

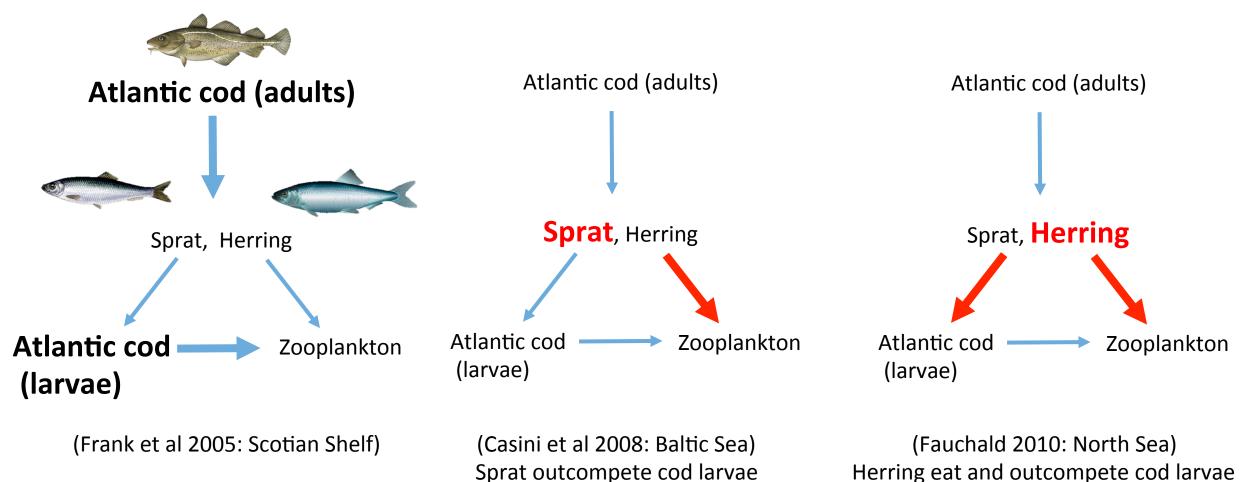
Alternative stable ecosystem states...



versus ecosystem resilience

Alternative stable population states...

Example: Atlantic cod and their pelagic prey (also a nice ecosystem example)



Why is ecological resilience important?

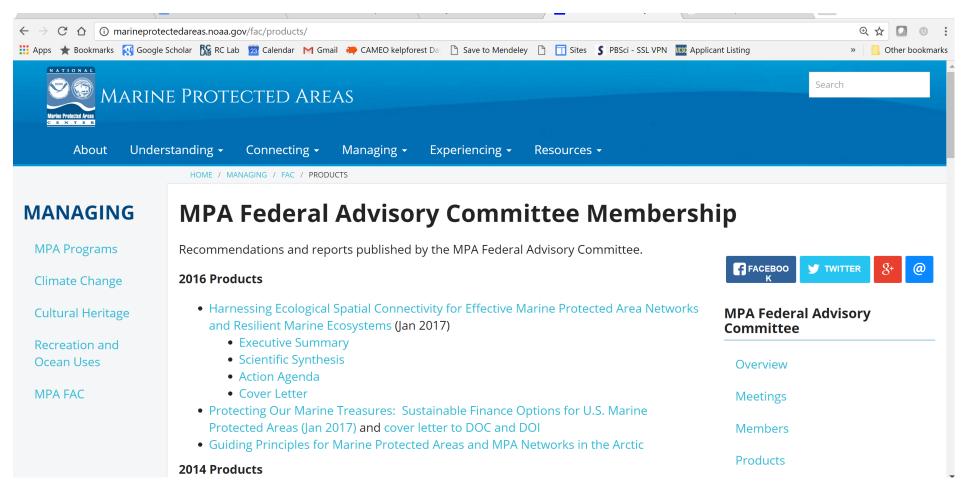
We have come to value natural populations and ecosystems and the services they provide society.

Therefore, we don't want to undermine the ecological mechanisms that support resilience and ability of these systems to persist and continue to generate services.

What is ecological connectivity?

Ecological spatial connectivity refers to processes by which genes, organisms, populations, species, nutrients and/or energy move among spatially distinct habitats, populations, communities or ecosystems.

