic analyses. *SIDA* 21: 683-692.
15. Uchytel, R.J. 1992. *Phragmites australis*. In: Fire Effects Information System. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station, Fire Sciences Laboratory (Producer) [online]. Available from <http://www.fs.fed.us/database/feis/> [accessed July 2007].
16. Lavoie, C., M. Jean, F. Delisle, and G. Letourneau. 2003. Exotic plant species of the St. Lawrence River wetlands: a spatial and historical analysis. *Journal of Biogeography* 30: 537-549.
17. Wilcox, K.L., S.A. Petrie, L.A. Maynard, and S.W. Meyer. 2003. Historical distribution and abundance of *Phragmites australis* at Long Point, Lake Erie, Ontario. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 29: 664-680.

PONTEDERIACEAE / Pickerel-Weed Family

Water Hyacinth

Eichhornia crassipes

1. Center for Aquatic and Invasive Plants, University of Florida. 2001. Aquatic Plant Information Retrieval System (APIRS) Database [online]. Available from <http://plants.ifas.ufl.edu/seagrant/eiccra2.html> [accessed June 2007].
2. Horn, C.N. 2002. Pontederiaceae. In *Flora of North America North of Mexico*, Volume 26: Magnoliophyta: Liliidae: Iridaceae. Edited by Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 37-41.
3. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America: Volume 2: Angiosperms: Monocotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 312-313.
4. Barrett, S.C.H. 1989. Waterweed invasions. *Scientific American* 260: 90-97.

Water Hyacinth *continued*

5. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
6. United States Department of Agriculture. 2007. The PLANTS Database [online]. Natural Resources Conservation Service. Available from <http://plants.usda.gov> [accessed June 2007].
7. Global Invasive Species Database. 2006. *Eichhornia crassipes* [online]. Available from www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=70&cf=1&sts= (accessed November 2006).
8. Albright, T., T. Moorhouse, and T. McNabb. 2001. The abundance and distribution of water hyacinth in Lake Victoria and the Kaera River Basin, 1989-2001. USGS/EROS Data Center and Clean Lakes, Inc.

POTAMOGETONACEAE / Pondweed Family

Curly-Leaved Pondweed

Potamogeton crispus

1. Voss, E.G. 1972. Michigan Flora, Part I: Gymnosperms and Monocots. The Cranbrook Institute of Science, Bloomfield Hills, Michigan. Pp.75-78.
2. Stuckey, R.L. 1979. Distributional history of *Potamogeton crispus* (Curly pondweed) in North America. *Bartonia* 46: 22-42.
3. Catling, P.M. and I. Dobson. 1985. The biology of Canadian weeds. 69. *Potamogeton crispus* L. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 65: 655-668.
4. Haynes, R.R. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Potamogetonaceae. In *Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 22: Magnoliophyta: Alismatidae, Arecidae, Commelinidae (in part), and Zingiberidae: Potamogetonaceae*. Edited by Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 47-70.
5. Crins, W.J. 2007. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
6. Martin, J.L. and M. Beatty. 2007. Fisheries and Oceans Canada and New Brunswick Department of Fisheries. Personal communication.

Curly-Leaved Pondweed *continued*

7. United States Department of Agriculture. 2007 The PLANTS Database [online]. Natural Resources Conservation Service. Available from <http://plants.usda.gov> [accessed March 2007].
8. Maine Center for Invasive Aquatic Plants. 2004. Virtual herbarium, *Potamogeton crispus*, Curly-leaf Pondweed [online]. Available from www.mciap.org/herbarium/Curly-leavedPondweed.php [accessed July 2007].

SALVINIACEAE / Floating Fern Family

Watermoss - *Salvinia* spp.

1. Nauman, C.E. 1993. Salviniaceae. *In* Flora of North America North of Mexico, Volume 2: Pteridophytes and Gymnosperms. *Edited by* Flora of North America Editorial Committee. Oxford University Press, New York. Pp. 336-337.
2. Oliver, J.D. 1993. A review of the biology of Giant *Salvinia* (*Salvinia molesta* Mitchell). *Journal of Aquatic Plant Management* 31: 227-231.
3. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 2000. Aquatic and wetland plants of Northeastern North America: Volume 1: Pteridophytes, gymnosperms, and angiosperms: Dicotyledons. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin. Pp. 14-15.
4. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 650-651.
5. Webb, C.J., W.R. Sykes, and P.J. Garnock-Jones. 1988. Flora of New Zealand. Volume IV: Naturalised pteridophytes, gymnosperms, dicotyledons. Botany Division, Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, New Zealand [online]. Available from <http://floraseries.landcareresearch.co.nz> [accessed April 2007].
6. Kartesz, J.T. 1999. A synonymized checklist and atlas with biological attributes for the vascular flora of the United States, Canada, and Greenland. First edition. *In* Synthesis of the North American flora. Version 1.0. *Edited by* J.T. Kartesz and C.A. Meacham. North Carolina Botanical Garden, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.
7. Lellinger, D.B. 1985. A field manual of the ferns and fern-allies of the United States and Canada. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C. Pp. 308-309.

Watermoss - *Salvinia* spp. continued

8. Maki, K. and S. Galatowitsch. 2004. Movement of invasive aquatic plants into Minnesota (USA) through horticultural trade. *Biological Conservation* 118: 389-396.
9. United States Department of Agriculture, Germplasm Resource Information Network. 2004. National Germplasm Resources Laboratory, Beltsville, Maryland [online]. Available from www.ars-grin.gov/cgi-bin/npgs/html/ [accessed April 2007].

TRAPACEAE / Water-Chestnut Family

European Water Chestnut

Trapa natans

1. Gleason, H.A. and A. Cronquist. 1991. Manual of vascular plants of Northeastern United States and adjacent Canada: Second edition. New York Botanical Garden. Bronx, New York. Pp. 313.
2. Hummel, M. and E. Kiviat. 2004. Review of world literature on water chestnut with implications for management in North America. *Journal of Aquatic Plant Management* 42: 17-28.
3. Crow, G.E. and C.B. Hellquist. 1983. Aquatic vascular plants of New England: Part 6. Trapaceae, Haloragaceae, Hippuridaceae. The University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire.
4. Haber, E. 1999. Invasive exotic plants of Canada: fact sheet No. 13, European water chestnut. National Botanical Services, Ottawa, Ontario. Available from <http://74.105.209.146/plantsincanada/invasive/factnut.html> [accessed July 2007].
5. Bailleul, S.M. 2007. Jardin botanique de Montréal. Personal communication.
6. Darbyshire, S.J. 2003. Inventory of Canadian agricultural weeds. Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Research Branch, Ottawa, Ontario. Available from http://sci.agr.ca/ecorc/weeds_herbes/title-titre_e.htm [accessed February 2007].

Channeled Apple Snail

Pomacea canaliculata

1. Pennak, R.W. 1989. Freshwater invertebrates of the United States. Protozoa to Mollusca, third edition. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
2. Mackie, G.L. 2000. Introduction of mollusks through the import for live food. *In* Nonindigenous freshwater organisms: vectors, biology, and impacts. *Edited by* R. Claudi and J.H. Leach. CRC Press LLC, Florida. Pp. 305-313.
3. Ghesquiere, S. 2007. The Apple Snail Website *Pomacea canaliculata* [online]. Available from http://www.applesnail.net/content/species/pomacea_canaliculata.htm [accessed May 2007].
4. Thompson, F.G. 1997. *Pomacea canaliculata* (Lamarck 1822) (Gastropoda, Prosobranchia, Pilidae): a freshwater snail introduced into Florida, USA. *Malacological Review* 30: 91.
5. Levin, P. 2006. Statewide strategic control plan for Apple Snail (*Pomacea canaliculata*) in Hawai'i. The Hawai'i Land Restoration Institute, Hawai'i. Available from <http://www.hear.org/articles/pdfs/applesnailcontrolplanlevin2006.pdf> [accessed October 2007].
6. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database - distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.
7. United States Geological Survey. 2007. *Pomacea canaliculata*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=980> [accessed April 2007].
8. Cordeiro, J. 2004. *Pomacea canaliculata*. NatureServe Explorer [online] Available from <http://www.natureserve.org/explorer/servlet/NatureServe?searchName=POMACEA+CANALICULATA> [accessed April 2007].
9. Robinson, D.G. 1999. Alien invasions: the effects of the global economy on non-marine Gastropod introductions in to the United States. *Malacologia* 41: 413-438.

