

Lecture 10, 23 Sept 2004
Van Dyke Ch4 n 5

Conservation Biology
ECOL 406R/506R
University of Arizona
Fall 2004

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Conservation Biology 406R/506R

1. Biodiversity
-Van Dyke Ch 4
2. Paradigms and Theories
-Van Dyke Ch 5
- Thailand Study Abroad (isdsi)
-Brazil (Antioch)
3. Lab Friday at computer lab (ECE 206)
4. Exam Tuesday next week
Old Exam on website, review sheet?



Friday at computer lab (ECE 206)



CITES:



Genes From Engineered Grass Spread for Miles, Study Finds

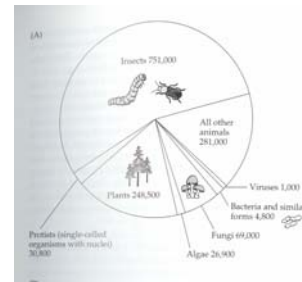


Watrud et al. 2004, PNAS

NYTimes, 21 Sept 2004

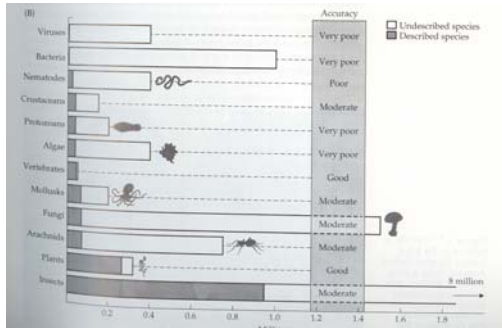
<http://www.nytimes.com/2004/09/21/business/21grass.html>

What is biodiversity?



Thanks to Chuck Price

How many species on earth?



Thanks to Chuck Price

Biodiversity Tid Bits

Species or DNA out of context?

- Umbrella Species
- Indicator Taxa (or structure or function, redundancy)
- Keystone Species (bison)

Areas of high endemism for one group may not be high areas of endemism or BD for another group

Where is biodiversity?

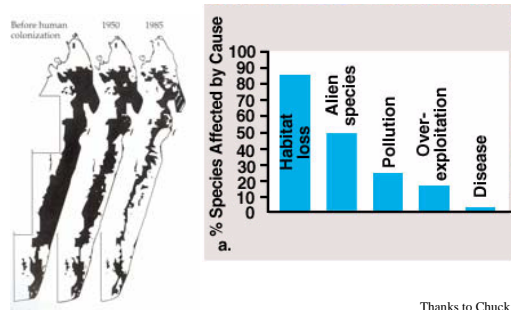
One tree in Peru with same ant diversity as Britain

What factors correlated with high diversity?

- Energy
- Precipitation
- Temperature
- Area
- Stable environment
- Moderate disturbance level

Thanks to Chuck Price

Threats to biodiversity – habitat loss



Thanks to Chuck Price

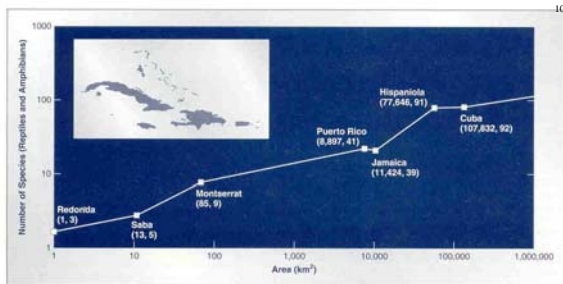


Figure 4.4 A general species-area relationship among some Caribbean islands. Note that species richness on islands increases with increasing area. Based on data from Darlington (1957:483).