The Central Importance of Ecological Spatial Connectivity to Effective Marine Protected Areas and to Meeting the Challenges of Climate Change in the Marine Environment: A Scientific Synthesis



http://marineprotectedareas.noaa.gov/fac/products/

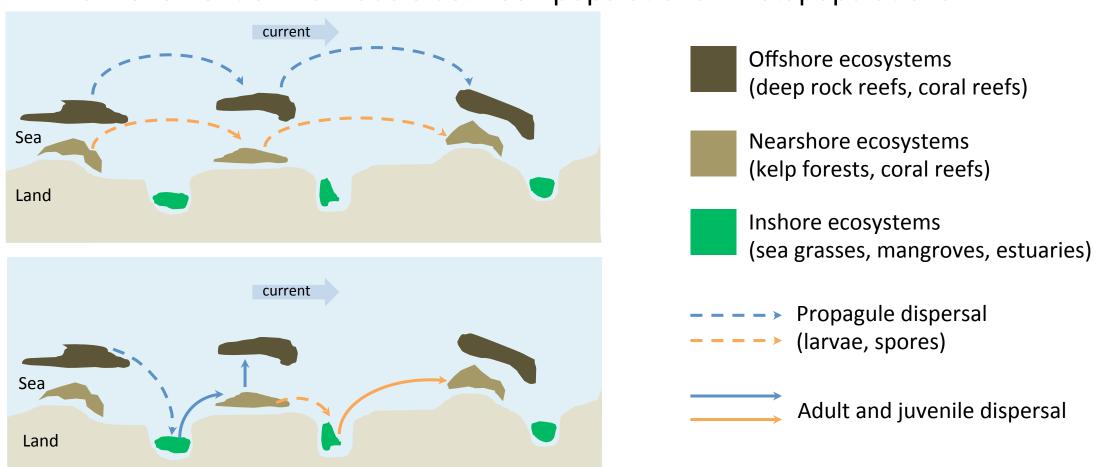
Spatial Ecological Connectivity

Four forms:

- 1) Population (demographic)
- 2) Genetic
- 3) Community
- 4) Ecosystem

1) Population (demographic) connectivity

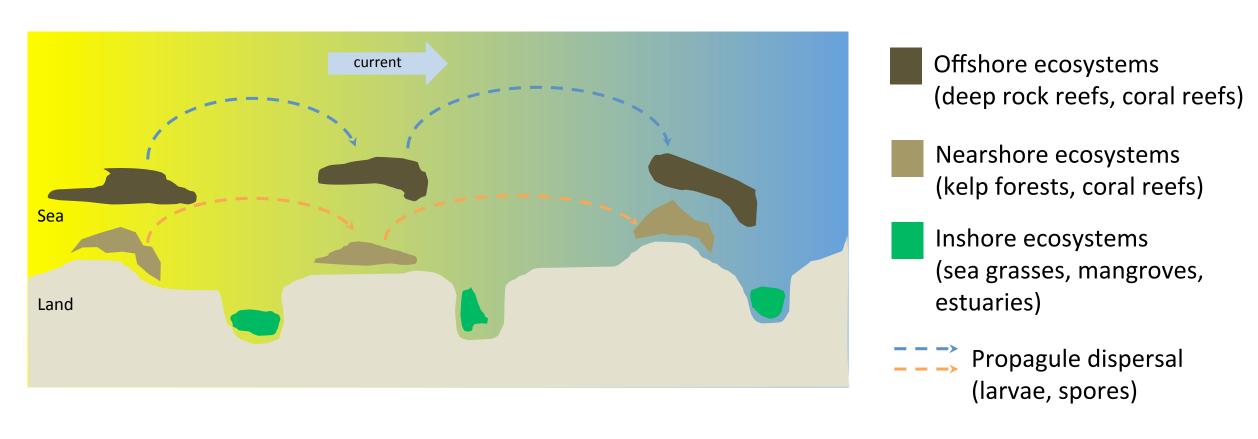
The movement of individuals between populations - metapopulations



Propagule (larvae, spores) dispersal is the fundamental mechanism of connectivity (contrast with terrestrial and marine mammal populations)