Channeled Apple Snail *continued*

10. Litsinger, J.A. and D.B. Estano. 1993. Management of the golden apple snail *Pomacea Canaliculata* (Lamarck) in rice. *Crop Protection* 12: 363-370.
11. Halwart, M. 1994. The golden apple snail *Pomacea canaliculata* in Asian rice farming systems: present impact and future threat. *International Journal of Pest Management* 40: 199-206.
12. Naylor, R.L. 1996. Invasions in agriculture: assessing the cost of the golden apple snail in Asia. *Ambio* 25: 443-448.

CAMBARIDAE / Crayfish Family

Rusty Crayfish

Orconectes rusticus

1. Crocker, D.W. and D.W. Barr. 1971. Handbook of the crayfishes on Ontario. Life Sciences Miscellaneous Publications, Royal Ontario Museum. University of Toronto Press, Ontario.
2. Hobbs, H.H. III and J.P. Jass. 1988. The crayfishes and shrimp of Wisconsin (Cambaridae, Palaemonidae). Milwaukee Public Museum.
3. Pennak, R.W. 1991. Freshwater invertebrates of the United States. Protozoa to Mollusca, third edition. John Wiley & Sons, NY.
4. Gunderson, J. 1995 (rev. 2002). Rusty Crayfish: A Nasty Invader. University of Minnesota Sea Grant Program fact sheet. 6p [online]. Available from http://www.seagrant.umn.edu/ais/rustycrayfish_invader [accessed June 2007].
5. Hamr, P. 2001. *Orconectes*. In *Biology of freshwater crayfish*. Edited by D. Holdich. Blackwell Publishing, Oxford, UK. Chapter 15.
6. Berrill, M. 1978. Distribution and ecology of crayfish in the Kawartha Lakes region of southern Ontario. *Canadian Journal of Zoology* 56: 166-177.
7. Momot, W.T. 1992. Further range expansion of the rusty crayfish (*Orconectes rusticus*) in the Lake Superior basin of northwestern Ontario. *The Canadian Field-Naturalist* 106: 397-399.

Rusty Crayfish *continued*

8. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.
9. Lodge, D.M. and J.G. Lorman. 1987. Reductions in submersed macrophyte biomass and species richness by the crayfish *Orconectes rusticus*. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science 44: 591-597.
10. Olsen, T.M., D.M. Lodge, G.M. Capelli, and R.J. Houlihan. 1991. Mechanisms of impact of an introduced crayfish (*Orconectes rusticus*) on littoral congeners, snails, and macrophytes. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science 48: 1853-1861.
11. Wilson, K.A., J.J. Magnuson, D.M. Lodge, A.M. Hill, T.K. Kratz, W.L. Perry, and T.V. Willis. 2004. A long-term rusty crayfish (*Orconectes rusticus*) invasion: dispersal patterns and community change in a north temperate lake. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science 61: 2255-2266.
12. McCarthy, J.M., C.L. Hein, J.D. Olden, and M.J. Vander Zanden. 2006. Coupling long-term studies with meta-analysis to investigate impacts of invasive crayfish on zoobenthic communities. Freshwater Biology 51: 224-235.
13. Capelli, G.M. and B.J. Munjal. 1982. Aggressive interactions and resource competition in relation to species displacement among crayfish of the genus *Orconectes*. Journal of Crustacean Biology 2: 486-492.
14. Taylor, C.A. and M. Redmer. 1996. Dispersal of the crayfish *Orconectes rusticus* in Illinois, with notes on species displacement and habitat preference. Journal of Crustacean Biology 16: 547-551.
15. Olden, J.D. J.M. McCarthy, J.T. Maxted, W.W. Fetzer, and M.J. Vander Zanden. 2006. The rapid spread of rusty crayfish (*Orconectes rusticus*) with observations on native crayfish declines in Wisconsin (USA) over the past 130 years. Biological Invasions 8: 1621-1628.
16. Perry, W.L., J.L. Feder, G. Dwyer, and D.M. Lodge. 2001. Hybrid zone dynamics and species replacement between *Orconectes* crayfishes in a northern, Wisconsin Lake. Evolution 55: 1153-1166.

Spiny Waterflea

Bythotrephes longimanus

1. Sikes, B.A. 2002. Spiny Water Flea, *Bythotrephes longimanus*. Institute for Biological Invasions Invader of the Month [online]. Available from <http://invasions.bio.utk.edu/invaders/flea.html> [accessed June 2007].
2. Global Invasive Species Database. 2005. *Bythotrephes longimanus* [online]. Available from www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=151&fr=1&sts=sss [accessed June 2007].
3. MacIsaac H.J., H.A.M. Ketelaars, I.A. Grigorovich, C.W. Ramcharan, and N.D. Yan. 2000. Modeling *Bythotrephes longimanus* invasions in the Great Lakes basin based on its European distribution. *Archiv für Hydrobiologie* 149: 1-23.
4. Yan, N.D. 2007. York University. Personal communication.
5. Bur, M.T., D.M. Klarer, and K.A. Krieger. 1986. First records of a European cladoceran, *Bythotrephes cederstroemi*, in lakes Huron and Erie. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 12: 144-146.
6. Garton, D.W., D.J. Berg, and R.J. Fletcher. 1990. Thermal tolerances of the predatory cladocerans *Bythotrephes cederstroemi* and *Leptodora kindti*: relationship to seasonal abundance in western Lake Erie. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 47: 731-738.
7. Yan, N.D. Canadian Aquatic Invasive Species Network, March 2007, unpublished data.
8. Yan, N.D., A. Blukacz, W.G. Sprules, P.K. Kindy, D. Hackett, R.E. Girard, and B.J. Cark. 2001. Changes in zooplankton and the phenology of the spiny water flea, *Bythotrephes*, following its invasion of Harp Lake, Ontario, Canada. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 58: 2341-2350.
9. Johannsson, O.E., E.L. Mills, and R. O'Gorman. 1991. Changes in the nearshore and offshore zooplankton communities in Lake Ontario: 1981-1988. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 48: 1546-1557.
10. Sprules, W.G., H.P. Riessen, and E.H. Jin. 1990. Dynamics of the *Bythotrephes* invasion of the St. Lawrence Great Lakes. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 1: 151-161.

Spiny Waterflea *continued*

11. Yan, N.D., W.I. Dunlop, T.W. Pawson, and L.E. MacKay. 1992. *Bythotrephes cederstroemi* (Schoedler) in Muskoka lakes: first records of the European invader in inland lakes in Canada. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 49: 422-426.
12. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.
13. Yan, N.D. and T.W. Pawson. 1998. Variation in size and abundance of the exotic invader *Bythotrephes cederstroemi* in Harp Lake, Canada. Hydrobiologia 361: 157-168.
14. Barbiero, R.P. and M.L. Tuchman. 2004. Changes in the crustacean communities of Lakes Michigan, Huron and Erie following the invasion of the predatory cladoceran *Bythotrephes longimanus*. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 61: 2111-2125.
15. Boudreau, S.A. and N.D. Yan. 2004. Auditing the accuracy of a volunteer-based surveillance program for an aquatic invader *Bythotrephes*. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment 91: 17-26.
16. Berg D.J., D.W. Garton, H.J. MacIsaac, E.P. Vadim, and I.V. Telesh. 2002. Changes in genetic structure of North American *Bythotrephes* populations following invasion from Lake Ladoga, Russia. Freshwater Biology 47: 275-82.
17. MacIssac, H. 2007. University of Windsor. Personal communication.
18. Yan, N.D. and T.W. Pawson. 1997. Changes in the crustacean zooplankton community of Harp Lake, Canada, following invasion by *Bythotrephes cederstroemi*. Freshwater Biology 37: 409-425.
19. Boudreau, S.A. and N.D. Yan. 2003. The differing crustacean zooplankton communities in Canadian Shield lakes with and without the nonindigenous zooplanktivore *Bythotrephes longimanus*. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 58: 2341-2350.
20. Strecker, A.L. and S.E. Arnott. 2005. Impact of *Bythotrephes* invasion on zooplankton communities in acid-damaged and recovered lakes on the Boreal Shield. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 62: 2450-2462.

