## Berkeley connect Environment

Sign up now for Berkeley Connect - Environment (ESPM 98/198) and...

- -> experience Berkeley excellence with a small college feel
- -> connect with peers interested in environmental issues
- -> be supported by a graduate student mentor
- -> receive career guidance
- -> interact informally with faculty
- -> eat great food

ESPM 98/198 is a 1-unit evening class to support undergraduates. There are no papers, exams or outside reading. Spaces are limited, so sign up now on TeleBears! For more information visit us at: http://www.berkeleyconnect.berkeley.edu/departments/espm



The world about us is changing, in terms of temperature, CO2, land use, N deposition, species loss, changing rain and weather patterns, extreme events, etc. This lecture and the next deal with how ecosystems are coping with a changing world.



We cover background to the problem, how change is studied at the ecosystem scale and look at results



For context, we are entering a new geological era, the Anthopocene. What is this and what does it mean to ecosystems?



Many of the lessons and lectures so far are poising us to deal with a new world, how to study it and how to interpret it.



This graph reinforces the point that current changes in temperature and CO2 are different from what ecosystems experienced in the past in terms of rate and magnitude. During the last ice age the change in temperature was Large, but the change occurred slowly. And there was ecological shake out, vast northward movement of forests, loss of megafauna (wooly mammoth, saber tooth tiger, etc)



This paper is showing that above ground biomass of forests in the east are increasing. But why? Is it age, a CO2, temperature or N deposition effect? How do we separate these causes and effects from data? We do have to separate ecological age effects from observed trends when attributing other factors. Residual analysis is important. So here we see the theoretical line of changing above ground biomass with age and super imposed are vectors measuring change at give plots along this chrono sequence. Many of the vectors have slopes steeper than the age effect.

Table 1. Hypotheses to explain accelerated recent growth of forest stands	
Hypothesis	Description
Increased temperature	Higher temperatures over the growing season (or growing degree day sums) can increase metabolic rates and therefore, lead to more rapid carbon sequestration.
Increased growing season	Longer growing seasons (especially earlier springs) has been observed in many systems. A longer growing season would allow stands earlier leaf-flush and therefore, increased carbon sequestration.
Increased CO <sub>2</sub>	Higher atmospheric $CO_2$ can increase photosynthesis and lead to higher biomass accumulation.
Nutrient	Nitrogen and phosphorus fertilization from agricultural and urban runoff can increase tree growth.
fertilization	Atmospheric deposition of nitrogen has increased in urban and industrial regions in the United States in recent decades and could lead to soil fertilization as well.
Community composition	Some pioneer species tend to grow faster than others, especially sweet gum (Liriodendron styraciflua) and tulip popla
	(Liquidambar tulipifera). An influx of these species into a plot or a preponderance of fast-growing species
	recently becoming dominant could lead to an increase in biomass accumulation.
Demographic	Although a stand may follow the ensemble biomass-accumulation pattern, random deaths of large trees
stochasticity	can lower the stand biomass, and rapid regeneration will quickly increase the biomass as if the plot were, through
	a death, moved to a younger state.

The authors do not conclude which factors are causing the change, but lean towards the combination of temperature, CO2 and longer growing seasons. Water deficits are not an issue in the east, so warmer temperature can be viewed as a positive factor



Plants don't move fast or far in short terms, hence they have to deal with what they got. What are the options.



Observations, models, manipulative studies are among the arrows in our quiver to study ecological change. We can look at past records via pollen and spores in lake sediments, tree rings and stable isotope records. Gradient studies provide a natural laboratory.



List of methods used. We will go into greater detail.



Natural gradients are great, if one can avoid artifacts by different soils, for example. The Kalahari transect is unique due to its uniform sands and strong precipitation gradient. One can study the 'equilibrium' response, operating on short to long time scales, of ecosystem-atmosphere interactions to rain, in terms of the physiological response, the type of plants and the leaf area index that is established.



Woody basal area and tree height are positively correlated with annual rain fall



Rain yields a boundary line analysis on percent of woody cover. Of course other limiting factors cause a deviation from the upper boundary line.