2) Genetic connectivity

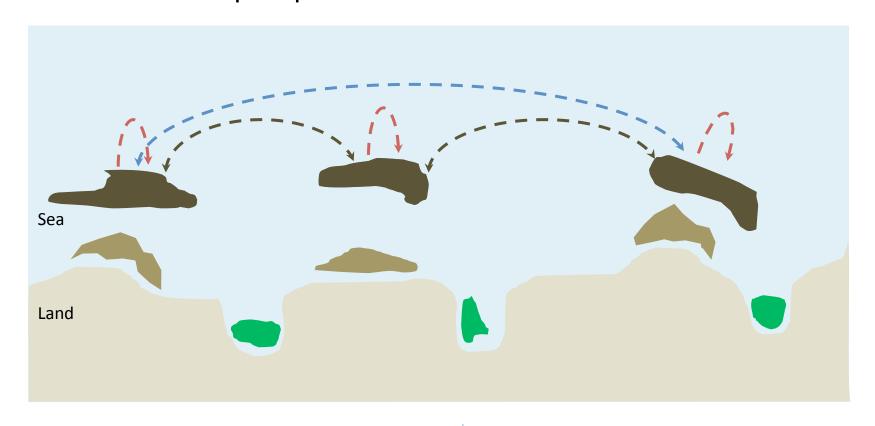
The movement of genes among populations



Genetic composition of a species can vary across environmental gradients and barriers to dispersal

3) Community connectivity

Movement of multiple species between communities - metacommunities

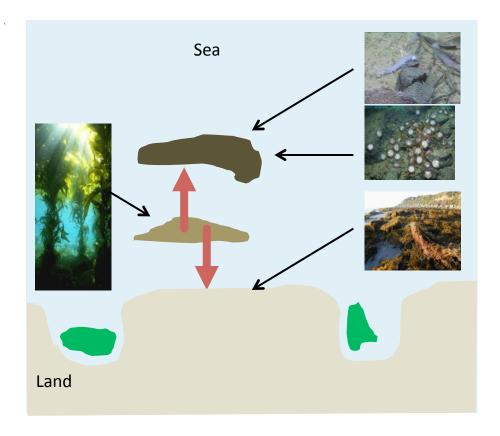


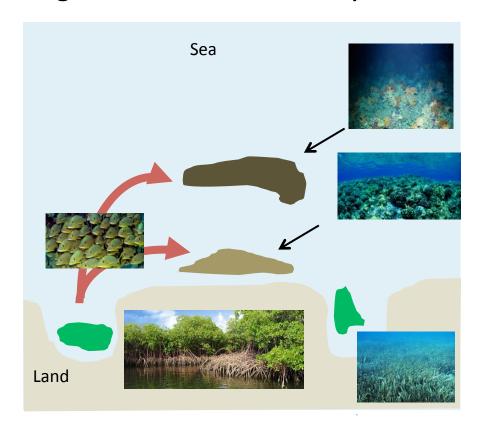
- Offshore ecosystems (deep rock reefs, coral reefs)
- Nearshore ecosystems (kelp forests, coral reefs)
- Inshore ecosystems (sea grasses, mangroves, estuaries)

- - > Long-distance propagule (larvae, spores) dispersal
- - ➤ Moderate-distance propagule dispersal
- - > Short-distance propagule dispersal

4) Ecosystem subsidies

The movement of nutrients, materials and organisms between ecosystems





Offshore ecosystems (deep rock reefs, coral reefs)

Nearshore ecosystems (kelp forests, coral reefs)

Inshore ecosystems (sea grasses, mangroves, estuaries)

Movement of material, nutrients, energy and organisms

Connectivity and MPAs influence the mechanisms that support population and ecosystem resilience

- 1) Population buffers
- 2) Trophic interactions
 - predators controlling prey outbreaks (directly, indirectly trophic cascades)
 - predators controlling community composition
- 3) Maintaining biodiversity
 - redundancy and complementarity
 - genetic diversity
- 4) Ecosystem subsidies

Connectivity influences the mechanisms that support population and ecosystem resilience

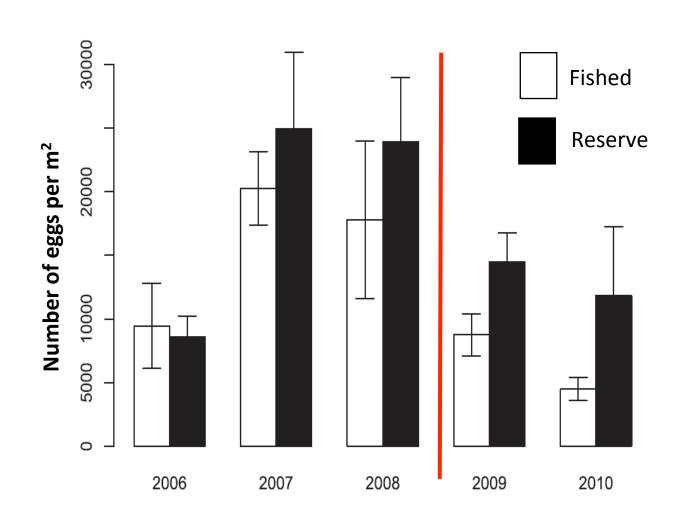
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Connectivity and MPAs protect (maintain) the mechanisms that support resilient populations and ecosystems