Spiny Waterflea *continued*

21. Stetter, S.L.P., L.D. Witzel, L.G. Rudstam, D.W. Einhouse, and E.L. Mills. 2005. Energetic consequences of diet shifts in Lake Erie rainbow smelt (*Osmerus mordax*). Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 62: 145-152.

CERCOPAGIDAE / Waterflea Family

Fishhook Waterflea

Cercopagis pengoi

1. MacIsaac, H.J., I.A. Grigorovich, J.A. Hoyle, N.D. Yan, and V.E. Panov. 1999. Invasion of Lake Ontario by the Ponto-Caspian predatory cladoceran *Cercopagis pengoi*. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 56:1-5.
2. Makarewicz, J.C., I.A. Grigorovich, E. Mills, E. Damaske, M.E. Cristescu, W. Pearsall, M.J. LaVoie, R. Keats, L. Rudstam, P. Hebert, H. Halbritter, T. Kelly, C. Matkovich, and H.J. MacIsaac. 2001. Distribution, fecundity, and genetics of *Cercopagis pengoi* (Ostroumov) (Crustacea, Cladocera) in Lake Ontario. Journal of Great Lakes Research 27: 19-32.
3. Sikes, B.A. 2002. Spiny Water Flea, *Bythotrephes longimanus*. Institute for Biological Invasions Invader of the Month. [online] Available from <http://invasions.b.io.utk.edu/invaders/flea.html> [accessed June 2007].
4. Global Invasive Species Database. 2006. *Cercopagis pengoi* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=118&fr=1&sts=sss> [accessed June 2007].
5. Ojaveer, H., L.A. Kuhns, R.P. Barbiero, and M.L. Tuchman. 2001. Distribution and population characteristics of *Cercopagis pengoi* in Lake Ontario. Journal of Great Lakes Research 27: 10-18.
6. Laxson, C.L., K.N. Mcphedran, J.C. Makarewicz, I.V. Telesh, and H.J. MacIsaac. 2003. Effects of the non-indigenous cladoceran *Cercopagis pengoi* on the lower food web of Lake Ontario. Freshwater Biology 48: 2094-2106.
7. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.

Fishhook Waterflea *continued*

8. Witt, A.M., J.M. Dettmers, and C.E. Cáceres. 2005. *Cercopagis pengoi* in Southwestern Lake Michigan in four years following invasion. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 31: 245-252.
9. Therriault, T.W., I.A. Grigorovich, D.D. Kane, E.M. Haas, D.A. Culver, and H.J. MacIsaac. 2002. Range expansion of the exotic zooplankter *Cercopagis pengoi* (Ostroumov) into western Lake Erie and Muskegon Lake. *Great Lakes Research* 28: 698-701.
10. Cristescu, M.E.A., P.D.N. Herbert, and J.D.S. Witt. 2001. An invasion history of *Cercopagis pengoi* based on mitochondrial gene sequences. *Limnology and Oceanography* 46: 224-229.
11. MacIsaac, H. 2007. University of Windsor. Personal communication.
12. Warner, D., L.G. Rudstam, H. Benoit, E.L. Mills, and O. Johannsson. 2006. Changes in seasonal nearshore zooplankton abundance patterns in Lake Ontario following establishment of the exotic predator *Cercopagis pengoi*. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 32: 531-542.
13. Leppäkoski, E. and S. Olenin. 2000. Non-native species and rates of spread: lessons from the brackish Baltic Sea. *Biological Invasions* 2: 151-163.
14. Jacobs, M.J. and H.J. MacIsaac. 2007. Fouling of fishing line by the waterflea *Cercopagis pengoi*: a mechanism of human-mediated dispersal of zooplankton? *Hydrobiologia* 583: 119 -126.

CORBICULIDAE / Little Basket Clam Family

Asian Clam

Corbicula fluminea

1. Hall, J.J. 1984. Production of immature *Corbicula fluminea* (Bivalvia: Corbiculidae), in Lake Norman, North Carolina. *The Nautilus* 98: 153-159.
2. Pennak, R.W. 1989. Freshwater invertebrates of the United States. Protozoa to Mollusca, third edition. John Wiley & Sons, New York.

Asian Clam *continued*

3. Cummings, K.S. and C.A. Mayer. 1992. *Corbicula fluminea* (Muller 1774). Field guide to freshwater mussels of the Midwest. Illinois Natural History Survey, Manual 5 [online]. Available from http://www.inhs.uiuc.edu/cbd/musselmanual/page174_5.html [accessed May 2007].
4. Clarke, A.H. 1981. The freshwater molluscs of Canada. National Museums of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario.
5. McMahon, R.F. 2000. Invasive characteristics of the freshwater bivalve *Corbicula fluminea*. In Nonindigenous freshwater organisms: vectors, biology, and impacts. *Edited by* R. Claudi and J.H. Leach. CRC Press LLC, Florida. Pp. 315-343.
6. Janech, M.G. and R.D. Hunter. 1995. *Corbicula fluminea* in a Michigan River: implications for low temperature tolerance. *Malacological Review* 28: 119-124.
7. McMahon, R.F. 1983. Ecology of the invasive pest bivalve, *Corbicula*. In *The Mollusca, ecology*. *Edited by* W. D. Russell-Hunter. Academic Press, New York. Pp. 505-561.
8. Mills, E.L., J.H. Leach, J.T. Carlton, and C.L. Secor. 1993. Exotic species in the Great Lakes: a history of biotic crises and anthropogenic introductions. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 19: 1-54.
9. Foster, A.M., P. Fuller, A. Benson, S. Constant, and D. Raikow. 2007. *Corbicula fluminea*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=92> [accessed July 2007].
10. Counts, C.L. III. 1981. *Corbicula fluminea* (Bivalvia: Corbiculidae) in British Columbia. *The Nautilus* 95: 12-13.
11. Robinson, J.V. and G.A. Wellborn. 1988. Ecological resistance to the invasion of a freshwater clam, *Corbicula fluminea*: fish predation effects. *Oecologia* 77: 445-452.

DREISSENIDAE / Dreissenid Mussel Family

Quagga Mussel

Dreissena bugensis

1. Mackie, G.L. 2000. Ballast water introductions of Mollusca. In Nonindigenous freshwater organisms: vectors, biology, and impacts. *Edited by* R. Claudi and J.H. Leach. CRC Press LLC, Florida. Pp. 219-254.

Quagga Mussel *continued*

2. Benson, A.J., M.M. Richerson, and E. Maynard. 2007. *Dreissena rostriformis bugensis*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida [online]. Available from: <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=95> [accessed May 2007].
3. Wright, D.A., E.M. Setzler, J.A. Magee, V.S. Kennedy, and S.P. McIninch. 1996. Effect of salinity and temperature on survival and development of young zebra (*Dreissena polymorpha*) and quagga (*Dreissena bugensis*) mussels. *Estuaries* 19: 619-628.
4. Mitchell, J.S., R.C. Bailey, and R.W. Knapton. 1996. Abundance of *Dreissena polymorpha* and *Dreissena bugensis* in a warmwater plume: effects of depth and temperature. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 53: 1705-1712.
5. Ussery, T.A. and R.F. McMahon. 1995. Comparative study of the desiccation resistance of zebra mussels (*Dreissena polymorpha*) and quagga mussels (*Dreissena bugensis*). University of Texas, Arlington.
6. Vanderploeg, H.A., T.F. Nalepa, D.J. Jude, E.L. Mills, K.T. Holeck, J.R. Liebig, I.A. Grigorovich, and H. Ojaveer. 2002. Dispersal and emerging ecological impacts of Ponto-Caspian species in the Laurentian Great Lakes. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 59: 1209-1228.
7. Stoeckmann, A. 2003. Physiological energetics of Lake Erie dreissenid mussels: a basis for the displacement of *Dreissena polymorpha* by *Dreissena bugensis*. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 60: 126-134.
8. Mills, E.L., R.M. Dermott, E.F. Roseman, D. Dustin, E. Mellina, D.B. Conn, and A.P. Spidle. 1993. Colonization, ecology, and population structure of the "Quagga" mussel (*Bivalvia*: *Dressenidae*) in the Lower Great Lakes. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 50: 2305-2314.
9. Napela, T.F., D.W. Schloesser, S.A. Pothoven, D.W. Hondorp, D.L. Fanslow, M.L. Tuchman, and G.W. Fleisdher. 2001. First finding of the amphipod *Echinogammarus ischnus* and the mussel *Dreissena bugensis* in Lake Michigan. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 27: 384-391.

