



Climate Change Impacts on Freshwater Ecosystems

Edited by Martin Kernan, Richard W. Battarbee & Brian Moss

 WILEY-BLACKWELL

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Contents

[Preface](#)

[Acknowledgements](#)

[Contributors](#)

[1 Introduction](#)

[Changing climate and a changing planet](#)

[Changing ideas on planetary function](#)

[Water and the freshwater biota](#)

[Euro-limpacs, European freshwater systems and approaches to investigation](#)

[Applications and the Water Framework Directive](#)

[2 Aquatic Ecosystem Variability and Climate Change - A Palaeoecological Perspective](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Climate over the Holocene](#)

[Multi-millennial scale change](#)

[Centennial to millennial scale](#)

[Seasonal, inter-annual and decadal change](#)

[Recent change](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[3 Direct Impacts of Climate Change on Freshwater Ecosystems](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Physical impacts](#)

Chemical impacts
Conclusions

4 Climate Change and the Hydrology and Morphology of Freshwater Ecosystems

Introduction

Predicted changes in land use

Effects of climate change at the catchment scale

The effects of climate change on hydraulics and morphology at the reach scale

Effects of climate change on hydraulic conditions and channel morphology at the habitat scale

The effects of climate change on stream and river restoration success

Conclusions

5 Monitoring the Responses of Freshwater Ecosystems to Climate Change

Introduction

Climate change impacts on the biota of lakes

Climate change impacts on the biota of rivers

Climate change impacts on the biota of wetlands

Conclusions

6 Interaction of Climate Change and Eutrophication

Introduction

Changes in trophic structure

Mesocosm experiments

Stream and wetland experiments at paired sites

Palaeolimnology and modelling

Synthesis

Conclusion

7 Interaction of Climate Change and Acid Deposition

Introduction

Effects of climate change on nitrate leaching

Dissolved organic carbon (DOC)

Saharan dust

Effects of climate warming on soil chemical processes

Modelling the combined effects of climate change and acid deposition

Effects on aquatic biota

Conclusions

8 Distribution of Persistent Organic Pollutants and Mercury in Freshwater

Ecosystems Under Changing Climate Conditions

Introduction

Organohalogen compounds

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons

Mercury

The effects of temperature increases

The effects of changes in precipitation

Anthropogenic effects associated with water management

Conclusions

9 Climate Change: Defining Reference Conditions and Restoring Freshwater Ecosystems

Introduction

Detecting recovery with changing baseline conditions

Global change and restoration

Conclusions

10 Modelling Catchment-Scale Responses to Climate Change

Introduction

The Euro-limpacs modelling strategy

Dynamic models

Linking models

Uncertainty

Conclusions

11 Tools for Better Decision Making: Bridges from science to policy

**Introduction - Decision making in the
context of climate change**

Tools for decision making and their bases

Transfer of science into policy

The role of Decision Support Systems

Conclusions

12 What of the Future?

Introduction

The Arctic/Boreal zone

The mid continental latitudes

Peninsulas and islands

The Mediterranean zone

High mountain zone

Index

Preface

The evidence that greenhouse gas emissions, primarily from fossil fuel combustion, is and will increasingly be a principal cause of climate change has been compelling for some time. Although uncertainties remain, the threat is sufficiently real for research now to focus not only on the climate system itself but also on how changes in the climate system in future might affect the functioning of natural ecosystems.

In this book, we are concerned with how climate change might affect freshwater ecosystems. The ideas and examples presented in the book stem largely from the 'Euro-limpacs' project, a major EU-funded project on 'the impact of global change on European freshwater ecosystems'. Euro-limpacs brought together lake, river and wetland scientists from across Europe to assess not only the direct impacts of climate change on freshwaters but also its potential indirect impact through interactions with other stresses such as changes in hydromorphology, nutrient loading, acid deposition and toxic substance exposure.

A wide variety of approaches was used in the project ranging from the analysis of lake sediment and long-term instrumental records to identify past impacts of climate change, to the use of experiments, space-for-time substitution and modelling to assess what might happen in future under different climate scenarios.

The project also considered the implications of future climate change for the management of freshwater ecosystems in Europe, especially the extent to which current policies and practices designed to improve the ecological status of freshwater ecosystems need to be modified in light of projected future climate change.

This book brings together the key results from the project. Its structure follows the design of the Euro-limpacs project,

first assessing the probable effects of climate change and then considering management issues.