Species-Area Relationship

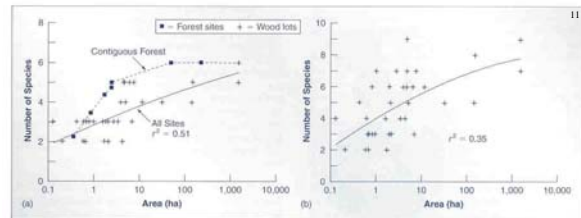
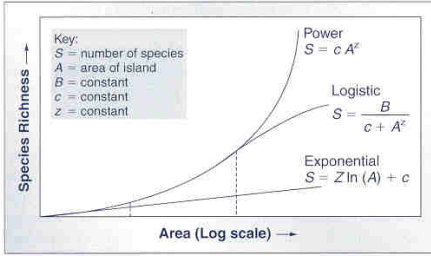


Figure 4.5 An illustration of the relationship between area and species richness of (a) grasslands and (b) all small mammal species in woodlots (scraper) and contiguous forest sites (squares). Species richness increases with woodlot area. In (a), note that grassland species richness increases with area more rapidly in contiguous forest than in woodlots. This pattern suggests that species richness not only declines with habitat loss, but also with habitat fragmentation. After Napp and Swihart (2000).

Woodlots vs. contiguous forest



Species Area Curves

Figure 5.8

Species-area curves and their relationship. More than one equation can be used to develop species-area curves. Presented are three equations that can be used to generate a graphical representation of a species-area relationship, forming a species-abundance curve. After Fangliang and Legendre (1996). Van Dyke 2003

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Species-Area Relationship

3 step loss of biodiversity (Rosenzweig)

1. Endemics
2. Sink populations
3. Stochasticity

Therefore end up with lower steady state species richness and loss of biodiversity

$$S = cA^z$$

S = species richness
 c = taxon specific constant
 A = area
 z = extinction coefficient for taxon

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- Endemism and Islands (Tuatura, Silversword)
- Island Biogeography

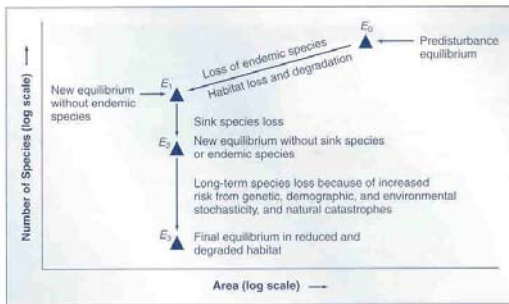
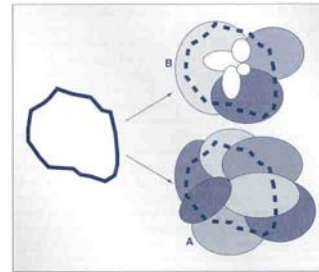


Figure 4.6

When the size of a natural area is decreased, the first species lost are endemics. Next, sink species (those that are not reproducing fast enough to replace themselves) go extinct locally. Finally, failure to replace accidental losses fast enough brings the province to a still lower steady state of biodiversity. After Rosenzweig (1999). Van Dyke 2003

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Endemics
 Habitat Size
 Habitat Loss

Figure 4.7

The "cookie cutter" model of the effects of habitat loss on endemic species. If the cookie cutter strikes at subarea A, seven species lose habitat but none is exterminated. In contrast, if the cookie cutter strikes subarea B, on one containing species with more restricted ranges, seven species lose habitat, and four species are exterminated. Thus, random habitat loss produces a disproportionately high rate of extinction in endemic species. After Pimm (1998). Van Dyke 2003

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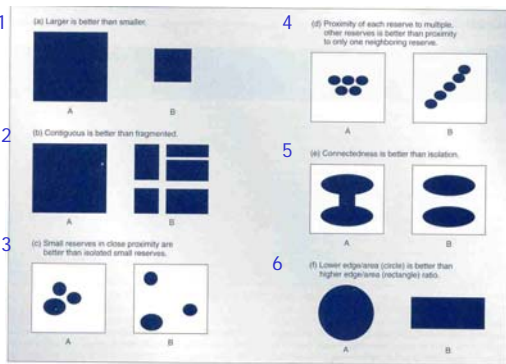


Figure 5.10 A graphical representation of the "rules" of island biogeography applied to nature reserves. In each case, design A is considered superior to design B.