Quagga Mussel *continued*

10. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database - distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.
11. Southern Nevada Water Authority. 2007. Quagga mussels [online]. Available from http://www.snwa.com/html/env_quagga_mussel.html [accessed July 2007].
12. Ricciardi, A. and H.J. MacIsaac. 2000. Recent mass invasion of the North American Great Lakes by Ponto-Caspian species. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 15: 62-65.
13. Grigorovich, I.A., R.I. Colautti, E.L. Mills, K. Holeck, A.G. Ballert, and H.J. MacIsaac. 2003. Ballast-mediated animal introductions in the Laurentian Great Lakes: retrospective and prospective analyses. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science* 60: 740-756.
14. Schloesser, D.W., W.P. Kovalak, G.D. Longton, K.L. Ohnesorg, and R.D. Smithee. 1998. Impact of zebra and quagga mussels (*Dreissena* spp.) on freshwater unionids (Bivalvia: Unionidae) in the Detroit River of the Great Lakes. *The American Midland Naturalist* 140: 299-313.

DREISSENIDAE / Dreissenid Mussel Family

Zebra Mussel

Dreissena polymorpha

1. Mackie, G.L. 2000. Ballast water introductions of Mollusca. *In* Nonindigenous freshwater organisms: vectors, biology, and impacts. *Edited by* R. Claudi and J.H. Leach. CRC Press LLC, Florida. Pp. 219-254.
2. Benson, A.J. and D. Raikow. 2007. *Dreissena polymorpha*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=5> [accessed May 2007].
3. Ussery, T.A. and R.F. McMahon. 1995. Comparative study of the desiccation resistance of zebra mussels (*Dreissena polymorpha*) and quagga mussels (*Dreissena bugensis*). University of Texas, Arlington.

Zebra Mussel *continued*

4. Mitchell, J.S., R.C. Bailey, and R.W. Knapton. 1996. Abundance of *Dreissena polymorpha* and *Dreissena bugensis* in a warmwater plume: effects of depth and temperature. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 53: 1705-1712.
5. Mackie, G.L. 1991. Biology of the exotic zebra mussel, *Dreissena polymorpha*, in relation to native bivalves and its potential impact in Lake St. Clair. Hydrobiologia 219: 251-268.
6. Garton, D.W. and W.R. Haag. 1993. Seasonal reproductive cycles and settlement patterns of *Dreissena polymorpha* in western Lake Erie. In Zebra mussels: biology, impacts and control. Edited by T.F. Nalepa and D.W. Schloesser. Lewis Publishers, Florida. Pp. 111-128.
7. Hebert, P.D.N., B.W. Muncaster, and G.L. Mackie. 1989. Ecological and genetic studies on *Dreissena polymorpha* (Pallas): a new mollusc in the Great Lakes. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science 46: 1587-1591.
8. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database - distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.
9. Mills, E.L., J.H. Leach, J.T. Carlton, and C.L. Secor. 1993. Exotic species in the Great Lakes: a history of biotic crises and anthropogenic introductions. Journal of Great Lakes Research 19: 1-54.
10. Grigorovich, I.A., R.I. Colautti, E.L. Mills, K. Holeck, A.G. Ballert, and H.J. MacIsaac. 2003. Ballast-mediated animal introductions in the Laurentian Great Lakes: retrospective and prospective analyses. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science 60: 740-756.
11. Vanderploeg, H.A., T.F. Nalepa, D.J. Jude, E.L. Mills, K.T. Holeck, J.R. Liebig, I.A. Grigorovich, and H. Ojaveer. 2002. Dispersal and emerging ecological impacts of Ponto-Caspian species in the Laurentian Great Lakes. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 59: 1209-1228.
12. Gillis, P. L. and G. L. Mackie. 1994. The impact of *Dreissena polymorpha* on populations of Unionidae in Lake St. Clair. Canadian Journal of Zoology 72: 1260-1271.
13. Schloesser, D.W., T. Nalepa, and G. L. Mackie. 1996. Review of the impacts of the zebra mussel on Unionidae in North America. American Zoology 36: 300-310.

Zebra Mussel *continued*

14. Schloesser, D.W. and T.F. Nalepa. 1994. Dramatic decline of unionid bivalves in offshore waters of western Lake Erie after infestation by the zebra mussel, *Dreissena polymorpha*. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 51: 2234-2242
15. Haag, W.R., D.J. Berg, D.W. Garton, and J.L. Farris. 1993. Reduced survival and fitness in native bivalves in response to fouling by the introduced zebra mussel (*Dreissena polymorpha*) in western Lake Erie. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 50: 13-19.
16. de Kock, W.C. and C.T. Bowmer. 1993. Bioaccumulation, biological effects, and food chain transfer of contaminants in the zebra mussel (*Dreissena polymorpha*). In Zebra mussels: biology, impacts and control. Edited by T.F. Nalepa and D.W. Schloesser. Lewis Publishers, Florida. Pp. 503-533.
17. Pérez-Fuentetaja, A., M.D. Clapsadl, D. Einhouse, P.R. Bowser, R.G. Getchell, and W.T. Lee. 2006. Influence of limnological conditions on *Clostridium botulinum* type E presence in eastern Lake Erie sediments (Great Lakes, USA). Hydrobiologia 563: 189-200.
18. Ricciardi, A. and H.J. MacIsaac. 2000. Recent mass invasion of the North American Great Lakes by Ponto-Caspian species. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 15: 62-65.
19. Napela, T.F., D.W. Schloesser, S.A. Pothoven, D.W. Hondorp, D.L. Fanslow, M.L. Tuchman, and G.W. Fleisdher. 2001. First finding of the amphipod *Echinogammarus ischnus* and the mussel *Dreissena bugensis* in Lake Michigan. Journal of Great Lakes Research 27: 384-391.
20. LePage, W.L. 1993. The impacts of *Dreissena polymorpha* on waterworks operations at Monroe, Michigan: a case history. In Zebra mussels: biology, impacts and control. Edited by T.F. Nalepa and D.W. Schloesser. Lewis Publishers, Florida. Pp. 333-358.
21. Kovalak, W.P., G.D. Longton, and R.D. Smithee. 1993. Infestation of power plant water systems by the zebra mussel (*Dreissena polymorpha* Pallas). In Zebra mussels: biology, impacts and control. Edited by T.F. Nalepa and D.W. Schloesser. Lewis Publishers, Florida. Pp. 359-380.

Gammarid

Echinogammarus ischnus

1. Pennak, R.W. 1989. Freshwater invertebrates of the United States. Protozoa to Mollusca, third edition. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
2. Witt, J.D.S., P.D.N. Hebert, and W.B. Morton. 1997. *Echinogammarus ischnus*: another crustacean invader in the Laurentian Great Lakes basin. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science 54: 264-268.
3. Kipp, R.M. 2007. *Echinogammarus ischnus*. Great Lakes Aquatic Nonindigenous Species Information System (GLANSIS), National Oceanic and Atmospheric Association, National Research Centre for Aquatic Invasive Species (NOAA NCR-AIS) [online]. Available from http://www.glerl.noaa.gov/res/Programs/ncrais/docs/factsheets/echinogammarus_ischnus.html [accessed September 2007].
4. Benson, A. 2007. *Echinogammarus ischnus*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?SpeciesID=23> [accessed May 2007].
5. Bially, A. and H.J. MacIsaac. 2000. Fouling mussels (*Dreissena* spp.) colonize soft sediments in Lake Erie and facilitate benthic invertebrates. Freshwater Biology 43: 85-97.
6. Napela, T.F., D.W. Schloesser, S.A. Pothoven, D.W. Hondorp, D.L. Fanslow, M.L. Tuchman, and G.W. Fleisdher. 2001. First finding of the amphipod *Echinogammarus ischnus* and the mussel *Dreissena bugensis* in Lake Michigan. Journal of Great Lakes Research 27: 384-391.
7. Van Overdijk, C.D.A., I.A. Grigorovich, T. Mabee, W.J. Ray, J.J.H. Ciborowski, and H.J. MacIsaac. 2003. Microhabitat selection by the invasive amphipod *Echinogammarus ischnus* and native *Gammarus fasciatus* in laboratory experiments and in Lake Erie. Freshwater Biology 48: 567-578.
8. Palmer, M. E. and A. Ricciardi. 2005. Community interactions affecting the relative abundances of native and invasive amphipods in the St. Lawrence River. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 62: 1111-1118.