1) Population buffers

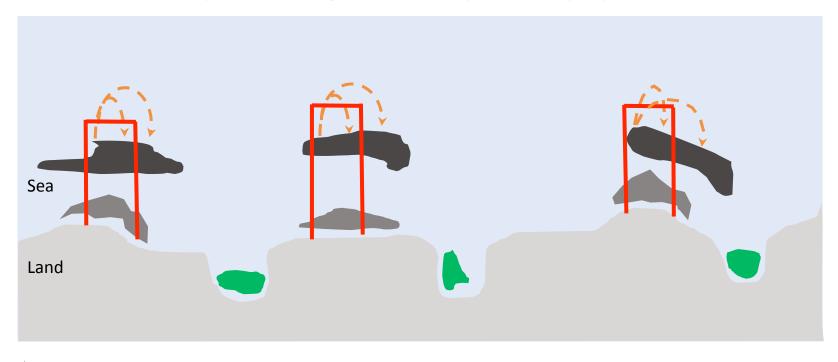
Populations with large abalone that persist in MPAs through hypoxia event rebound more quickly and contribute to recovery outside

MPAs



Population connectivity

Size MPAs to be self-replenishing and to replenish populations outside MPA



- Offshore ecosystems (deep rock reefs, coral reefs)
- Nearshore ecosystems (kelp forests, coral reefs)
- Inshore ecosystems (sea grasses, mangroves, estuaries)
- - → Short-distance propagule dispersal within the same population

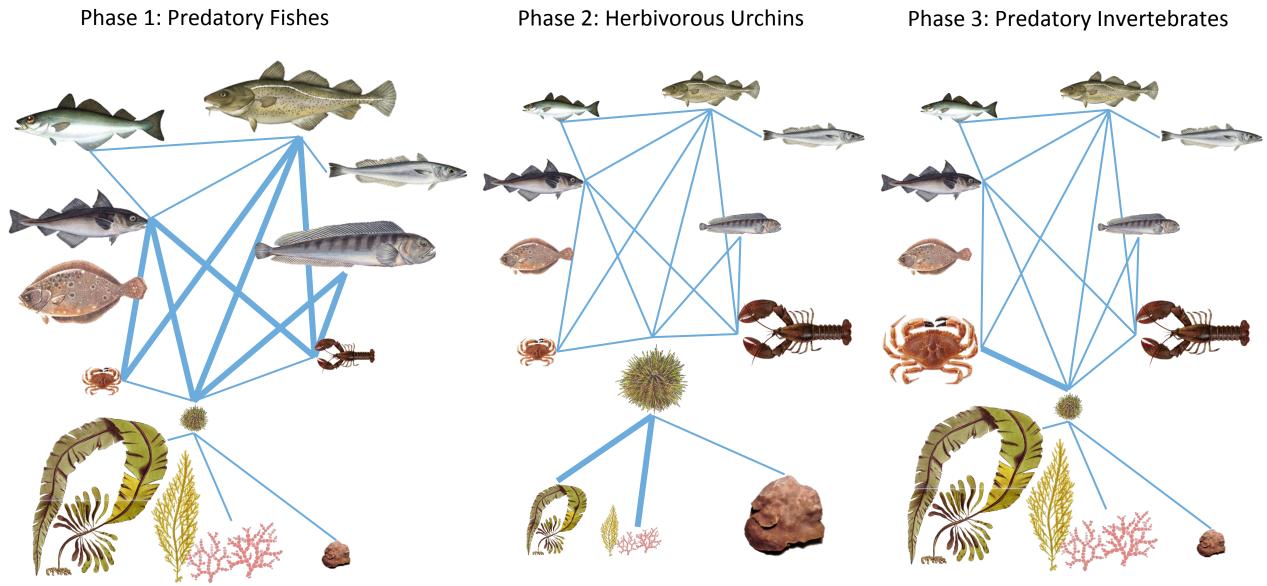
MPAs and connectivity protect (maintain) the mechanisms that support resilient populations and ecosystems

- 1) Population buffers
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Alternative states of kelp forest ecosystems