One can enclose plants and alter their conditions. This approach is more artificial, has artifacts (due to the age and stature of the plant and the conditions of the chamber, and can be only short term, due to funding and interest



Small ecosystems have been established at various institutes. On one hand, one can control the environment in a prescribed manner, and possibly well. But what is an ecosystem? What needs to be in it in terms of plants, species, soils and the modulation of conditions.



Free air exposure systems attempt to let plants grow under natural conditions and just goose the CO2 by venting it upwind. The approach is very expensive as most CO2 diffuses away, and large sources are needed to maintain elevated levels near the plant.

Questions arise to which CO2 concentrations to choose? What about replications? How big should the plots be? Can they be sub sampled regularly?



FACE is popular, used world wide over crops, forests, plantations, wetlands, grasslands, deserts, etc, etc



Clever method to impose a natural CO2 gradient as air moves through the tunnel with a continual carbon sink.



Explicit list of pros and cons. I don't advocate we should not attempt to use these methods, but be careful on how we interpret the data.



Rainfall can be added and subtracted. Large scale field manipulations studies suffer many of the slings and arrows launched at FACE studies.



Colleagues in France developed a mobile rain shelter. Quite an engineering feat as this is the land of the Mistral, where 100 km/hr winds were common. Replication remains a concern.



Another example of rain exclusion in the tropics



Pros and cons



Warming experiments have received much discussion on whether to expose plants to an elevated temperature or an elevated infrared flux density that mimics CO2 greenhouse effect. John Harte has favored the elevated IR effect, in the Colorado Mountains and this has been copied by many.



Rocky Mountain Biological Lab, photo of Saleska. Warming in the mountains affects not only plants during the growing season but snow, snow cover and its water input



Visual difference of plants under the heating lamps, during the wetter period.



A cost effective and less energy intensive way to warm ecosystems is with a passive shield at night, reducing long wave energy loss to the sky



The more elaborate is to just air condition the system

## Warming Experiment: Pros and Cons

- Alter Radiation
  - Infrared lamps mimic predicted change in CO2 forcing
  - Lets plants adjust surface energy balance (eg albedo, surface resistance, leaf temperature)
- Alter Temperature
  - Imposes a prescribed temperature differential
  - Air temperature is not the same as surface temperature
- Big Electricity Bills \$\$\$ Warming the system
- · Winter Effects differ from Summer Effects
- Co-Variation with Temperature and Water Balance

ESPM 111 Ecosystem Ecology



Two excellent resources on global change ecology



Physiologically CO2 can be viewed as good for plants. More CO2 more photosynthesis. The questions arise on how to sustain this and is it sustainable for natural ecosystems where light, water and nutrients may become limiting as plants grow bigger and bigger.



One of the more important scale emergent facts is a down regulation in the response of photosynthesis with CO2, with growth environment. Plants grown under higher CO2 levels reach a lower maximum photosynthetic rate at high CO2.



This effect is wide spread.

Check table 1 for Vcmax and compute A-Ci curves and redraw, dashed elevated co2  $\sim$  560 ppm, solid ambient co2  $\sim$  365 ppm



Good example of the role of light limitation on not fostering additional increments of leaf area once the canopy closes with an LAI of about 6, which intercepts over 95% of incident sunlight



High CO2 causes stomatal closure, which will reduce transpirational cooling and warm the leaves of the plants more. Here is data from the soybean studies of Steve Long in Illinois. IR camera shows the warmer soybeans.




Relation between elevated CO2 on theoretical and measured increase in photosynthesis and how this carbon is used to produce biomass and yield. Each step has a smaller incremental increase, though all are positive and greater than 10%



We have to think about fast and slow responses, what they affect and how they interact and sum to affect the net ecosystem response



This feedback chart shows some of the processes that are amplified or reduced with a perturbation of CO2. More CO2 increases photosynthesis, leads to more growth and N sequestration. If C:N increases, N is diluted in the litter quality, which can reduce the amount of labile N for the next go round of the cycle, leading to a down regulation of photosynthesis.





The effects of temperature are conditional, as the biological response is highly non linear

IPCC AR5 working group 2 report



The effect of temperature is complicated, as there are many temperatures of biological interest, average, minimum, maximum, range, extremes



Temperature effects and responses occur on short and long time scales, including direct physiological responses, acclimation, feedbacks and adaptation



The physiological temperature response to photosynthesis is non linear with a broad optimum, but the optimum acclimates and shifts with growing temperature. Yet, another scale emergent property



Data from the fluxnet project indicating that ecosystem response of carbon assimilation to temperature acclimates with growing season temperature.



Respiration-temperature response, too is a function of growth conditoins. Atkin et al 2005 Functional Plant Biol



Examples of biogeochemical feedbacks, fire, growth, species migration, etc With temperature and ecosystems there are many direct and Indirect effects to consider that have negative and positive feedbacks. What is missing on this figure?

Try insect infestations, drought





Soil warming experiments have been conducted and analyzed with meta analysis.



Duration of heat stress is important, too







Rain manipulation studies in eastern deciduous forests have been difficult to maintain treatments; an example why I like natural experiments, natural gradients and work in California with our predictable and repeatable drought.





Here are data from our field sites in the Sierra foothills. We find that rain during the spring growing season best describes year to year changes in GPP and Reco

ESPM 111 Ecosystem Ecology







- In Principle, Global Warming Should
  - Accelerate and Water Cycle
  - Increase Evaporation
  - Increase Cloud Cover
  - Increase Precipitation
  - Reduce Solar Radiation
    - Negative feedback on Evaporation

ESPM 111 Ecosystem Ecology





Pan evaporation may be decreasing. One would think that the hydrological cycle is accelerating and evaporation is increasing. But there is the pan paradox and actual and pan evaporation are complimentary.







## Ozone, N and forests Decreased visibility by sulphate particles Increased tropospheric Ozone Depletion of Cations in soil and mobilization of aluminum Tree dieback (spruce and maple, NE) – disruption of Ca nutrition and Al toxicity

- Cold tolerance disrupted

ESPM 111 Ecosystem Ecology

Driscoll et al

CO2 fertilization on NPP	Sink	
Nitrogen deposition fertilization on NPP	Sink	
Air pollution effects on NPP	Reduced sink	
T and ppt on NPP	Sink/reduced sink	
T and ppt on Rhetero	source	
Permafrost thawing	source	
Shift in disturbance (fire, insects, disease)	Source/sink	
Shift in vegetation	Sink/source	
Afforestation/reforestation	sink	
Forest regrowth, abandoned cropland	Sink/Reduced Sink with Age	
Vegetation thickening and encroachment	Sink/Reduced Sink with Age	
Soil erosion and burial	source./sink	
Crop management	Source/sink	
Deforestation	source	
Peatland drainage	source	

Canadell et al 2007 GTCE

ESPM 111 Ecosystem Ecology



Norby







Global Change and Ecosystem Issues	
<ul> <li>Population Growth</li> <li>Climate Change <ul> <li>Rising CO2, Sea level rise, Global warming, changing ppt patterns (+/-)</li> </ul> </li> <li>Stratospheric ozone depletion <ul> <li>uv effects, cancer, mutations</li> <li>Good News, it is being Mended</li> </ul> </li> <li>Land Use Change <ul> <li>Forest fires, biomass burning, conversion to agriculture</li> </ul> </li> <li>Water Quality and Fresh Water Depletion <ul> <li>Ground water depletion, lake/sea depletion (e.g. Aral Sea)</li> </ul> </li> <li>Air Pollution <ul> <li>Rising ozone and aerosols</li> <li>Good News it is Improving</li> </ul> </li> <li>Soils Degradation, Subsidence and Erosion</li> <li>Toxic chemicals and hazardous waste</li> <li>Loss of Biodiversity</li> <li>Nitrogen Loading on Ecosystems</li> <li>Acid rain, eutrophication, hypoxia</li> </ul> <li>Marine Resources <ul> <li>Over-Fishing</li> <li>Good News it is being Mended</li> </ul> </li>	








Curtis meta analysis



Curtis Meta analysis









ESPM 111 Ecosystem Ecology