Gammarid *continued*

9. Vanderploeg, H.A., T.F. Nalepa, D.J. Jude, E.L. Mills, K.T. Holeck, J.R. Liebig, I.A. Grigorovich, and H. Ojaveer. 2002. Dispersal and emerging ecological impacts of Ponto-Caspian species in the Laurentian Great Lakes. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 59: 1209-1228.
10. Dermott, R., J. Witt, Y.M. Um, and M. Gonzalez. 1998. Distribution of the Ponto-Caspian amphipod *Echinogammarus ischnus* in the Great Lakes and replacement of native *Gammarus fasciatus*. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 24: 442-452.
11. Kley, A. and G. Maier. 2003. Life history characteristics of the invasive freshwater gammarids *Dikerogammarus villosus* and *Echinogammarus ischnus* in the river Main and the Main-Donau canal. *Archiv für Hydrobiologie* 156: 457-469.
12. Cristescu, M.E. A., J.D.S. Witt, I.A. Grigorovich, P.D.N. Hebert, and H.J. MacIsaac. 2004. Dispersal of the Ponto-Caspian amphipod *Echinogammarus ischnus*: invasion waves from the Pleistocene to the present. *Heredity* 92: 197-203.

HYDROBIIDAE / Spire Snail (or Mud Snail) Family

New Zealand Mud Snail

Potamopyrgus antipodarum

1. Pennak, R.W. 1953. Fresh-water invertebrates of the United States. The Ronald Press Company, New York.
2. Zaranko, D.T., D.G. Farara, and F.G. Thompson. 1997. Another exotic mollusk in the Laurentian Great Lakes: the New Zealand native *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* (Gray 1843) (Gastropoda, Hydrobiidae). *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science* 54: 809-814.
3. Richards, D., B. Kerans, and D. Gustafson. 2002. New Zealand Mudsnail in the Western USA [online]. Montana State University: Department of Ecology. Available from <http://www.esg.montana.edu/aim/mollusca/nzms/> [accessed April 2007].
4. Global Invasive Species Database. 2005. *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=449&fr=1&sts=sss> [accessed April 2007].

New Zealand Mud Snail *continued*

5. Clarke, A.H. 1981. The freshwater molluscs of Canada. National Museums of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario.
6. Hylleberg, J. and H. R. Siegismund. 1987. Niche overlap in mud snails (Hydrobiidae): freezing tolerance. *Marine Biology* 94: 403-407.
7. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database - distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.
8. Benson, A. and R.M. Kipp. 2007. *Potamopyrgus antipodarum*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida. <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?SpeciesID=1008> [accessed October 2007].
9. Levri, E.P., A.A. Kelly, and E. Love. 2007. The invasive New Zealand mud snail (*Potamopyrgus antipodarum*) in Lake Erie. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 33: 1-6.
10. Jacobsen, R. and V.E. Forbes. 1997. Clonal variation in life-history traits and feeding rates in the gastropod, *Potamopyrgus antipodarum*: performance across a salinity gradient. *Functional Ecology* 11: 260-267.
11. Kerans, B.L., M.F. Dybdahl, M.M. Gangloff, and J.E. Jannot. 2005. *Potamopyrgus antipodarum*: distribution, density, and effects on native macroinvertebrate assemblages in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem. *Journal of North American Benthological Society* 24: 123-138.
12. Hall, R.O., M.F. Dybdahl, and M.C. VanderLoop. 2006. Extremely high secondary production of introduced snails in rivers. *Ecological Applications* 16: 1121-1131.

MYSIDAE / Opossum Shrimp Family

Red Mysid

Hemimysis anomala

1. Ketelaars, H.A.M., F.E. Lambregts-van de Cludert, A.J. Carpentier, A.J. Wagenvoort, and W. Hoogenboezem. 1999. Ecological effects of the mass occurrence of the Ponto-Caspian invader, *Hemimysis anomala* G.O. Sars, 1907 (Crustacea: Mysidacea), in a freshwater reservoir in the Netherlands, with notes on its autecology and new records. *Hydrobiologia* 394: 233-248.

Red Mysid *continued*

2. Kipp, R.M. and A. Ricciardi. 2007. *Hemimysis anomala*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=2627> [accessed June 2007].
3. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory. 2007. New invader in the Great Lakes: Bloody red shrimp (*Hemimysis anomala*) – brochure [online]. Great Lakes Aquatic Nonindigenous Species Information System, National Research Centre for Aquatic Invasive Species. Available from http://www.glerl.noaa.gov/hemimysis/hemi_brochure.html [accessed June 2007].
4. Pothoven, S.A., I.A. Grigorovich, G.L. Fahnenstiel, and M.D. Balcer. 2007. Introduction of the Ponto-Caspian bloody-red mysid *Hemimysis anomala* into the Lake Michigan basin. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 33: 285-292.
5. Audzijonyte, A. and R. Väinölä. 2005. Diversity and distributions of circumpolar fresh- and brackish-water *Mysis* (Crustacea: Mysida): descriptions of *M. relicta* Lovén, 1862, *M. salemaai* n. sp., *M. segerstralei* n. sp. and *M. diluviana* n. sp., based on molecular and morphological characters. *Hydrobiologia* 544: 89-141.
6. Pennak, R.W. 1991. Freshwater invertebrates of the United States. Protozoa to Mollusca, third edition. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
7. Reid, D. 2007. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory. Personal communication.
8. Borchering, J., S. Murawski, and H. Arndt. 2006. Population ecology, vertical migration and feeding of the Ponto-Caspian invader *Hemimysis anomala* in a gravel-pit lake connected to the River Rhine. *Freshwater Biology* 51: 2376-2387.
9. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory. 2007. *Hemimysis anomala* survey & monitoring network – report [online]. Great Lakes Aquatic Nonindigenous Species Information System, National Research Centre for Aquatic Invasive Species. Available from http://www.glerl.noaa.gov/res/Programs/ncrais/hemimysis/hemi_reports.html (accessed December 2007).

Red Mysid *continued*

10. Holdich, D., S. Gallagher, L. Rippon, P. Harding, and R. Stubbington. 2006. The invasive Ponto-Caspian mysid, *Hemimysis anomala*, reaches the UK. *Aquatic Invasions* 1: 4-6.
11. Grigorovich, I.A., R.I. Colautti, E.L. Mills, K. Holeck, A.G. Ballert, and H.J. MacIsaac. 2003. Ballast-mediated animal introductions in the Laurentian Great Lakes: retrospective and prospective analyses. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science* 60: 740-756.

VIVIPARIDAE / Mysterysnail Family

Chinese Mysterysnail

Cipangopaludina chinensis

1. Clarke, A.H. 1981. The freshwater molluscs of Canada. National Museums of Canada, Ottawa.
2. Pennak, R.W. 1989. Freshwater invertebrates of the United States. Protozoa to Mollusca, third edition. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
3. Jokinen, E.H., J. Guerette, and R.W. Kortmann. 1982. The natural history of an Ovoviparous snail, *Viviparus georgianus* (Lea), in a soft-water eutrophic lake. *Freshwater Invertebrate Biology* 1: 2-17.
4. Canadian Museum of Nature. 2003. A few newcomers in the Rideau River [online]. Available from http://www.nature.ca/rideau/b/b9b_2-e.html [accessed April 2007].
5. Benson, A. 2007. *Cipangopaludina japonica*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=1046> [accessed May 2007].
6. Benson, A. 2007. *Cipangopaludina chinensis malleata*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=1045> [accessed April 2007].
7. Mackie, G.L. 2000. Introduction of mollusks through the import for live food. In Nonindigenous freshwater organisms: vectors, biology, and impacts. *Edited by R. Claudi and J.H. Leach*. CRC Press LLC, Florida. Pp. 305-313.

Chinese Mysterysnail *continued*

8. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database - distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.
9. Sutherland, D. 2007. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
10. Dermott, R. 2007. Great Lakes Laboratory for Fisheries & Aquatic Sciences, Fisheries and Oceans Canada. Personal communication.
11. Clench, W.J. and S.L.H. Fuller. 1965. The genus *Viviparus* (Viviparidae) in North America. Harvard Museum of Comparative Zoology, Occasional Papers on Molluscs. 2: 385-412.
12. Cordeiro, J. 2004. *Cipangopaludina chinensis*. NatureServe Explorer [online]. Available from <http://www.natureserve.org/explorer/servlet/NatureServe?init=Species> [accessed April 2007].
13. Robinson, D.G. 1999. Alien invasions: the effects of the global economy on non-marine Gastropod introductions in to the United States. *Malacologia*. 41: 413-438.
14. Mills, E.L., J.H. Leach, J.T. Carlton, and C.L. Secor. 1993. Exotic species in the Great Lakes: a history of biotic crises and anthropogenic introductions. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 19: 1-54.

VIVIPARIDAE / Mysterysnail Family

Banded Mysterysnail

Viviparus georgianus

1. Clarke, A.H. 1981. The freshwater molluscs of Canada. National Museums of Canada. Ottawa, Ontario.
2. Pennak, R.W. 1989. Freshwater invertebrates of the United States. Protozoa to Mollusca, third edition. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
3. Clench, W.J. and S.L.H. Fuller. 1965. The genus *Viviparus* (Viviparidae) in North America. Occasional Papers on Mollusks 2: 385-412.

Banded Mysterysnail *continued*

4. Jokinen, E.H., J. Guerette, and R.W. Kortmann. 1982. The natural history of an Ovoviparous snail, *Viviparus georgianus* (Lea), in a soft-water eutrophic lake. *Freshwater Invertebrate Biology* 1: 2-17.
5. Benson, A. 2007. *Cipangopaludina japonica*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=1046> [accessed May 2007].
6. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database - distribution obtained from C. Proctor in March 2007.
7. Sutherland, D. 2007. Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. Personal communication.
8. Clench, W.J. 1962. A catalogue of the Viviparidae of North America with notes on the distribution of *Viviparus georgianus* Lea. *Occasional Papers on Molluscs* 2: 261-287.
9. Cordeiro, J. 2004. *Viviparus georgianus*. NatureServe Explorer [online]. Available from <http://www.natureserve.org/explorer/servlet/NatureServe?init=Species> [accessed April 2007].
10. Benson, A. 2007. *Viviparus georgianus*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database, Gainesville, Florida [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=1047> [accessed June 2007].
11. Eckblad, J.W. and M.H. Shealy, Jr. 1972. Predation on largemouth bass embryos by the pond snail *Viviparus georgianus*. *Transactions of American Fisheries Society* 101: 734-738.

Goldfish

Carassius auratus

1. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.
2. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
3. Schofield, P.J., J.D. Williams, L.G. Nico, P. Fuller, and M.R. Thomas. 2005. Foreign nonindigenous carps and minnows (Cyprinidae) in the United States - a guide to their identification, distribution, and biology. U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2005-5041.
4. Nico, L. and P.J. Schofield. 2007. *Carassius auratus*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=508> [accessed April 2007].
5. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
6. Laird, C.A. and L.M. Page. 1996. Non-native fishes inhabiting the streams and lakes of Illinois. Illinois Natural History Survey Bulletin 35: 1-51.
7. Richardson, M.J., F.G. Whoriskey, and L.H. Roy. 1995. Turbidity generation and biological impacts of an exotic fish *Carassius auratus*, introduced into shallow seasonally anoxic ponds. Journal of Fish Biology 47: 576-585.

Grass Carp

Ctenopharyngodon idella

1. Jenkins, R. E. and N. M. Burkhead. 1994. Freshwater fishes of Virginia. American Fisheries Society, Bethesda.
2. Smith, C.L. 1985. The inland fishes of New York State. New York State Department of Environmental Conservation, Albany.
3. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].

Grass Carp *continued*

4. Schofield, P.J., J.D. Williams, L.G. Nico, P. Fuller, and M.R. Thomas. 2005. Foreign nonindigenous carps and minnows (Cyprinidae) in the United States - a guide to their identification, distribution, and biology. U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2005-5041.
5. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman, 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Bulletin of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada 184.
6. Holm, E. 2007. Department of Natural History, Royal Ontario Museum. Personal communication.
7. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
8. Cudmore, B. and N.E. Mandrak. 2004. Biological synopsis of grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*). Canadian Manuscript Report of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 2705.
9. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
10. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
11. Fuller, P.L., L.G. Nico, and J.D. Williams. 1999. Nonindigenous fishes introduced into inland waters of the United States. American Fisheries Society Special Publication 27. Bethesda.
12. Shireman, J.V. and C.R. Smith. 1983. Synopsis of biological data on the grass carp, *Ctenopharyngodon idella* (Cuvier and Valenciennes, 1844). FAO (Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations) Fisheries Synopsis 135. Rome.
13. Mandrak, N.E. and B. Cudmore. 2004. Risk assessment for Asian carps in Canada. Fisheries and Oceans Canada. Science Advisory Secretariat, Research Document 2004/103.

Common Carp

Cyprinus carpio

1. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.
2. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
3. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
4. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (revised edition: revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
5. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
6. Nico, L., E. Maynard, and P.J. Schofield. 2007. *Cyprinus carpio*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Gainesville, Florida. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=4> [accessed April 2007].
7. Balon, E.K. 1995. Origin and domestication of the wild carp, *Cyprinus carpio*: from Roman gourmets to the swimming flowers. *Aquaculture* 129: 3-48.
8. Fuller, P.L., L.G. Nico, and J.D. Williams. 1999. Nonindigenous fishes introduced into inland waters of the United States. American Fisheries Society Special Publication 27, Bethesda.
9. Schofield, P.J., J.D. Williams, L.G. Nico, P. Fuller, and M.R. Thomas. 2005. Foreign nonindigenous carps and minnows (Cyprinidae) in the United States - a guide to their identification, distribution, and biology. U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2005-5041.

Silver Carp

Hypophthalmichthys molitrix

1. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
2. Schofield, P.J., J.D. Williams, L.G. Nico, P. Fuller, and M.R. Thomas. 2005. Foreign nonindigenous carps and minnows (Cyprinidae) in the United States - a guide to their identification, distribution, and biology. U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2005-5041.
3. Holm, E. 2007. Department of Natural History, Royal Ontario Museum. Personal communication.
4. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Bulletin of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada 184.
5. Crossman, E.J., E. Holm, R. Cholmondeley, and K. Tuininga. 1992. First record for Canada of the rudd, *Scardinius erythrophthalmus*, and notes on the introduced round goby, *Neogobius melanostomus*. Canadian Field-Naturalist 106: 206-209.
6. Stein, R. 2003. Letter to Mr. Everett Wilson, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service [online]. Available from http://www.glf.org/fishmgmt/silver_glf.pdf [accessed July 2007].
7. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
8. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
9. Kolar, C.S., D.C. Chapman, W.R. Courtenay, Jr., C.M. Housel, J.D. Williams, and D.P. Jennings. 2005. Asian carps of the genus *Hypophthalmichthys* (Pisces, Cyprinidae). A biological synopsis and environmental risk assessment. Interagency report to the US Fish and Wildlife Service.
10. Nico, L. 2007. *Hypophthalmichthys molitrix*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=549> [accessed April 2007].

Silver Carp *continued*

11. Mandrak, N.E. and B. Cudmore. 2004. Risk assessment for Asian carps in Canada. Fisheries and Oceans Canada. Science Advisory Secretariat, Research Document 2004/103.

CYPRINIDAE / Minnow and Carp Family

Bighead Carp

Hypophthalmichthys nobilis

1. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
2. Schofield, P.J., J.D. Williams, L.G. Nico, P. Fuller, and M.R. Thomas. 2005. Foreign nonindigenous carps and minnows (Cyprinidae) in the United States - a guide to their identification, distribution, and biology. U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2005-5041.
3. Holm, E. 2007. Department of Natural History, Royal Ontario Museum. Personal communication.
4. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman, 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Bulletin of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada 184.
5. Crossman, E.J., E. Holm, R. Cholmondeley, and K. Tuininga. 1992. First record for Canada of the rudd, *Scardinius erythrophthalmus*, and notes on the introduced round goby, *Neogobius melanostomus*. Canadian Field-Naturalist 106: 206-209.
6. Kolar, C.S., D.C. Chapman, W.R. Courtenay, Jr., C.M. Housel, J.D. Williams, and D.P. Jennings. 2005. Asian carps of the Genus *Hypophthalmichthys* (Pisces, Cyprinidae). A biological synopsis and environmental risk assessment. Interagency report to the US Fish and Wildlife Service.
7. Mandrak, N.E. and B. Cudmore. 2004. Risk assessment for Asian carps in Canada. Fisheries and Oceans Canada. Science Advisory Secretariat, Research Document 2004/103.
8. Nico, L. and P. Fuller. 2007. *Hypophthalmichthys nobilis*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=551> [accessed April 2007].

Black Carp

Mylopharyngodon piceus

1. Schofield, P.J., J.D. Williams, L.G. Nico, P. Fuller, and M.R. Thomas. 2005. Foreign nonindigenous carps and minnows (Cyprinidae) in the United States - a guide to their identification, distribution, and biology. U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2005-5041.
2. Holm, E. 2007. Department of Natural History, Royal Ontario Museum. Personal communication.
3. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Bulletin of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada 184.
4. Nico, L.G., J.D. Williams, and H.L. Jelks. 2005. Black carp: biological synopsis and risk assessment of an introduced fish. American Fisheries Society Special Publication 32, Bethesda.
5. Mandrak, N.E. and B. Cudmore. 2004. Risk assessment for Asian carps in Canada. Fisheries and Oceans Canada. Science Advisory Secretariat, Research Document 2004/103.
6. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
7. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.

Rudd

Scardinius erythrophthalmus

1. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company. Boston.
2. Crossman, E.J., E. Holm, R. Cholmondeley, and K. Tuininga. 1992. First record for Canada of the rudd. *Scardinius erythrophthalmus*, and notes on the introduced round goby, *Neogobius melanostomus*. Canadian Field-Naturalist 106:206-209.

Rudd *continued*

3. Schofield, P.J., J.D. Williams, L.G. Nico, P. Fuller, and M.R. Thomas. 2005. Foreign nonindigenous carps and minnows (Cyprinidae) in the United States - a guide to their identification, distribution, and biology. U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2005-5041.
4. Holm, E. 2007. Department of Natural History, Royal Ontario Museum. Personal communication.
5. Smith, C.L. 1985. Inland fishes of New York State. New York State Department of Environmental Conservation. Albany.
6. Nico, L., P. Fuller and G. Jacobs. 2007. *Scardinius erythrophthalmus*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Gainesville, Florida. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=648> [accessed April 2007].
7. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
8. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
9. Burkhead, N.M. and J.D. Williams. 1991. An intergeneric hybrid of a native minnow, the golden shiner, and an exotic minnow, the rudd. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 120:781-795.

CYPRINIDAE / Minnow and Carp Family

Tench

Tinca tinca

1. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.
2. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
3. Schofield, P.J., J.D. Williams, L.G. Nico, P. Fuller, and M.R. Thomas. 2005. Foreign nonindigenous carps and minnows (Cyprinidae) in the United States - a guide to their identification, distribution, and biology. U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2005-5041.

Tench *continued*

4. Vachon, N. and P. Dumont. 2002. Study of the first references to tench (*Tinca tinca* L.) caught in the upper-Richlelieu River (Québec). Québec Society of Wildlife and Parks, Monteregie Directorate of Wildlife Management, Longueuil, Technical Report. 16-07.
5. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
6. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
7. Nico, L. and P. Fuller. 2007. *Tinca tinca*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=652> [accessed April 2007].

GASTEROSTEIDAE / Stickleback Family

Fourspine Stickleback

Apeltes quadracus

1. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.
2. Smith, C.L. 1985. Inland fishes of New York State. New York State Department of Environmental Conservation, Albany.
3. Scott, W.B. and M.G. Scott. 1988. Atlantic fishes of Canada. Canadian Bulletin of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 219.
4. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
5. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
6. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (Revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.

Fourspine Stickleback *continued*

7. Stephenson, S.A. and W.T. Momot. 2000. Threespine, *Gasterosteus aculeatus*, and fourspine, *Apeltes quadracus*, sticklebacks in the Lake Superior basin. Canadian Field-Naturalist 114: 211-216.
8. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
9. Fuller, P. and G. Jacobs. 2007. *Apeltes quadracus*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=700> [accessed April 2007].

GASTEROSTEIDAE / Stickleback Family

Threespine Stickleback

Gasterosteus aculeatus

1. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.
2. Smith, C.L. 1985. Inland fishes of New York State. New York State Department of Environmental Conservation, Albany.
3. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
4. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
5. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
6. Stephenson, S.A. and W.T. Momot. 2000. Threespine, *Gasterosteus aculeatus*, and fourspine, *Apeltes quadracus*, sticklebacks in the Lake Superior basin. Canadian Field-Naturalist 114: 211-216.
7. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.

Threespine Stickleback *continued*

8. Fuller, P. 2007. *Gasterosteus aculeatus*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=702> [accessed April 2007].

GOBIIDAE / Goby Family

Round Goby

Neogobius melanostomus

1. Crossman, E.J., E. Holm, R. Cholmondeley, and K. Tuininga. 1992. First record for Canada of the rudd, *Scardinius erythrophthalmus*, and notes on the introduced round goby, *Neogobius melanostomus*. Canadian Field-Naturalist 106: 206-209.
2. Charlebois, P.M., J.E. Marsden, R.G. Goettel, R.K. Wolfe, D.J. Jude, and S. Rudnika. 1997. The round goby, *Neogobius melanostomus* (Pallas), a review of European and North American literature. Illinois-Indiana Sea Grant Program and Illinois Natural History Survey. Illinois Natural History Survey Special Publication No. 20.
3. Jude, D.J. 1997. Round gobies: cyberfish of the Third Millennium. Great Lakes Research Review 3: 27-34.
4. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
5. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
6. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
7. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
8. Hensler, S.R. and D.J. Jude. 2007. Diel vertical migration of round goby larvae in the Great Lakes. Journal of Great Lakes Research 33: 295-302.

Round Goby *continued*

9. French, J.R.P. III. and D.J. Jude. 2001. Diets and diet overlap of nonindigenous gobies and small benthic native fishes co-inhabiting the St. Clair River, Michigan. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 27: 300-311.
10. Janssen, J. and D.J. Jude. 2001. Recruitment failure of mottled sculpin *Cottus bairdi* in the Calumet Harbor, southern Lake Michigan, induced by the newly introduced round goby *Neogobius melanostomus*. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 27: 319-328.
11. Munawar, M., I.F. Munawar, N.E. Mandrak, M. Fitzpatrick, R. Dermott, and J. Leach. 2005. An overview of the impact of non-indigenous species on the food web integrity of North American Great Lakes: Lake Erie example. *Aquatic Ecosystem Health and Management* 8: 375-395.
12. Vanderploeg, H.A., T.F. Nalepa, D.J. Jude, E.L. Mills, K.T. Holeck, J.R. Leibig, I.A. Grigorovich, and H. Ojaveer. 2002. Dispersal and emerging ecological impacts of Ponto-Caspian species in the Laurentian Great Lakes. *Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 59: 1209-1228.
13. Johnson, T.B., D.B. Bunnell, and C.T. Knight. 2005. A potential new energy pathway in central Lake Erie: the round goby connection. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 31: 238-251.

GOBIIDAE / Goby Family

Tubenose Goby

Proterorhinus marmoratus

1. Berg, L.S. 1949. *Freshwater fishes of the U.S.S.R. and adjacent countries*, 4th edition. [Translated from Russian, 1962-1965, for the Smithsonian Institution and the National Science Foundation, by Israel Program for Scientific Translations, Jerusalem, Israel].
2. Crossman, E.J., E. Holm, R. Cholmondeley, and K. Tuininga. 1992. First record for Canada of the rudd, *Scardinius erythrophthalmus*, and notes on the introduced round goby, *Neogobius melanostomus*. *Canadian Field-Naturalist* 106: 206-209.

Tubenose Goby *continued*

3. Jude, D.J., R.H. Reider, and G.R. Smith. 1992. Establishment of Gobiidae in the Great Lakes basin. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science* 49: 416-421.
4. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
5. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
6. Lapointe, N.W.R. 2005. Fish-habitat associations in shallow Canadian waters of the Detroit River. M.Sc. Thesis. University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario.
7. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
8. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
9. Corkum, L. 2007. Department of Biological Sciences, University of Windsor. Personal communication.
10. Fuller, P., L. Nico and E. Maynard. 2007. *Proterorhinus semilunaris*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Gainesville, Florida. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=714> [accessed April 2007].
11. French, J.R.P. III and D.J. Jude. 2001. Diets and diet overlap of nonindigenous gobies and small benthic native fishes co-inhabiting the St. Clair River, Michigan. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 27: 300-311.
12. Janssen, J. and D.J. Jude. 2001. Recruitment failure of mottled sculpin *Cottus bairdi* in the Calumet Harbor, southern Lake Michigan, induced by the newly introduced round goby *Neogobius melanostomus*. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 27: 319-328.

White Perch

Morone americana

1. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.
2. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
3. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (revised edition: revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
4. Todd, T.N. 1986. Occurrence of white bass-white perch hybrids in Lake Erie. *Copeia* 1986: 196-199.
5. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
6. Fuller, P., E. Maynard and D. Raikow. 2007. *Morone americana*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=777> [accessed April 2007].
7. Schaeffer, J. and F. Margraf. 1987. Predation on fish eggs by white perch, *Morone americana*, in western Lake Erie. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 18: 77-80.

OSMERIDAE / Smelt Family

Rainbow Smelt

Osmerus mordax

1. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.
2. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
3. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].

Rainbow Smelt *continued*

4. Stewart, K.W. and D.A. Watkinson. 2004. The freshwater fishes of Manitoba. University of Manitoba Press, Winnipeg.
5. Franzin, W.G., B.A. Barton, R.A. Remnant, D.B. Wain, and S.J. Pagel. 1994. Range extension, present and potential distribution, and possible effects of rainbow smelt in Hudson Bay drainage waters of northwestern Ontario, Manitoba, and Minnesota. *North American Journal of Fisheries Management* 14: 65-76.
6. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
7. Fuller, P. and E. Maynard. 2007. *Osmerus mordax*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Gainesville, Florida. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=796> [accessed April 2007].
8. Evans, D.O. and D.H. Loftus. 1987. Colonization of inland lakes in the Great Lakes region by rainbow smelt, *Osmerus mordax*: their freshwater niche and effects on indigenous fishes. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 44: 249-266.
9. Hrabik, T.R. and J. Magnuson. 1999. Simulated dispersal of exotic rainbow smelt (*Osmerus mordax*) in a northern Wisconsin lake district and implications for management. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science* 56 (Supplement 1): 35-42.
10. Hrabik, T.R., J.J. Magnuson, and A.S. McLain. 1998. Predicting the effects of rainbow smelt on native fishes in small lakes: evidence from long-term research on two lakes. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science* 55: 1364-1371.
11. Beisner, B.E., A.R. Ives, and S.R. Carpenter. 2003. The effects of an exotic fish invasion on the prey communities of two lakes. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 72: 331-342.

Ruffe

Gymnocephalus cernuus

1. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr, 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
2. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed 25 April 2007].
3. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (revised edition: revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
4. Hölker, F. and R.Thiel. 1998. Biology of ruffe (*Gymnocephalus cernuus* (L.)) – a review of selected aspects from European literature. Journal of Great Lakes Research 24: 186-204.
5. Ontario Federation of Anglers and Hunters and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources. 2007. Aquatic invasive species database – distribution obtained from C. Proctor in April 2007.
6. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
7. Czipynski, G.D., A.K. Bowen, M.A. Goehle, S. Cogswell, and B. MacKay. 2004. Surveillance for ruffe in the Great Lakes, 2003. U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.
8. Fuller, P. and G. Jacobs. 2007. *Gymnocephalus cernuus*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=7> [accessed April 2007].

Sea Lamprey

Petromyzon marinus

1. Scott, W.B. and E.J. Crossman. 1973. Freshwater fishes of Canada. Fisheries Research Board of Canada Bulletin 184.
2. Becker, G.C. 1983. Fishes of Wisconsin. Universtiy of Wisconsin Press, Madison.

Sea Lamprey *continued*

3. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
4. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
5. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
6. Royal Ontario Museum. 2007. A database of occurrence records of Ontario fishes (OFDD.MDB) obtained from E. Holm on April 13, 2007.
7. Bryan, M.B., D. Zalinski, B. Filcek, S. Libants, W. Li, and K.T. Scribner. 2005. Patterns of invasion and colonization of the sea lamprey. *Molecular Ecology* 14: 3757–3773.
8. Smith, B.R. and J.J. Tibbles. 1980. Sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*) in Lakes Huron, Michigan, and Superior: history of invasion and control, 1936–78. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* 37: 1780–1801.
9. Dettmers, J. 2007. Great Lakes Fishery Commission. Personal communication.

POECILIIDAE / Livebearer Family

Eastern Mosquitofish *Gambusia holbrooki*

Western Mosquitofish *Gambusia affinis*

1. Page, L.M. and B.M. Burr. 1991. A field guide to freshwater fishes of North America north of Mexico. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
2. Jenkins, R.E. and N.M. Burkhead. 1993. Freshwater fishes of Virginia. American Fisheries Society, Bethesda.
3. Lyons, J. 2001. On-line system for identifying Wisconsin fishes [online]. Available from <http://www.wiscfish.org> [accessed April 2007].
4. Hubbs, C.L. and K.F. Lagler. 2004. Fishes of the Great Lakes region (revised edition: revised by G. R. Smith). The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.

Mosquitofish *continued*

5. Rauchenberger, M. 1989. Systematics and biogeography of the genus *Gambusia* (Cyprinodontiformes: Poeciliidae). *American Museum Novitates* 2951: 1-74.
6. Courtenay, W.R., Jr. and G.K. Meffe. 1989. Small fishes in strange places: a review of introduced poeciliids. *In Ecology and evolution of livebearing fishes (Poeciliidae)*. Edited by G.K. Meffe and F.F. Snelson, Jr.. Prentice Hall, New Jersey. Pp. 319-331.
7. Nico, L. and P. Fuller. 2007. *Gambusia holbrooki*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=849> [accessed April 2007].
8. Nico, L., P. Fuller, and G. Jacobs. 2007. *Gambusia affinis*. USGS Nonindigenous Aquatic Species Database [online]. Available from <http://nas.er.usgs.gov/queries/FactSheet.asp?speciesID=846> [accessed April 2007].
9. Rehage, J.S., B.K. Barnett, and A. Sih. 2005. Foraging behaviour and invasiveness: do invasive *Gambusia* exhibit higher feeding rates and broader diets than their noninvasive relatives? *Ecology of Freshwater Fish* 14: 352-360.
10. Goodsell, J.A. and L.B. Kats. 1999. Effect of introduced mosquitofish on Pacific treefrogs and the role of alternative prey. *Conservation Biology* 13: 921-924.
11. Global Invasive Species Database. 2005. *Gambusia affinis* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=126&fr=1&sts=sss> [accessed April 2007].
12. Global Invasive Species Database. 2005. *Gambusia holbrooki* [online]. Available from <http://www.issg.org/database/species/ecology.asp?si=617&fr=1&sts=sss> [accessed April 2007].

Field Guide to Aquatic Invasive Species - Photo Index



Cym-did-gem



Ara-pis-str



Azo-azo-pin



But-but-umb



Cab-cab-car



Cyp-car-acu



Hal-myr-aqu



Hal-myr-spi



Hyd-ege-den



Hyd-hyd-mor



Hyd-hyd-ver



Iri-iri-pse



Lyt-lyt-sal



Men-nym-pel



Poa-phr-aus



Pon-eic-cra



Pot-pot-cri



Sal-sal-spp



Tra-tra-nat



Amp-pom-can



Cam-orc-rus



Cer-byt-lon



Cer-cer-pen



Cor-cor-flu



Dre-dre-bug



Dre-dre-pol



Gam-ech-isc



Hyd-pot-ant



Mys-hem-ano



Viv-cip-chi



Viv-viv-geo



Cyp-car-aur



Cyp-cte-ide



Cyp-cyp-car



Cyp-hyp-mol



Cyp-hyp-nob



Cyp-myl-pic



Cyp-sca-ery



Cyp-tin-tin



Gas-ape-qua



Gas-gas-acu



Gob-neo-mel



Gob-pro-mar



Mor-mor-ame



Osm-osm-mor



Per-gym-cer



Pet-pet-mar



Poe-gam-spp