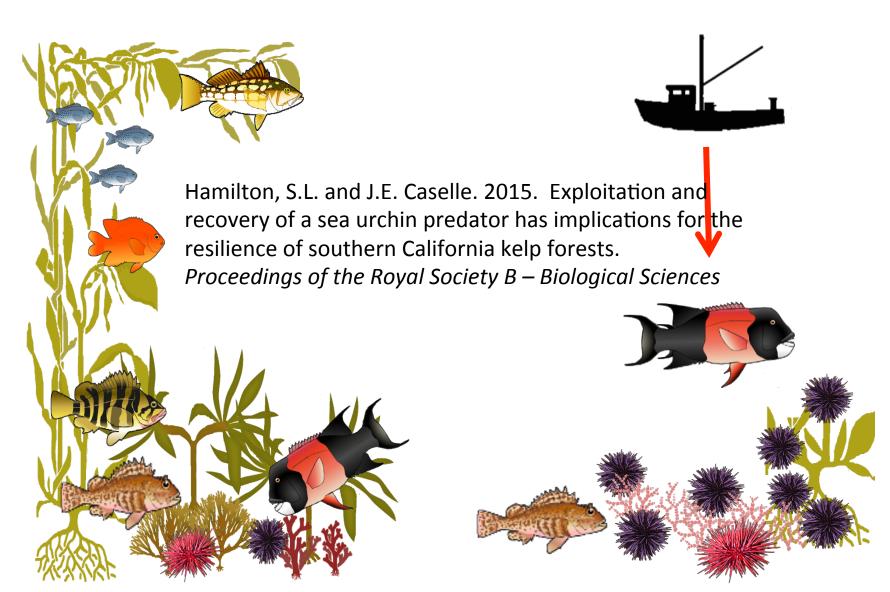


Loss of higher level predators allows system to shift to alternative stable state



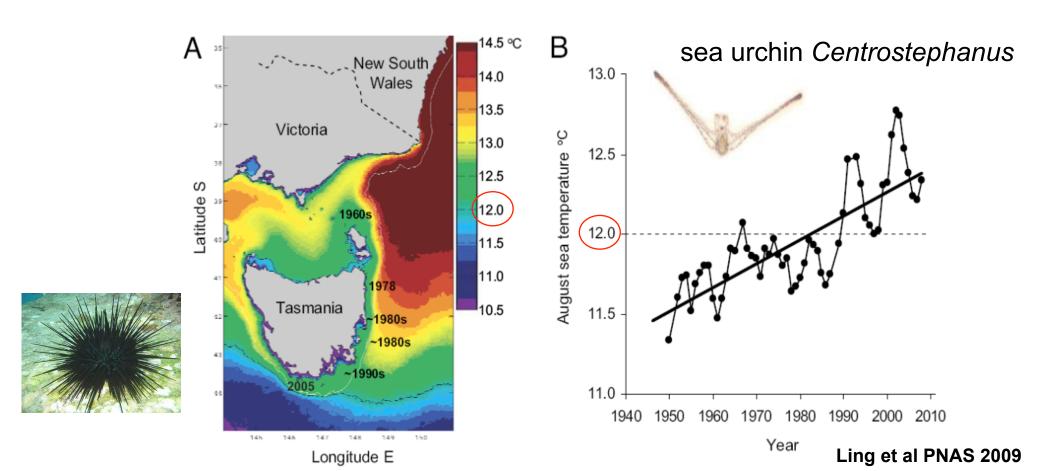
Body sizes scale to their relative abundance

Protecting "keystone" predators enhance resilience of kelp forest communities



Managing for the combined effects of climate change and fishing

Lessons from down under...
Climate change facilitates invasion of sea urchin



Marine Reserves Inform and Protect Fisheries and Ecosystems from Climate Impacts

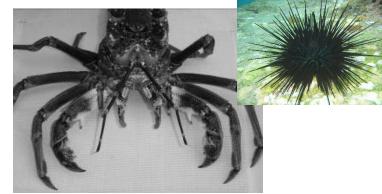
Sea urchin wipes out kelp forests that abalone fishery and biodiversity depend on

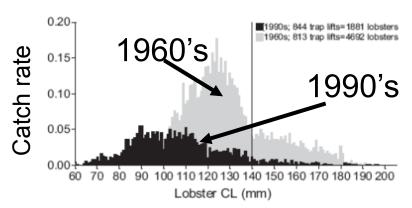
Only large lobster can eat and control invasive sea urchin