Richard W. Battarbee

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1

Introduction

Brian Moss, Richard W. Battarbee and Martin Kernan

Changing climate and a changing planet

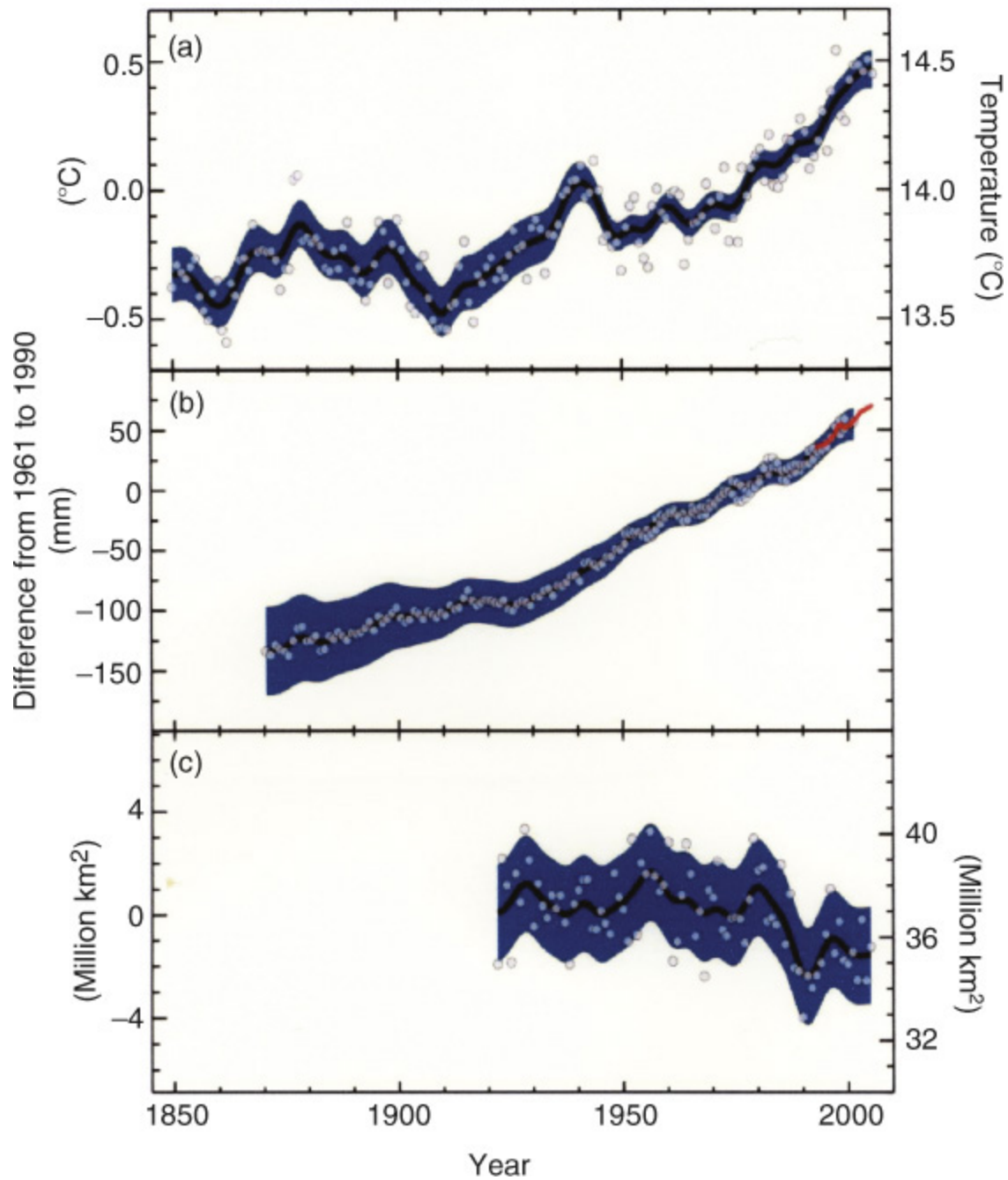
In June 2008, one of us chanced upon a shepherd repairing his five-ft high (he didn't deal in metres) dry limestone walls on the uplands near Asby Scar in Cumbria, north-west England. We exchanged pleasantries that inevitably, this was Britain after all, embraced the weather. It was a bright warm day. But 'Bleak in winter up here' I said. 'Not so much in the past fifteen years' he replied, 'Before that the snow lay in drifts hiding the walls, but not any more'. It was yet another anecdotal sliver of evidence to complement the mass of information assembled by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC 2007) on the reality of global warming.

