Section 10-11: Tools for assessing future impacts

Reading: Hannah Ch 10-11

Learning outcomes

- understand and provide examples of
 - laboratory experiments
 - field experiments
 - modeling (various types)

Laboratory experiments of *↑*CO2



FIGURE 10.3 Laboratory and Greenhouse Experiments.

Diffusers and enclosures may be used to maintain constant elevated CO₂ levels, whereas greenhouses or other warming devices may be used to manipulate temperature. *Courtesy of SCRI*.

Effect of ↑CO2 for plants with different photosynthetic pathways





Graphs show an increase in biomass enhancement ratio, a measure of increase in biomass. Boxplots such as these indicate the 5th (bottom horizontal line), 25th (bottom line of box), 50th (midline of box), 75th (top line of box), and 95th (upper horizontal line) percentile of the distribution. *From Poorter, H. and Navas, M. L. 2003. Plant growth and competition at elevated CO*₂: *On winners, losers and functional groups.* New Phytologist *157, 175–198.*

Effect of \uparrow CO2 diminishes when other factors (here, competition) are present

When plants have high relative growth rate (RGR), effects of competition limit effects of CO2 fertilization



FIGURE 10.7 Biomass Enhancement for Seven Tropical Plant Species Grown in Isolation and in a Mixed Community.

The CO₂ enhancement observed in the isolated trial is not evident in the mixed community. From Poorter, H. and Navas, M. L. 2003. Plant growth and competition at elevated CO₂: On winners, losers and functional groups. New Phytologist 157, 175–198.



FIGURE 10.9 Active (a) and Passive (b) Warming Experiments.

The active warming devices include the use of infrared warming lamps. Passive warming depends on blocking of air circulation or intensification of sunlight to create warmth. Passive warming devices are often simply circles or boxes of glass or clear plastic, which act much like miniature greenhouses but allow multispecies interactions and have minimal impact on received precipitation. *(a) Courtesy of Charles Musil. (b) From the National Center for Ecological Analysis and Synthesis, University of California, Santa Barbara.*



FIGURE 10.10 Transplantation and Open-top Chamber Experiments.

Transplantation preserves plant–plant interactions and soil properties. It is usually implemented with the movement of plants embedded in whole soil. Open-top chambers preserve plant and soil relationships over a limited area. *Source: Finnish Forest Research Institute*.



http://sciencespace-wang.blogspot.com/2011_06_01_archive.html

Free air CO2 enrichment (FACE) experiments



FIGURE 10.11 Free Air CO₂ Enrichment (FACE) Experiments.

FACE experiments use massive diffusers to elevate CO₂ concentrations over a large area. Diffusers are often arrayed around a central measurement tower. *(a) Courtesy of Jeffrey S. Pippen, (b) Courtesy of Professor Josef Nösberger, Swiss Face Experiment (ETH Zurich). (c) From Brookhaven National Laboratory.*

Responses of ecosystem structure and function to warming among locations



9

FIGURE 10.12 Response to Warming.

The effects of warming on soil moisture, soil respiration, mineralization, and plant productivity are shown for multiple studies from throughout the world. Measured mean effects at each study site are indicated by open circles; bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. The vertical line indicates no effect. *From Rustad, L. E., et al. 2001. A meta-analysis of the response of soil respiration, net nitrogen mineralization, and aboveground plant growth to experimental ecosystem warming.* Oecologia *126, 543–562.*

Over time, the growth enhancement of \uparrow CO2 diminishes





Single-plant experiments seldom span long enough time frames to detect acclimation. Whole-ground experiments, usually conducted over longer time frames, clearly show the effect of acclimation. *From Idso, S. B. 1999. The long-term response of trees to atmospheric CO*₂ enrichment. Global Change Biology *5, 493–495. Hannah, 2011*

Field experiments: tree seedling viability



"Whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis*) assisted migration potential: testing establishment north of the species range"

FIG. 1. Species distribution models depicting whitebark pine's (a) current observed range in British Columbia (BC), Canada, (b) current predicted range in BC based on 1961–1990 climate normals, and (c) 2025 and (d) 2085 future predicted ranges in BC based on IS92a CGCM1 GAX future-climate scenarios (Flato et al. 2000). The models were created by T. Wang (*unpublished models*) (University of British Columbia), using methods from Hamann and Wang (2006). See Fig. 2 for the 2055 predicted range, scale, and geographic location. See Appendix A for the model creation methods.

