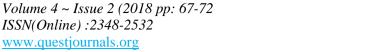
www.questjournals.org





Research Paper

A Study Based On Climate Change Effects on Biodiversity

Dr. P B Tiwary

Dept of Botany S. M. College Chandausi, Sambhal

ABSTRACT

The Convention uses the term "biodiversity" to refer to all manifestations of variation found in the living world, including variation within and among individuals, populations, species, communities, and ecosystems. Different facets of biological diversity are illustrated by variations in insect resistance across rice cultivars, the variety of habitats found within a forest ecosystem, or the worldwide extinction of lake fish species. The phrase is frequently used in an ambiguous manner to refer to all species and habitats in a specific region or even the entire planet. A changing climate constantly transfers biodiversity. Biological relationships are rearranged as a result of conditions changing over the surface of the globe, sometimes slowly and other times in more significant increments. This natural variability is now being supplemented by a new sort of climate change brought on by human activity, which poses a threat to hasten the loss of biodiversity already under way as a result of other human stressors. Both the carbon cycle and the water cycle, which are perhaps the two most crucial large-scale processes for life on Earth, depend on biodiversity at the genetic, species, and ecosystem levels and have the potential to provide feedbacks to climate change. Through biodiversity preservation, sustainable use, and sustainable land management, maintaining and restoring healthy ecosystems is essential for coping with and reducing climate change and has numerous positive effects on the environment, the economy, and society.

KEYWORDS: Biodiversity, Changing climate, Carbon cycle etc.

INTRODUCTION I.

The biosphere's living things are arranged into distinct categories. Sexually reproducing organisms often live as species, which are discrete clusters of genetically related populations that are reproductively distinct from one another. Bacteria and many plants spread and reproduce vegetatively, that is, without sexual reproduction, making it challenging to use the traditional concept of species in these situations. However, a good overall indicator of the biodiversity of a region, nation, or the entire world is the diversity of species, generally defined. Around 1.75 million species have been officially identified and documented globally as of today, and there is reason to believe that several million more species exist but have not yet been found or described (Table 1).

Table 1 Estimated numbers of described species, and possible global total.

| Kingdoms | Described species | Estimated total species |
|------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| Bacteria | 4 000 | 1 000 000 |
| Protoctists (algae, protozoa, etc) | 80 000 | 600 000 |
| Animals | 1 320 000 | 10 600 000 |
| Fungi | 70 000 | 1 500 000 |
| Plants | 270 000 | 300 000 |
| TOTAL | 1 744 000 | ca.14 000 000 |

Studies indicate that over the next few decades, climate change may exceed habitat degradation as the greatest global threat to biodiversity, despite the fact that there is only a small amount of evidence of current extinctions brought on by climate change. However, it is challenging to provide a clear picture of the future of biodiversity under various scenarios of global climatic change due to the diversity of methodologies and the associated heterogeneity in projections. Therefore, it is vital to assess our existing knowledge of how climate

change affects biodiversity and our ability to predict its effects in the future. The various ways in which climate change may have an effect on people, populations, species, communities, ecosystems, and biomes, as well as the various ways in which people, populations, or species may respond to it.

It is projected that all facets of climate change, from organism to biome levels, will have an impact on biodiversity. They primarily deal with diverse intensities and types of fitness decline, which manifest themselves at various scales and affect individuals, populations, species, ecological networks, and ecosystems. Due to directional selection and fast migration, climate change has the potential to reduce genetic diversity of populations at the most fundamental level of biodiversity, which could have an impact on ecosystem resilience and functioning. However, only a relatively limited number of species have had the genetic implications of climate change examined, and the majority of studies focus on repercussions at higher organizational levels.

Beyond this, it is expected that the varied effects on populations will change the web of interconnections at the local level. Basically, the way some species react to climate change may have an indirect effect on the species that depend on them. According to a research of nearly a thousand interspecific systems, which included parasites and pollinators, roughly 6300 species may become extinct as a result of the loss of their related species. Additionally, the fundamental impact of temperature change may be mediated for many species by changes in the synchrony with their needs for food and habitat. Phenological variations brought on by climate change in flowering plants and insect pollinators have caused population mismatches that ultimately result in the extinction of both the plant and the pollinator, with predictable effects on the structure of plant-pollinator networks. Community structure and ecological functions are also altered by changes in interspecific connections (with rivals, prey-predators, hosts-parasites, or Ecology mutualists).