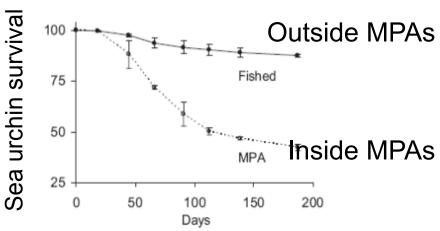
But large lobsters removed by fishery

Only in marine reserves where large lobster are protected are kelp forests protected from urchins

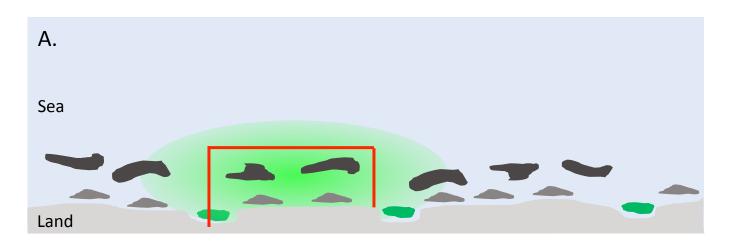
Large lobsters critical to resilience of kelp forest ecosystems

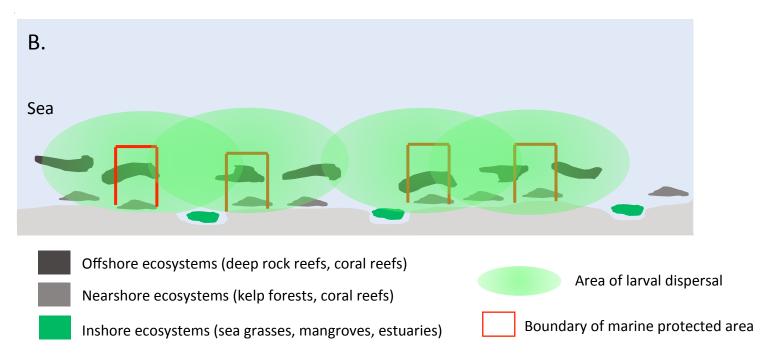






Multiple smaller MPAs contribute to greater area or replenishment of keystone species with longer larval dispersal



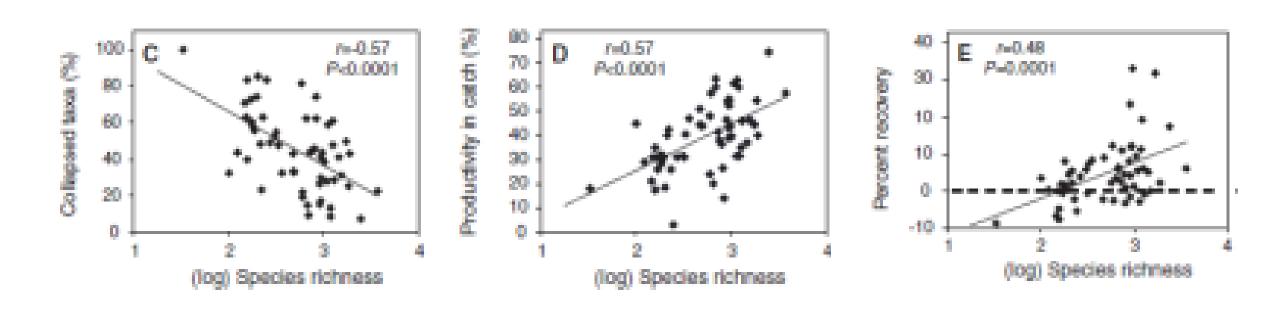


MPAs and connectivity protect (maintain) the mechanisms that support resilient populations and ecosystems