McLane and Aiken, Ecol. Appl., 2012

Field experiments: tree seedling viability



Trial locations (black dots)

Seed sources (white squares)

FIG. 2. Trial locations and provenances relative to the 1990s observed and 2055 predicted whitebark pine species range within British Columbia, Canada. Of the eight trial locations, two are within and six are north of the current species range. All trial locations are in areas predicted to be habitable under both present and 2055 climate regimes. The two locations in boldface type, Whistler and Smithers, are both trial locations and provenances. The predicted species range was created by T. Wang (*unpublished model*) (University of British Columbia), using methods from Hamann and Wang (2006), using the IS92a CGCM1 GAX futureclimate scenario (Flato et al. 2000). The map scale is accurate in the map center but approximate at the boundaries due to projection skew.

McLane and Aiken, Ecol. Appl., 2012

Field experiments: tree seedling viability

FiG. 2. Trial locations and provenances relative to the 1990s observed and 2055 predicted whitebark pine species rang British Columbia, Canada. Of the eight trial locations, two are within and six are north of the current species range. locations are in areas predicted to be habitable under both present and 2055 climate regimes. The two locations in boldfi Whistler and Smithers, are both trial locations and provenances. The predicted species range was created by T. Wang (*unf model*) (University of British Columbia), using methods from Hamann and Wang (2006), using the IS92a CGCM1 GAX climate scenario (Flato et al. 2000). The map scale is accurate in the map center but approximate at the boundaries projection skew.

Results of trials

McLane and Aiken, Ecol. Appl., 2012

Experiment effectively reduced rainfall

http://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/Features/ AmazonDrought/stealing_rain3.php, photos by D. Nepstad; Nepstad et al., Ecology, 2007

FIG. 1. Annual rainfall (measured in wet plot) and effective rainfall (rainfall minus water excluded by plastic panels; measured in dry plot) during 3.75 years of the throughfall exclusion experiment.

Reduced rainfall led to decreased soil moisture

FIG. 1. Annual rainfall (measured in wet plot) and effective rainfall (rainfall minus water excluded by plastic panels; measured in dry plot) during 3.75 years of the throughfall exclusion experiment.

Nepstad et al., Ecology, 2007

FIG. 2. Selected components of the water balance within the wet (W) and dry (D) plots at the Tapajós throughfall exclusion experiment, showing (a) predawn leaf water potentials averaged across six species (mean \pm SE; n = 3 trees per species, n = 4 leaves per tree) in both plots; (b) plant-available soil water as a percentage of the maximum value (%PAW_{max}) for 0–2 m; (c) %PAW_{max} for 2–11 m in the soil profile; and (d) daily precipitation. Vertical hatching indicates periods when the throughfall exclusion system was functioning during the wet season.

Reduced soil moisture led to plant mortality

Fig. 2. Selected components of the water balance within the wet (W) and dry (D) plots at the Tapajos throughfall exclusion experiment, showing (a) predawn leaf water potential a veraged across δx species (mean \pm SE; n = 3 trees per species, n = 4 leaves per tree) in both plots; (b) plant-available soil water is a percentage of the maximum value (%PAW_{max}) for $b \ge 1$; (c) %PAW_{max} for $2 \ge 11$ m in the soil profile; and (d) daily precipitation. Vertical hatching indicates periods when the throughfall exclusion system was functioning during the wet season.