Climate can cause changes in vegetation communities that are projected to be significant enough to impact biome integrity at higher levels of biodiversity. The Earth's terrestrial ecosystems, particularly cool conifer forests, tundra, scrubland, savannahs, and boreal forests, are predicted to change by 5-20% according to the Millenium Ecosystem Assessment. Tipping points, where ecosystem thresholds can cause permanent changes in biomes, are of special concern.

Large sections of the Amazonian rainforest may be replaced by tropical savannahs, according to a recent estimate of possible future biome distributions in tropical South America. Alpine and boreal forests are predicted to spread northward and shift their tree lines upward at higher latitudes and altitudes, at the expense of low-lying tundra and alpine communities.

Some lakes, particularly in Africa, may dry up as a result of rising temperatures and falling precipitation. Tropical coral reefs are expected to degrade significantly as a result of the forecasted warming and acidification of the oceans. The effects of climate change on genetic diversity and particular diversity could have significant effects on ecosystem services. Obviously, species extinction is the most extreme and permanent form of fitness decline. Biodiversity can react in a variety of ways, via a variety of processes, to prevent or lessen these effects.

About the Millennium Assessment

The effects of ecological change on human well-being were evaluated in the Millennium ecological Assessment. More than 1,360 specialists from all over the world contributed to the MA between 2001 and 2005. Their research offers a cutting-edge scientific assessment of the state and trends of the world's ecosystems and the services they offer, as well as the scientific justification for actions to preserve and utilize them sustainably.

Ecosystem services for protecting the planet's life support systems. The advantages individuals receive from ecosystems are known as ecosystem services. These include provisioning services—providing people with the commodities they need, such as fiber, food, water, and lumber—regulating services—affecting climate, illness, floods, waste, and water quality, cultural services—offering leisure, beauty, and spiritual benefits, and supporting services—helping the soil form, the process of photosynthesis, and the movement of nutrients. According to the 2005 Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, people have altered ecosystems more drastically than at any other time in human history in the second half of the 20th century. While these changes have improved human well-being overall, they have also been accompanied with degradation that is only becoming worse. The negative repercussions of these changes already outweigh the positive ones for some people and places. Sustainable development faces a significant problem in trying to stop the continuous environmental degradation while also fulfilling the rising demand for ecosystem services. The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment's principal summary, The Reading, examines the causes of regional and global ecosystem change, its effects on nature and human well-being, and strategies for mitigating or adapting to such change.

Reactions of biodiversity to climate change

A species may no longer be adapted to the particular set of environmental variables in a certain place as a result of climate change, and it may then move outside its climatic niche. We shall solely refer to climatic niches of species (i.e., the climatic components of the n-dimensional hypervolume sensu Hutchinson) moving

forward because other ecological niche components of species are not anticipated to alter directly. Individuals, communities, or species must create adaptive reactions in order to survive. These responses can take many different forms and are provided by two sorts of mechanisms.

Mechanisms of response: plastic versus genetic

Whether or whether species will be able to adapt quickly enough to keep up with the rapid speed of changing climate is one of the most important problems in the discussion of the ecological implications of climate change. Whatever the type of adaptive responses, the underlying mechanisms are either attributable to plasticity, which offers a very short-term response (within an individual's lifetime), or micro-evolution, in which species can genetically adjust to new environments through mutations or selection of existing genotypes. Within the geographic span of the population, it may involve intraspecific variation in morphological, physiological, or behavioral features that can take place on various time scales. According to empirical data, as shown in birds and marmots, plastic input is frequently more significant than genetic contribution. On the other hand, there is growing factual proof that evolution can occur very quickly when phenotypic changes are driven by selection and have increased the potential for invasiveness. Recent studies on evolutionary rescue also support the idea that rapid evolution via mutation and selection may enable animals with quick life cycles to adapt to extremely harsh and quick environmental changes.

Three axes of responses

Whatever the processes employed in reaction to climate change, it is theoretically possible for species to change along three distinct but not mutually incompatible axes: geographical, temporal, or self. Changes along these axes have already been noted. The first two axes line up with clearly visible and well-researched effects of global warming. Self-correlates to less obvious physiological and behavioral alterations that enable species to adjust to the new climatic circumstances in the same.

II. SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL FRAME.

Spatial.

In the beginning, animals may locate suitable conditions in space and follow them. Dispersion is often used to do this, but other spatial alterations, like as changes in local or microhabitat levels, are also important. The spatial movement of species in response to suitable regional climatic conditions is one of the responses that has received the most attention in both palaeontological records and more modern observations. More than 1000 species have already seen latitudinal and altitudinal range shifts, particularly those with strong dispersal rates like birds, insects, and marine invertebrates. This has resulted in a reduction in range extent, especially for polar and mountaintop species. Individuals, however, alter their distribution to maintain a state of quasi-equilibrium with the climatic circumstances to which they have become accustomed, but they might not do so for other abiotic factors like photoperiod or novel biotic interactions. These situations might require micro-evolution in order for them to survive.

Temporal.

People can adapt to climate change by shifting in time (from daily to seasonal basis) in order to keep up with changing abiotic elements that exhibit cyclic variation over time, such as temperature on a daily or annual basis. One of the most common responses to the global warming of the 20th century is phenology, or the timing of life cycle events including flowering, fruiting, and seasonal migrations. Numerous species have already been studied for it. A meta-analysis of several species, including both plants and animals, found that the average response of all species to climate change was a change in major phenological events of In some species, flowering has progressed by more than 10 days per ten years. The species can maintain synchronization with cyclical abiotic forces by undergoing these phenological changes. They may cause the extinction of certain species because they exacerbate asynchrony in predator-prey and insect-plant systems.

Positive outcomes

Changes in the climate might also benefit biodiversity. For instance, many plants are likely to benefit from warmer temperatures and higher CO2, which will speed up the creation of biomass. under temperate locations, milder winters might boost the survival of many species that are currently under danger. Additionally, some plant groups and animals that depend on them may benefit from increased precipitation. Additionally, a number of research found that biological incursions were negatively impacted by climate change. Although few studies have examined the positive impacts of global changes on biodiversity, they undoubtedly exist and make it more challenging to obtain a comprehensive picture of how climate change is affecting the biodiversity of our globe.

Wildlife Management

We must use a variety of methodologies and integrate them into our understanding of how climate change may affect biodiversity due to the wide range of reactions among various species. Similar to this, our answers to managing biodiversity should cut across disciplines. Beyond this, the effects of global climate change on the management and protection of biodiversity and ecosystem services raise a number of methodological questions.

Preservation of habitats and species

Ecologists must immediately respond to the challenge of offering scientific direction for the creation of conservation plans given the significant expected implications of climate change on biodiversity at all levels. Designing reserve networks that safeguard biodiversity in its natural habitats is a key component of conservation planning. Only a few studies to now have tried to employ modeling for conservation. In order to maintain a species' ability to adapt, it is crucial to preserve both the genetic diversity within a species and the heterogeneity of its habitats. In light of climate change, it is also necessary to assess the characteristics of protected regions, where planning must be done decades in advance.

In particular, areas that mitigate the consequences of climate change—such as forests, which significantly influence local climatic conditions—as well as climate refuges for biodiversity—should receive priority protection. Finally, model forecasts of the locations, timing, and potential impacts of future threats on particular species, biomes, or ecosystems may help choose the best conservation strategies. For example, species or ecosystems that are predicted to be largely impacted by climate change might need to take special precautions, but species badly impacted by land-use change might be able to survive by being protected in their remaining natural habitat. Many times, a species' existing range and its potential future range may not overlap any longer. Climate change has been a key justification for those who favor human-assisted colonization since it will cause extinction. Case-by-case choices, based on the balance between a species' vulnerable status and the threat that species poses to the recipient ecosystem, as well as the socioeconomic context in which conservation is taking place, have been urged in this heated discussion.

It is also crucial to move away from a species-centered perspective and toward a holistic one that takes into account networks of interactions between species as well as other characteristics of biodiversity including functional and phylogenetic diversities. Beyond these varied approaches, there is a rising push to move away from a predictive approach and toward an integrated and unified framework to pinpoint species vulnerability and customize biodiversity management actions. Preventive measures are of utmost importance in this regard. For instance, it is important to keep in mind that the predicted global warming has a direct relationship with the proportion of species extinction. Therefore, preventing global warming could have nonlinear consequences on the survival of species, with each tenth of a degree saved protecting an increasing number of species. Conservation scientists should continue to place a high focus on taking steps to mitigate global warming in general, rather than only its impact on biodiversity. Additionally, lowering other global change drivers can boost biodiversity's overall resilience to climate change.

The impact that potential hazards may have on certain species, biomes, or ecosystems can help determine the best conservation strategies. For example, species or ecosystems that are predicted to be largely impacted by climate change might need to take special precautions, but species badly impacted by land-use change might be able to survive by being protected in their remaining natural habitat. Many times, a species' existing range and its potential future range may not overlap any longer. Climate change has been a key justification for those who favor human-assisted colonization since it will cause extinction. Case-by-case choices, based on the balance between a species' vulnerable status and the threat that species poses to the recipient ecosystem, as well as the socioeconomic context in which conservation is taking place, have been urged in this heated discussion.

Ecological services

Other parts of biodiversity management, such as managing human and wildlife diseases, fisheries, agronomy, pest and invasive species control, and wildlife exploitation, will be impacted by climate change and require adaptation. Major challenges in agronomy, for instance, include the need to switch to species or varieties better adapted to specific aspects of climate change or to rethink strategies to control invasive and pest outbreaks, finding solutions to the growing competition for water between the natural and agricultural ecosystems, improving infrastructures, and adapting cropping systems to meet future demands of a growing population living on resources with less biodiversity. It is vital to improve prediction capability in this sector given the enormous ecological impact of alien invasive species and the anticipated escalation of invasion owing to climate change. Moving beyond forecasts and strengthening risk assessment, screening and early detection techniques, vector control, and integrated management in areas and/or of invasive species that will become more

at risk as a result of climate change are also critical. Similar initiatives are essential for addressing other factors that contribute to biodiversity loss, such as overuse or habitat destruction.

III. CONCLUSION

The methods through which species and ecosystems can be altered by climate change are becoming better understood by ecologists. It is anticipated that the timing of species life cycle events would be further disrupted, that species ranges will shift drastically, that trophic networks will be impacted, and that ecosystem functioning could be significantly compromised, perhaps resulting in the extinction of numerous species. Some of this knowledge has been successfully incorporated over the past few decades into mathematical models that can be used to predict the effects of climate change on species ranges, abundance, and extinctions. These models are distinguished by the wide range of underlying assumptions and structures, and the predictions vary widely depending on the models utilized and the species under study. The majority of these models predict grave effects for biodiversity, with the worst-case scenarios resulting in rates of extinction that would constitute the sixth mass extinction in world history. All current strategies, however, have significant flaws. A review of the mechanisms through which climate change affects biodiversity indicates that the absence of a number of crucial mechanisms in models may result in either extremely significant underestimations or overestimations of the dangers to biodiversity. To reduce uncertainties, existing models must be improved, and a new generation of models in particular must address the limitations of the present models. It is also essential to create new forecasting techniques, go beyond prediction, and increase our understanding of how vulnerable biodiversity is to climate change.

Climate change and plant diversity are inextricably related. While the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MA 2003) emphasizes that habitat loss is the primary factor in the shift in plant diversity, it also predicts that by the end of the century, climate change will rank as one of the major causes of biodiversity loss. However, because it provides both direct and indirect ecosystem benefits, biodiversity is an important resource in plans for reducing global warming and adapting to it. The United Nations has designated 2011–2020 as the Decade of Biodiversity in recognition of the significance of biodiversity in the management of all physical and biological processes on this blue planet.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Arau'jo, M.B., Alagador, D., Cabeza, M., Nogues-Bravo, D. & Thuiller, W. (2011). Climate change threatens European conservation areas. Ecol. Lett., 14, 484–492.
- [2]. Baillie, J.E.M., Hilton-Taylor, C. & Stuart, S.N.. (2004). 2004 IUCN red list of threatened species. In: A Global Species Assessment. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK. xxiv + 191 pp.
- [3]. Barnosky, A.D., Matzke, N., Tomiya, S., Wogan, G.O.U., Swartz, B., Quental, T.B. et al. (2011). Has the Earth_s sixth mass extinction already arrived? Nature, 471, 51–57.
- [4]. Bradley, B.A., Blumenthal, D.M., Wilcove, D.S. & Ziska, L.H. (2010). Predicting plant invasions in an era of global change. Trends Ecol. Evol., 25, 310–318.
- [5]. Campbell, A., Kapos, V., Scharlemann, J.P.W., Bubb, P., Chenery, A., Coad, L. et al. (2009). Review of the literature on the links between biodiversity and climate change: impacts, adaptation and mitigation. In: CBD Technical Series n_42 (ed.
- [6]. Carnaval, A.C., Hickerson, M.J., Haddad, C.F.B., Rodrigues, M.T. & Moritz, C. (2009). Stability predicts genetic diversity in the Brazilian atlantic forest hotspot. Science, 323, 785–789.
- [7]. Dale, V.H., Tharp, M.L., Lannom, K.O. & Hodges, D.G. (2010). Modeling transient response of forests to climate change. Sci. Total Environ., 408, 1888–1901.
- [8]. Dawson, T.P., Jackson, S.T., House, J.I., Prentice, I.C. & Mace, G.M. (2011). Beyond predictions: biodiversity conservation in a changing climate. Science, 332, 53–58.
- [9]. Dillon, M.E., Wang, G. & Huey, R.B. (2010). Global metabolic impacts of recent climate warming. Nature, 467, 704–706.
- [10] Gallien, L., Munkemuller, T., Albert, C.H., Boulangeat, I. & Thuiller, W. (2010). Predicting potential distributions of invasive species: where to go from here? Divers. Distrib., 16, 331–342.
- [11]. Harvell, C.D., Mitchell, C.E., Ward, J.R., Altizer, S., Dobson, A.P., Ostfeld, R.S et al. (2002). Ecology Climate warming and disease risks for terrestrial and marine biota. Science, 296, 2158–2162.
- [12]. Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Mumby, P.J., Hooten, A.J., Steneck, R.S., Greenfield, P., Gomez, E. et al. (2007). Coral reefs under rapid climate change and ocean acidification. Science, 318, 1737–1742.
- [13]. Iverson, L.R. & Prasad, A.M. (1998). Predicting abundance of 80 tree species following climate change in the eastern united states. Ecol. Monogr., 68, 465–485.
- [14]. Jetz, W., Wilcove, D.S. & Dobson, A.P. (2007). Projected impacts of climate and land-use change on the global diversity of birds. PLoS Biol., 5, 1211–1219.
- [15]. Kearney, M.R., Wintle, B.A. & Porter, W.P. (2010). Correlative and mechanistic models of species distribution provide congruent forecasts under climate change. Conserv. Lett., 3, 203–213.
- [16]. Lavergne, S., Mouquet, N., Thuiller, W. & Ronce, O. (2010). Biodiversity and climate change: integrating evolutionary and ecological responses of species and communities. Ann. Rev. Ecol., Evol. Syst., 41, 41.
- [17]. Lavorel, S., Grigulis, K., Lamarque, P., Colace, M.P., Garden, D., Girel, J. et al. (2011). Using plant functional traits to understand the landscape distribution of multiple ecosystem services. J. Ecol., 99, 135–147.
- [18]. Loss, S.R., Terwilliger, L.A. & Peterson, A.C. (2011). Assisted colonization: integrating conservation strategies in the face of climate change. Biol. Conserv., 144,92–100.
- [19]. Maclean, I.M.D. & Wilson, R.J. (2011). Recent ecological responses to climate change support predictions of high extinction risk. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA, 108,12337–12342.

- [20]. McMahon, S.M., Harrison, S.P., Armbruster, W.S., Bartlein, P.J., Beale, C.M., Edwards, M.E. et al. (2011). Improving assessment and modelling of climate change impacts on global terrestrial biodiversity. Trends Ecol. Evol., 26, 249–259.
- [21]. Meyers, L.A. & Bull, J.J. (2002). Fighting change with change: adaptive variation in an uncertain world. Trends Ecol. Evol., 17, 551–557.
- [22]. Parmesan, C. (2006). Ecological and evolutionary responses to recent climate change. Ecol. Evol., 37, 637–669.
- [23]. Parmesan, C., Duarte, C.M., Poloczanska, E., Richardson, A.J. & Singer, M.C. (2011). Overstretching attribution. Nat. Clim. Change, 1, 2–4.
- [24]. Peterson, A.T., Stewart, A., Mohamed, K.I. & Araujo, M.B. (2008). Shifting global invasive potential of european plants with climate change. PLoS ONE, 3, 1–7.
- [25]. Phillips, B.L. (2009). The evolution of growth rates on an expanding range edge. Biol. Lett., 5, 802–804.
- [26]. Sala, O.E., Chapin, F.S., Armesto, J.J., Berlow, E., Bloomfield, J., Dirzo, R. et al.(2000). Global biodiversity scenarios for the year 2100. Science, 287, 1770–1774.
- [27]. Sekercioglu, C.H., Schneider, S.H., Fay, J.P. & Loarie, S.R. (2008). Climate change, elevational range shifts, and bird extinctions. Conserv. Biol., 22, 140–150.
- [28]. Sinclair, S.J., White, M.D. & Newell, G.R. (2010). How useful are species distribution models for managing biodiversity under future climates? Ecol. Soc., 15, 8.
- [29]. Sitch, S., Huntingford, C., Gedney, N., Levy, P.E., Lomas, M., Piao, S.L. et al. (2008).
- [30]. Thuiller, W. (2003). BIOMOD optimizing predictions of species distributions and projecting potential future shifts under global change. Global Change Biol., 9,1353–1362.
- [31]. Thuiller, W., Lavorel, S., Arau'jo, M.B., Sykes, M.T. & Prentice, I.C. (2005). Climate change threats to plant diversity in Europe. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA, 102, 8245–8250.