- 1) Population buffers
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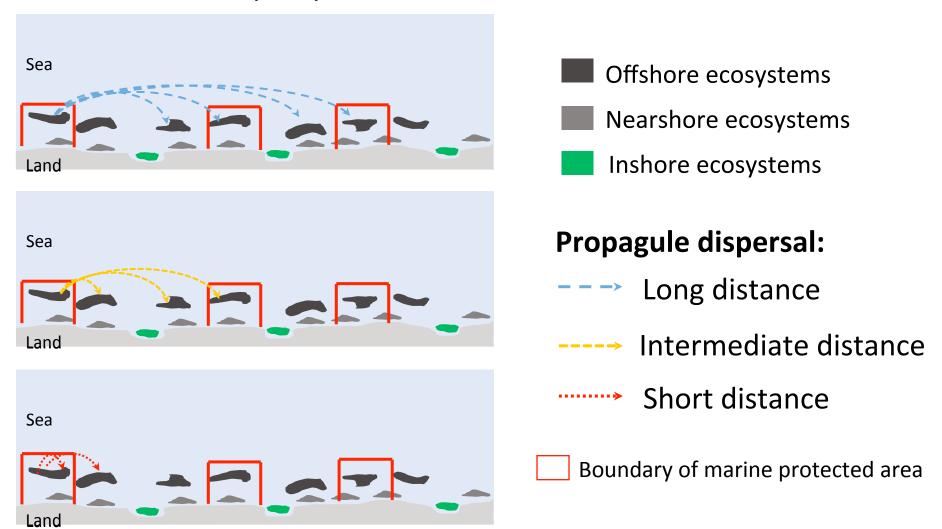
MPAs and connectivity protect (maintain) the mechanisms that support resilient populations and ecosystems

Biodiversity enhances fisheries performance



3) Maintaining biodiversity

Replenishment of multiple species between communities - metacommunities



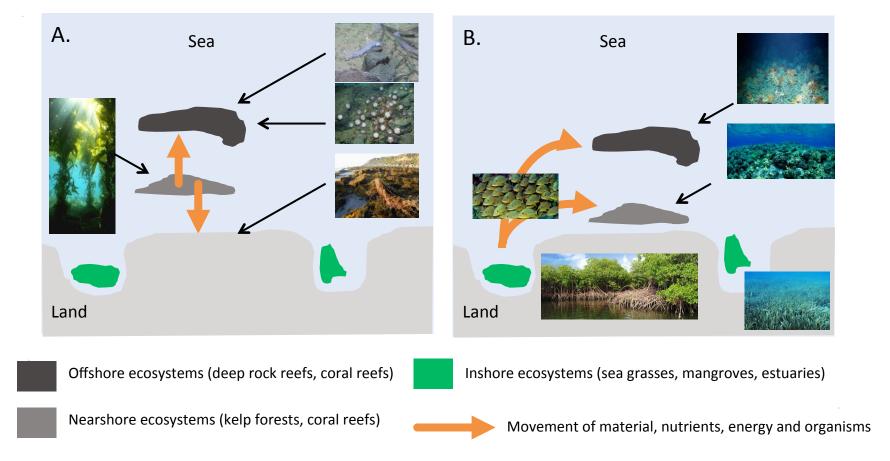
Size and spacing of MPAs influences the diversity of species

MPAs and connectivity protect (maintain) the mechanisms that support resilient populations and ecosystems

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4) Ecosystem subsidies

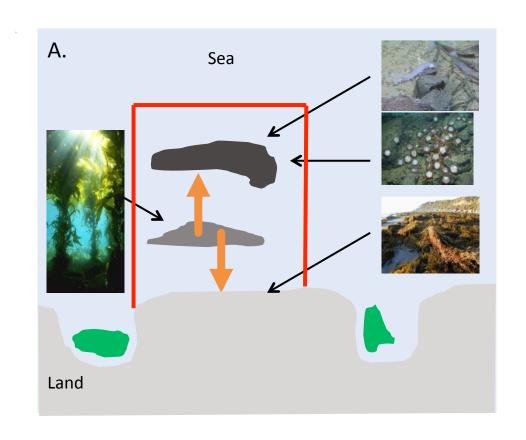
The movement of nutrients, materials and organisms between ecosystems

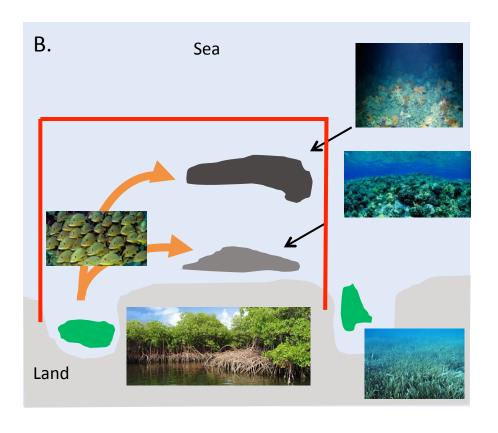


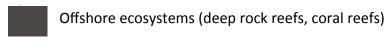
Proximity of nursery habitats determines rates of replenishment Replenishment of herbivorous fishes on coral reefs facilitates ecosystem recovery