That Fourth Report of the IPCC summarized changes to date ([Fig 1.1](#)) that included an almost 1°C increase in the northern hemisphere mean air temperature, over the years since the industrial revolution accelerated the yet unabated burning of fossil fuels. It presented evidence that these processes were related and that we could have high confidence that the temperature rise was largely human-induced. Linked with it have been changes in the distribution of rainfall, with generally more falling in winter

or wet seasons and less in the summer and dry seasons. There has been an increase in sea level of about 20 cm, largely due to thermal expansion of the huge mass of oceanic water, to which the melting of the mountain and polar glaciers is now making a contribution. And there has been an increase in the frequency of extreme weather events, such as cyclones, droughts and floods. In turn, there have been numerous records of changes in the phenology of species (Sparks & Carey 1995; Roy & Sparks 2000; Parmesan & Yohe 2003; Hays *et al.* 2005; Adrian *et al.* 2006) and a steady migration polewards of a variety of the more mobile species (Walther *et al.* 2002; Root *et al.* 2003).

Figure 1.1 Summary of climate and sea-level change to date. (a) Global average temperature. (b) Global average sea level. (c) Northern hemisphere snow cover. (From *Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (eds S. Solomon, M. Manning, Z. Chen, *et al.*). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge and New York.)

Changes in temperature, sea level and northern hemisphere snow cover



Climate is a master variable, and all activity on this planet eventually depends upon it. It determines the overall structure of natural biomes, be they deserts, grasslands or deciduous or evergreen forests. It has driven the evolution of life histories, the dynamics of food webs and the

development of homeostases. It fixes the circulation of the oceans, the availability of nutrients to the plankton community, the onset of rain and ripening for crops and the reflectance of radiation from the Poles. It manifests itself in the day-to-day weather, a preoccupation of everyone, not just the British. It is the greatest determinant of leisure travel, and, in its extremes, a source of extreme misery to match its delights of balmy summer days, exciting ski runs and the fresh spring rain. A major change in climate is a very considerable issue.

Changing ideas on planetary function

Ecologists have long sought to explain the huge variation of natural systems: the tapestry of weather and soil-related detail on land and physical and chemical detail in water that fits into a grand pattern of climate zones. G.E. Hutchinson (1965) ([Fig 1.2](#)) linked the ways that organisms evolve, as both grand and local patterns change, in his metaphor of the ecological (or environmental) theatre and the evolutionary play. His concept, in the 1960s, was very much one of the players adjusting to the nature of the theatre and then to each other. The generally accepted paradigm was that the physicochemical setting, the geology and climate, determined the biology and ecology of living organisms. Twenty years later, James Lovelock (1988) ([Fig 1.2](#)) began an overturning of this by a spectroscopic examination of the chemistry of the atmospheres of Earth and its sister planets and a study of Earth's oceans. He calculated that the chemical state of Earth was very far from that expected by a simple chemical equilibrium of the available elements, and inferred that it was determined, and maintained, by the activities of living organisms rather than physicochemically imposed upon them for their response. Moreover, the state

was regulated within the limits between which our particular biochemical system could persist. There is still controversy about the underlying mechanism of the regulation, but not about its existence. Such a change in paradigm is key to our understanding of the mutual interactions of climate and living organisms that this book is about. By altering our atmosphere, we challenge the entire biosphere system, and although we can predict some immediate physical effects, we have little idea about what the ultimate biological consequences might be.

Figure 1.2 (a) G.E. Hutchinson and (b) James Lovelock.

(a)



(b)



The IPCC has made a range of predictions about how climate will change over the regions of the Earth, based on a range of assumptions about how human societies will react as the first of the changes are experienced. There is a problem, however, in these predictions. They all hold to the former model of living systems responding to imposed conditions. They are models of simple physicochemical

control. They do not allow for the likelihood of positive ecological feedbacks. Temperature influences many biological processes, but not in a linear way. More usual is some sort of exponential relationship in which the process accelerates or decelerates to a point of death as temperature changes linearly. A key process in regulating the carbon dioxide content of the atmosphere is the storage of carbon as organic matter in soils and peat deposits or as calcite in the ocean sediments, derived from the scales of planktonic coccolithophorids or the matrices of corals (Lovelock 1988). If the temperature change induces more carbon dioxide or methane release, through increases of respiration using organic matter stored in soils and sediments, for example, or through inhibition of calcite formation in the walls of marine organisms, a positive feedback on further temperature increase may be induced and the greenhouse effect may be reinforced. Temperature changes predicted for the future may thus have been underestimated, and climate modellers are now attempting to rectify this.

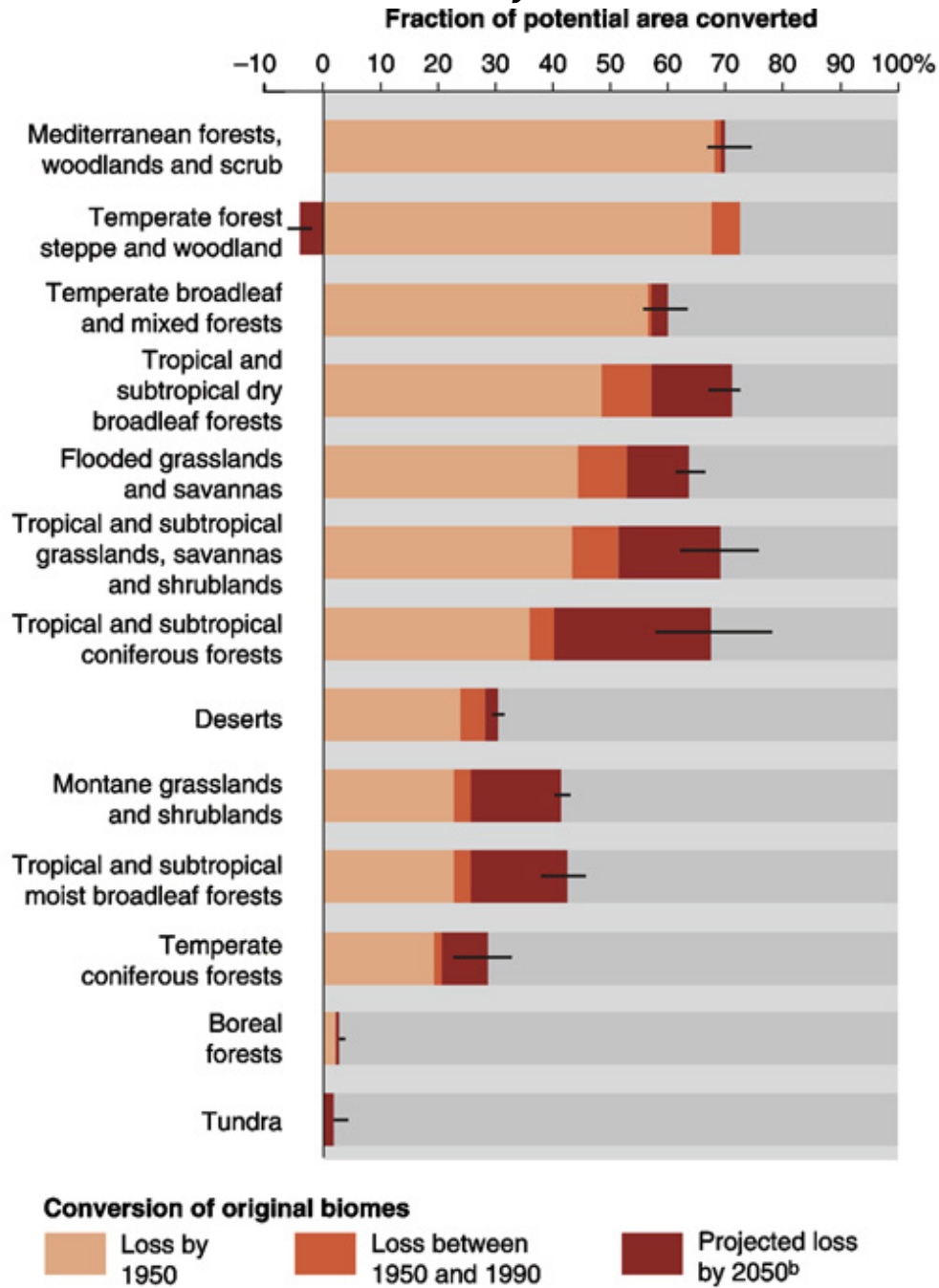
The system that maintains the non-equilibrium, equable state of the planet is the biosphere. The biosphere has, for convenience, been divided up into atmosphere, hydrosphere and lithosphere: air, ocean and land. And the lithosphere is thought of in terms of biomes: tundra, coniferous forest, deciduous forest, tropical forest, scrub savannah, grassland and desert. In turn, these may be divided into constituent ecosystems, which Arthur Tansley (1935) defined as more or less self-contained systems of living organisms, and their biologically produced debris, in their physicochemical setting. In truth, this idea was an artefact of working in the greatly subdivided landscape of the British Isles, where several thousand years of human activity have entirely compartmented the landscape. Our upland shepherd, with his walls, in a sense influences our ecological as well as

climatic thinking. For convenience we nonetheless talk of woodland, heath, saltmarsh, river and lake ecosystems. But the pristine biosphere was ultimately a continuum that adjusted mutually, gradually and in many dimensions to changing climatic and geological conditions, and in considering freshwaters in particular, the greatest understanding comes from seeing them as intimately linked with the land and atmosphere. It is sometimes convenient, however, for the process of accounting for change to see the parts rather than the whole.

A report as authoritative as that of the IPCC, the *Millennium Ecosystem Assessment*, appeared in 2005. It received much less publicity, for though weather is immediately noticeable to people everywhere, the fate of distant oceans, tundras and savannahs is not, unless you are a deep sea mariner, Inuit hunter or Masai herder. But major changes ([Fig 1.3](#)) have happened to most natural ecosystems, and are continuing to happen to most of them, as a result of climate change and also because of many other, independent drivers that depend on the workings of global economics and the needs of a rising population. It is expected that we will have lost over half of the world's land ecosystems to agriculture or development by 2050. The urbanites may not be noticing this but the consequences will nonetheless be huge, for it is these natural ecosystems that regulate the nature of the biosphere. We have absolutely no idea how much of them can be damaged without serious consequences for human survival. All we know is that such systems, honed by the utterly ruthless mechanisms of natural selection to be as near fit for purpose as possible, are just as crucial to us, indeed much more fundamentally so, than the local grocer, filling station or hospital. The chemistry of the biosphere is the ultimate *sine qua non* of our existence. Damaged ecosystems, including all agricultural ones, do not store as much carbon

as intact ones. James Lovelock's contribution was to point this out.

Figure 1.3 Projected losses of major ecosystems and biomes^a. (From *Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005*.)



^a A biome is the largest unit of ecological classification that is convenient to recognize below the entire globe, such as temperate broadleaf forests or montane grasslands. A biome is a widely used ecological categorization, and because considerable ecological data have been reported and modelling undertaken using this categorization, some information in this assessment can only be reported based on biomes. Wherever possible, however, the MA reports information

only be reported based on biomes. Whenever possible, however, the MA reports information using 10 socioecological systems, such as forest, cultivated, coastal and marine, because these correspond to the regions of responsibility of different government ministries and because they are the categories used within the Convention on Biological Diversity.

^b According to the four MA scenarios. For 2050 projections, the average value of the projections under the four scenarios is plotted and the error bars (black lines) represent the range of values from the different scenarios.

We have responded rather oddly to the increasing damage we have caused by attempting to value in classical economic terms the goods and services we draw from ecosystems, to demonstrate their importance (Costanza *et al.* 1997; Balmford *et al.* 2002). This has been influential in drawing attention to their very great apparent value and in helping communicate with economists and politicians. But perhaps we have completely missed the point. They are not items that can be used, misused, repaired, ignored or traded at will. They are outside the current economic system. What they do in maintaining the equable state of the planet for all living organisms, including us, is so fundamental as to be priceless. It would be inconceivable, as William Shakespeare (1623) well knew 400 years ago, through the wonderful speech of Portia in *The Merchant of Venice*, to value the blood as a separate component of the body. What is *sine qua non* supersedes evaluation. Yet we damage the biosphere as casually as we throw away our rubbish, and in contemplating the hitherto effects of climate change, we fail to realize that the loss of ecosystems and the changing climate are mutually linked. Indeed, we blithely cost the damage of climate change (Stern 2006) as we cost the goods and services we are losing through application of the same approach of classical economics. We have failed to see the interaction of climate, ecology and equability. Our attempts to mitigate climate change, in a desperate bid to avoid disruption of our societies, may inevitably be doomed to failure unless we begin to see the whole picture and not just the components we find most convenient to our cash economy.