Nepstad et al., Ecology, 2007

Climate Change Ecology

FIG. 4. Annual mortality rates for different groupings of vegetation in the wet (W) and dry (D) plots. Groupings include (a) four diameter size classes, (b) three life forms, and (c) three tree canopy positions. Asterisks above the paired bars indicate a significantly higher mortality rate in the D than in the W plot (one-tailed Fisher's exact test: ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001).

SUMO: Survival Mortality experiment in New Mexico

www.youtube.com/ watch?feature=play er_embedded&v=6 -eyL1AIMoM

Figure courtesy N. McDowell, LANL

Dangers of misinterpreting experiments

doi:10.1038/nature11014

LETTER

Warming experiments underpredict plant phenological responses to climate change

E. M. Wolkovich¹, B. I. Cook^{2,3}, J. M. Allen⁴, T. M. Crimmins⁵, J. L. Betancourt⁶, S. E. Travers⁷, S. Pau⁸, J. Regetz⁸, T. J. Davies⁹, N. J. B. Kraft^{10,11}, T. R. Ault¹², K. Bolmgren^{13,14}, S. J. Mazer¹⁵, G. J. McCabe¹⁶, B. J. McGill¹⁷, C. Parmesan^{18,19}, N. Salamin^{20,21}, M. D. Schwartz²² & E. E. Cleland¹

Figure 2 | Estimates of the flowering and leafing sensitivities. The estimates from the mixed effects model (presented as mean \pm s.e.m.), including the random effects of site and species, show that experiments underpredict the magnitude of plant responses to interannual temperature variation for all species sampled (a) and for the species that are common to both the experimental and the observational data sets (b). The region above the dashed grey line represents positive sensitivities, meaning that the species' phenological events are delayed with warming, whereas the region below the line represents negative sensitivities, meaning that the species' events advance with warming.

Possible explanations

- experiments focused on T, not
 on correlated factors that may
 drive changes in observed
 phenology (sunshine,
 snowpack/snowmelt, soil
 moisture)
- use of mean annual temperature
- issues with meta-analyses (devil is in the details)

How to develop a species distribution model

Statistical overlay

FIGURE 11.1 Schematic of an SDM.

Species distribution modeling begins with selection of a study area (left). The study area is usually selected to be large enough to include the complete ranges of species of interest to ensure that data sampling the entire climate space the species can tolerate are included. Climate variables and other factors constraining species distribution (shaded layers on right) are then correlated with known occurrences of the species of interest (layer with points). This statistical relationship can be projected geographically to simulate the species' range (bottom shaded area). Repeating this process using GCM-generated future climate variables allows simulation of range shifts in response to climate change. *Copyright 1998, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, by permission of MIT Press.*

Example application of species distribution model

FIGURE 11.8 Example of SDM Output.

SDM output for a protea (pictured) from the Cape Floristic Region of South Africa. Current modeled range is shown in red, and future modeled range is shown in blue. Known occurrence points for the species are indicated by black circles. *Figure courtesy Guy Midgley*.

Evaluating species distribution models with historical observations

Species distribution model of pika

Figure 1. Observed pika occurrence points (plusses), pika subspecies (dashed lines), and modeled suitable habitat for current climate (gray).

Trook, Buotte, Hicke, unpublished

Probability of occurrence as function of climate variables

Trook, Buotte, Hicke, unpublished

Projections of future potential habitat based on climate change projections

Figure 2. Modeled suitable habitat for American pika for current climate and for climate emission/model projections GFDLCM21/B1, CGCM3/A1B, and GFDLCM21/A2. For the majority of future habitat, more warming leads to a contraction in habitat area upslope (or disappearance). In the small amount of purple area in the northern Rocky Mountains, the GFDLCM21/B1 projection was warmer in the warmest month than the CGCM3/A1B projection. Prof. J. Hicke

Climate Change Ecology

Area of habitat and % of current for climate change projections

Metric	Taxon	Current	B1	%change	A1B	%change	A2	%change
Area (km ²)	Ochotona princeps	316,516	58,743	-81.4%	44,116	-86.1%	5,681	-98.2%
	O. g. princeps	185,492	23,020	-87.6%	21,064	-88.6%	560	-99.7%
	O. g. schisticeps	32,969	7,702	-76.6%	5,436	-83.5%	3,047	-90.8%
	O. g. fenisex	26,013	3,714	-85.7%	3,704	-85.8%	92	-99.6%
	O. g. <u>unita</u>	12,754	2,550	-80.0%	1,225	-90.4%	96	-99.2%
	O. g. saxatilis	59,288	21,757	-63.3%	12,687	-78.6%	1,886	-96.8%
Average patch size (km ²)	Ochotona princeps	60.82	29.57	-51.4%	20.25	-66.7%	6.774	-88.9%
	O. g. princeps	63.68	14.42	-77.4%	10.46	-83.6%	2.79	-95.6%
	O. g. schisticeps	25.52	26.84	5.2%	24.16	-5.3%	21.16	-17.1%
	O. g. fenisex	28.97	9.52	-67.1%	10.55	-63.6%	3.53	-87.8%
	O. g. <u>unita</u>	63.45	34.93	-44.9%	22.69	-64.2%	2.29	-96.4%
	O. g. saxatilis	122.5	62.16	-49.3%	33.39	-72.7%	4.1	-96.7%

Table 4. Habitat area and average patch size for American pika and subspecies for current climate and for three warming projections.

Trook, Buotte, Hicke, unpublished

Fine spatial resolution projections allowed visualization of habitat fragmentation

> Trook, Buotte, Hicke, unpublished

Climate Change Ecology

Figure 3. Same as Figure 2 but for an area in southwestern Colorado illustrating increased fragmentation of pika habitat as a result of warming.

We couldn't get this work published...why?

- lack of inclusion of important explanatory variables
 - necessary habitat
 - talus maps of uncertain quality
 - presence of subtalus snow or water
- uncertainty about pika's ability to persist in hot, dry places
 - behavioral change
- uncertainty about importance of other factors
 - snow cover as insulation
 - cold-air drainage through talus slopes

Flow diagram of process-based ecosystem model

Example application of dynamic global vegetation model

FIGURE 11.2 Global and Regional Vegetation Simulation of a DGVM.

The global distribution of PFTs (top) can be simulated in a coarse-scale DGVM. The same DGVM run at finer resolution can simulate PFT distribution with many local features resolved (bottom left). Driving the DGVM with projected future climates from a GCM provides simulation of change in PFT distribution due to climate change at either global or regional (bottom right) scales. *From Ronald P. Neilson, USDA Forest Service*.

Example of an Earth system model

Example of an Earth system model

www.cesm.ucar.edu/models/clm

Example application of an Earth system model: climate change impacts on fish catch

%change in primary production

%change in large phytoplankton density

Fig. 1 Change, in percent or °C as noted, from the beginning to the end of the 21st century (2001–2020 and 2081–2100 means) for (a) primary production (%), (b) small phytoplankton density (%), (c) large phytoplankton density (%), and (d) SST (°C). Biome boundaries at the beginning and end of the century are marked in gray and red, respectively. Green boxes and letters identify the seven $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ regions examined in this article.

Example application of an Earth system model: climate change impacts on fish catch

Fig. 2 Annual mean large phytoplankton density (solid) and linear trend line for significant (P < 0.05) fits (dashed) for (a) biome boundary, (b) biome interior, and (c) California Current (CC) regions. Right-hand axis in *b* applies only to region E, 20°N, 180°.

Climate Change Ecology

Example application of an Earth system model: climate change impacts on fish catch

Fig. 3 Annual mean catch (solid) and linear trend line for significant (P < 0.05) fits (dashed) for (a) biome boundary, (b) biome interior, and (c) California Current (CC) regions. Right-hand axis in *b* applies only to region E, 20°N, 180°.

Climate Change Ecology