4) Ecosystem subsidies

Encompass multiple ecosystems within individual MPAs









Inshore ecosystems (sea grasses, mangroves, estuaries)



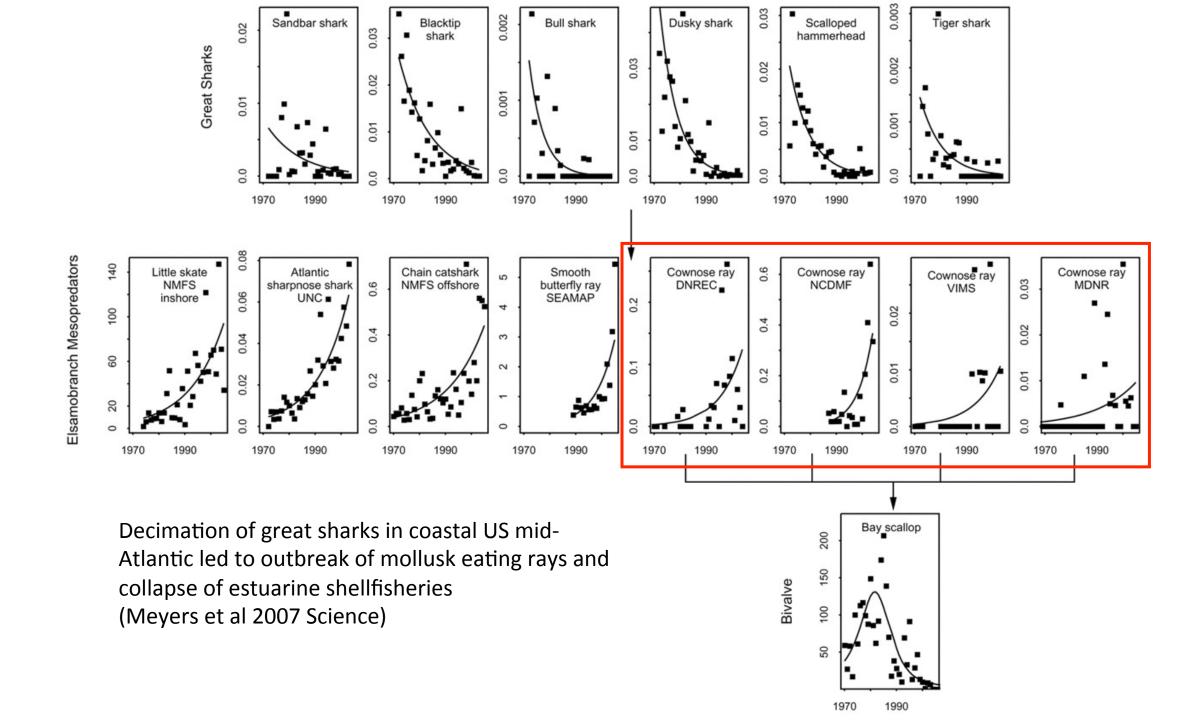
Nearshore ecosystems (kelp forests, coral reefs)



Movement of material, nutrients, energy and organisms

Conclusion

MPAs and networks of MPAs designed to protect and facilitate spatial ecological connectivity can enhance the resilience of populations and ecosystems



Examples: protecting mangroves and seagrass ecosystems that are nursery habitats for herbivorous fishes that eliminate algae and reestablish corals after hurricanes or coral bleaching events

The movement of young of species that depend on nearshore "nursery" ecosystems (e.g. kelp forests, mangroves, seagrass beds) to offshore ecosystems inhabited by adults (e.g., coral reefs, deep rocky reefs, deep sandy habitats) is another key form of connectivity between these ecosystems (Heck et al. 2003, Mumby et al. 2004, Mumby 2006, Igulu et al. 2014). The relative abundance of fishes that inhabit coral reefs depends on the proximity of those reefs to mangrove and seagrass ecosystems (Figure 2.4b; e.g., Neglekerken et al. 2002 Marine Ecology Progress Series, Olds et al. 2012 Conservation Letters).

These ecosystems are nurseries for herbivorous fishes that continue to replenish populations on coral reefs, where they reduce algae and facilitate the recovery of corals (e.g., Adam et al 2011 PLoS ONE, Olds et al 2012 Jor Applied Ecology).

C. S. Holling (1973): the amount of disturbance that an **ecosystem** could withstand without changing self-organized processes and structures (defined as alternative stable states)

Multiple stable states:

