Climate and tectonic change are the most important factors influencing species distributions.



Disappearing Climates



How does current (and future) climate change compare to previous climate change? How and to what extent will this influence species distributions across the globe?



Disappearing Climates



Williams et al. 2007

Outline of topics in this section:

- 1) Climate change
- Briefly reflect on past climate change
- Focus on data for current climate change using IPCC
- 2) Biogeographic effects of climate change
- 3) Predicting changes in distributions

Goals and learning objectives:

1) Understand and interpret the sources of information from the IPCC (and appreciate the depth of the assessment)

2) Consider the various ways that species may respond to climate change (e.g., extinction, distributional shifts, or evolution)

3) Address the complexity involved with predicting changes in distributions with climate change, and what various factors should be considered

Previous Climate Change



Previous Climate Change

Global climate has changed frequently

Biomes have shifted in location due to climate change





Figure from Thompson & Anderson 2000: Biomes of western North America at 18,000, 6000 and 0 14 C yr BP, reconstructed from pollen and packrat midden data.

Series of reports from IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change)

https://www.ipcc.ch/index.htm

https://www.ipcc.ch/publications_and_data/publications_and_data.shtml

Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) released in 2014

- Written by >830 scientists from >80 countries selected to form author teams to produce the report
- Draws on work of >1,000 contributing authors and >1,000 expert reviewers
- The AR5 assessed >30,000 scientific papers

Evidence for climate change:

- 1) Sea level rise
- 2) Global temperature rise
- 3) Warming oceans
- 4) Shrinking ice sheets

- 5) Declining arctic sea ice
- 6) Glacial retreat
- 7) Extreme events
- 8) Ocean acidification

Recent change has been exceptionally rapid



From IPCC 2007 (left) and IPCC 2013 (right)

Observed globally averaged combined land and ocean surface $_{(\epsilon}$ temperature anomaly 1850-2012



All terrestrial areas have experienced increases in surface temperature, (+) indicates areas where trend is significant at the 10% level

(b) Observed change in surface temperature 1901-2012



Derived from one of the previous datasets; White boxes show incomplete records

From IPCC 2013



Multiple independent indicators of changing global climate

From 1840:

- Land surface air temp
- Sea-surface temp
- Marine air temp
- Sea level
- Summer arctic sea-ice extent

From 1940:

- Tropospheric temp
- Ocean heat content
- Specific humidity
- N. hemisphere snow cover
- Glacier mass balance

From IPCC 2013 11



Five-Year Global Temperature Anomalies from 1880 to 2015

NASA: 2013 tied with 2009 and 2006 for the seventh warmest year since 1880. With the exception of 1998, the 10 warmest years in the 134-year record all have occurred since 2000, with 2010 and 2005 ranking as the warmest years on record.



Nasa: https://svs.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/details.cgi?aid=4419

Five-Year Global Temperature Anomalies from 1880 to 2015

Earth's 2015 surface temperature was the warmest since modern record keeping in 1880, according to independent analyses from NASA and National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) (map shows global surface temperature anomalies)



Globally averaged temps in 2015 shattered the previous mark set in 2014 by 0.13 Celsius¹⁴

Trends in annual frequency of extreme temperatures from 1951 – 2010 for grid boxes with 40+ years of data existing through 2003 (grey = incomplete/ missing data; black (+) indicates significant trend outside 90% CI)

(a) Cold Nights

Trend (days per decade)



From IPCC 2013 ¹⁵

Trends in annual frequency of extreme temperatures from 1951 – 2010 for grid boxes with 40+ years of data existing through 2003 (grey = incomplete/ missing data; black (+) indicates significant trend outside 90% CI) (c) Warm Nights

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From IPCC 2013

Projected change in average surface temp and precipitation with two carbon emissions scenarios

20

30

40

10

50



-50

-40

-30

-20

-10

0

From IPCC 2013

Projected change in northern hemisphere sea ice extent and ocean surface pH with two carbon emissions scenarios

In our oceans, higher CO2 emissions result in ocean acidification



Increased levels of carbonic acid reduces the pH levels in oceans.

Lower pH reduces availability of minerals like calcium carbonate (building blocks for shells and skeletons of many marine fauna)



Projected change in northern hemisphere sea ice extent and ocean surface pH with two carbon emissions scenarios



Global mean surface temperature increase as a function of cumulative total global CO2 emissions from various lines of evidence



Cumulative total anthropogenic CO2 emissions from 1870

Climate may have direct impacts on range limits of species For example, some species range boundaries appear to be directly linked to temperature thresholds and physiological tolerance



But most species range limits and distribution shifts are likely to be much more complex with climate change...

Distributions of taxon diversity: oceanic zooplankton species diversity is strongly correlated with sea-surface temperature



Distributions of taxon diversity: oceanic zooplankton species diversity is strongly correlated with sea-surface temperature (SST)

Positive relationship between SST and diversity between -2 and 27 °C (negative > 27 °C) Rutherford et al. 1999

How do species and communities respond to climate change?

Three options:

- 1. Extinction (local, regional or global)
- 2. Emigration (e.g., distributional shift)
- 3. Evolution (given sufficient genetic variation)

How do species and communities respond to climate change? Three options:

Rapid evolution of cold tolerance in a marine population of stickleback transplanted to freshwater

Three potential patterns of distributional shifts:

Range retraction: range retracts towards center at one or both boundaries without expansion at the other boundary (eventual conclusion is extinction).

Range expansion: range expands at one or both boundaries without retraction at the other boundary.

Range shift: entire range shifts with retraction at one boundary and expansion at the opposite boundary.

Records of distributional change: benthic invertebrates at Monterey Bay in 1930's and 1990's: Resurveyed 57 transect plots in the intertidal community

Species composition change at Monterey Bay:

Sagarin et al. 1999

Records of extinctions: records of extinctions of populations of Edith's checkerspot butterfly (*Euphydryas editha*) from museums, private collections, and researchers' field notes – compared to contemporary surveys.

Parmesan et al. 1996

Records of distributional change: good records of range shifts in European butterflies

Of 35 non-migratory European butterflies, 63% have shown range shifts to the north by 35–240 km during this century (only 3% have shifted to the south).

Northward range shifts of *Pararge aegeria* in Great Britain and *Argynnis paphia* in Scandanavia (Parmesan *et al.* 1999)

Records of distributional change: good records of range shifts in European butterflies.

Some butterfly species did not shift their range (blue) – southern populations went extinct at the southern edge (red).

Parmesan et al. 1999

Potential spread of diseases due to warming climate.

Predicted suitability maps for malaria (hatched area shows current global distribution)

Some species or communities may lag behind temperature changes Range shifts are observed, but do not keep pace with climate change.

Sampling locations for birds along an elevation gradient in the Cerros del Sira, Peru

Forero-Medina et al. 2011

Some species or communities may lag behind temperature changes Range shifts are observed, but do not keep pace with climate change.

Some species show range shifts, but lag behind temperature change

Forero-Medina et al. 2011

Predicting Species Distributions

Maps of species occurrences are associated with environmental variables (climate envelope).

To predict distributional shifts, spatial change in environment is projected into future under different scenarios, and species distributions are recast.

Predicting Changes in Distributions

An analog of the concept of the fundamental niche is the concept of the *climate envelope*, which has been used to compute an *ecoclimatic index*.

Ecoclimatic Index: a measure of the overall climatic favourability of a location for permanent establishment by a taxon based on developmental and distributional responses to temperature, moisture, and day length. In short, a measure that predicts the extent to which a location has the potential to support a taxon.

Predicting Changes in Distributions

Climate envelope model for BC forests predict some types will disappear (forest types in bold show major area reductions)

Predicting range shifts of montane species with climate change

Moderate climate change scenario predicts ~3°C warming in next century

Temperature decreases ~6°C per 1000 m elevation

If species track changing environments, predicted range shift of 500 m elevation

Resplendent Quetzal (Pharomachrus mocinno)

Predicting range shifts of montane species with climate change

Predicting range shifts of montane species with climate change

Resplendent Quetzal (Pharomachrus mocinno)

Current and predicted distributions of the Resplendent Quetzal in Monteverde

Predicting range shifts of montane species with climate change...which variables?

In this mountain range, cloud moisture is predicted by how far a site is from the continental divide.

Wind-driven mist moves over divide

Variation in species composition across sites is better predicted by distance of sites from the continental divide than by elevation

Bird species composition is more highly correlated with changes in vegetation, like epiphytes, which are directly affected by moisture/precipitation

We see a very different picture of population trajectories, depending on how species shift their ranges with respect to habitat variables...

Recall Janzen's hypothesis: Temperate regions have higher overlap in thermal regimes across seasons compared to tropical regions.

Recall Janzen's hypothesis: Temperate regions have higher overlap in thermal regimes across seasons compared to tropical regions.

McCain 2009, Ecol. Letters; Janzen 1967, American Naturalist

Data from diverse tropical ectotherms (e.g., fish, insects, reptiles, amphibians) suggest that tropical species living in stable aseasonal climates have:

- 1) narrower thermal tolerances than higher-latitude species
- 2) live in climates closer to their physiological optima
 - Current mean temperature
 - Current temperature range
- Predicted mean temperature in 2100
- Predicted temperature range in 2100

In ectotherms (e.g., insects, herps), basic physiological functions like locomotion, growth and reproduction are strongly influenced by environmental temperature → Climate change has direct impacts that can be readily predicted

Warming tolerance ($CT_{max} - T_{hab}$)

Thermal Safety Margin (T_{opt} – T_{hab})

Black line represents level of warming (ΔT) by 2100

Insects at higher latitudes will remain high above thermal safety margin

Tropical insects will approach near-lethal temperatures

Climate change is predicted to be most deleterious for tropical representatives from these four ectothermic taxa. Performance should increase at mid- and high-latitudes

Biotic interactions make predictions of distributional change difficult Experiment using three species of *Drosophila* (Davis *et al* 1998).

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Biotic interactions make predictions of distributional change difficult Experiment using three species of *Drosophila* (Davis *et al* 1998).

Without dispersal populations at extreme temperatures went extinct.

Dispersal maintains sink populations.

Biotic interactions may be primary drivers of species range shifts and loss

Biotic interactions may be primary drivers of species range shifts and loss

Recall song playback experiments and closest approach to speaker as a metric of aggression.

For Nightingale-Thrushes, interspecific competition is asymmetric (lower elevation species more aggressive).

Expected that lower species (Orange-billed NT) will invade higher elevations, facilitated by climate change.

Biotic interactions may be primary drivers of species range shifts and loss

Parnassius mnemosyne

Corydalis intermedia

Corydalis cava

European distribution of the clouded Apollo butterfly (*Parnassius mnemosyne*) and three species of the genus *Corydalis* that act as larval host plants.

Corydalis solida

Biotic interactions may be primary drivers of species range shifts and loss

Modelled distribution based on baseline and future (2050) conditions assuming unlimited dispersal (UD) and no dispersal (ND) among *Corydalis* spp. larval host plants

Distributions and projections depend upon variables used in model (climate vs. climate + host plant) as well as unlimited or no dispersal

Unlimited dispersal

Araújo & Luoto 2007

Predicting Changes in Distributions - Challenges

Lack of knowledge of explicit spatial distributions of species

Wallacean shortfall

Actual population density sampled locations (
) Lack of knowledge of attributes of species and their interactions

Hutchinsonian shortfall

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