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Habitat Heterogeneity
 Population Variability
 Bush Crickets

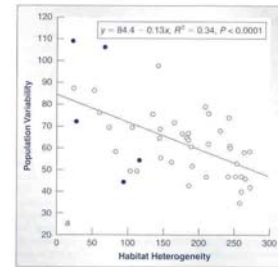


Figure 5.23 Populations of bush cricket (Metrioptera bicolor) subunits exemplify that population size is less variable as heterogeneity increases. Dark circles indicate patches where local extinctions occurred. White circles indicate patches with extant populations. Population variability was measured by the coefficient of variance (s) of local population size, and habitat heterogeneity was measured using digitized infrared aerial photographs. Each patch was assigned values according to how much the patch deviated from the standardized level of gray in the photographs (SDI-uv). After Kimball (1996).

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Island Biogeography
(MacArthur and Wilson 1967)

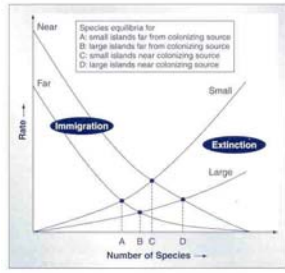


Figure 5.9
The equilibrium model of island biogeography predicts that numbers of species on an island represent an equilibrium between rates of immigration and extinction. Immigration rates increase with decreasing distance from an island's colonizing source. Extinction rates increase with decreasing area of the island. The four equilibria shown (A, B, C and D) depict different combinations of island size and distance from its colonizing source. The equilibrium theory of island biogeography predicts that large islands near a colonizing source will have more species than small islands far from a colonizing source.

- Metapopulations
- Spatial Relationships
- Nature Reserves
- Rescue Effect

Chapter 5

- Metapopulations
- Genetic Diversity
- MVP, PVA
- Island Biogeography
- Disturbance



Metapopulation:

“Spatially disjunct groups of individuals with some demographic or genetic connection”

“largely independent yet interconnected by migration”

1. All local populations must be prone to extinction
2. Persistence of entire population requires recolonization of individual sites.

See p.193 in VanDyke text

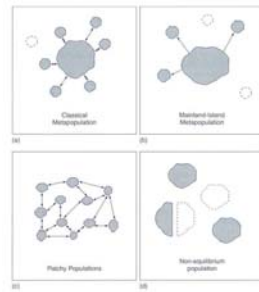


Figure 5.16
Four of metapopulation models. In a classical metapopulation, but some colonies may not exhibit high rates of turnover for long periods of time. Also, colonization may occur several patches, where a larger patch acts as a single entity that contributes to other sites. Colonies further from the source are most prone to extinction. The mainland island metapopulation (b) differs from extinction occurring mostly among a subset of populations. The mainland/colonies, resistant to extinction, function as the major genetic of colonies. The island sink metapopulation has little offspring regional persistence. In patchy populations (c), because of the high levels of migration and intermixing, the patches function as a single unit. It is now that diverse local populations, because extirpation. The absence or insufficiency of recolonization to balance extinction distinguishes non-equilibrium populations (d). Extinction of metapopulation occurs as part of an overall regional decline (i.e., a product of the reduction, fragmentation, or deterioration of a habitat).

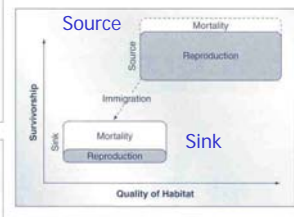
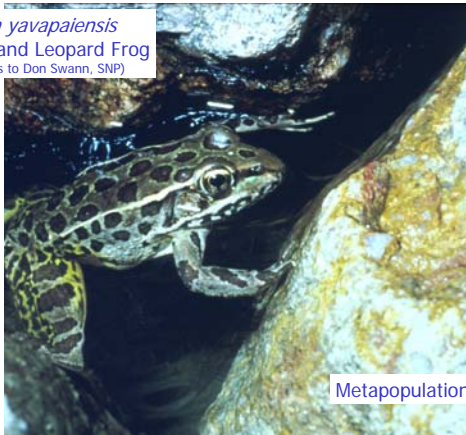


Figure 5.17
A visual representation of the source-sink model of habitat distribution. In source habitats, reproduction produces a population surplus (i.e., mortality does not decrease the number of individuals because of overcompensation through reproduction). Surplus individuals move to sink habitats where mortality exceeds survivorship. Sink habitats cannot be maintained by reproduction, but depend on immigration to maintain a population.

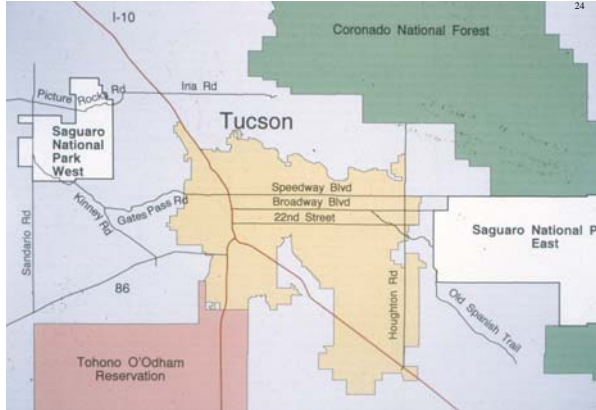
Rana yavapaiensis
Lowland Leopard Frog
(Thanks to Don Swann, SNP)



Metapopulation?

Habitat Loss
Alien species
Disease (chytridiomycosis)



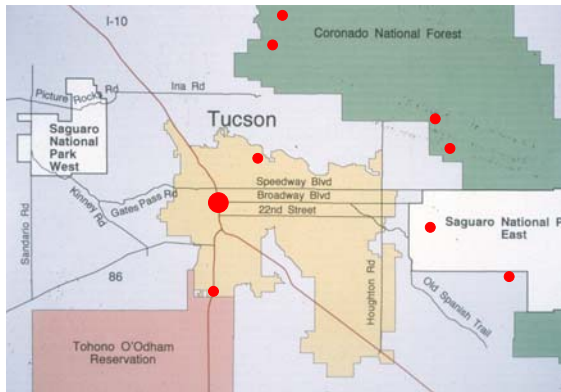


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Santa Cruz River



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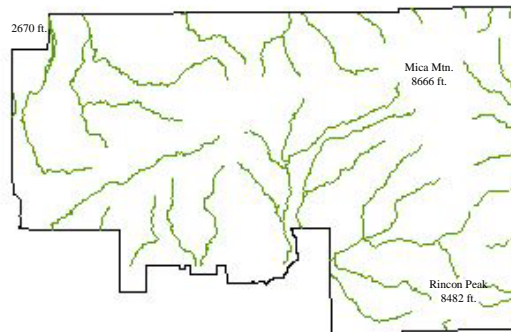


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Environmental Stochasticity

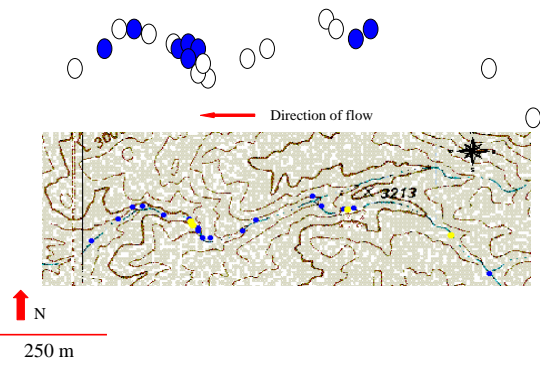
Saguaro National Park - Rincon Mountain District

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Schematic of Study Canyon, Saguaro NP

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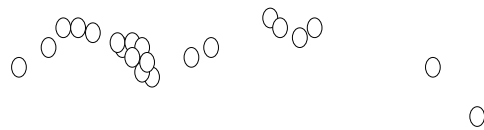


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Environmental Stochasticity
Human Influences?



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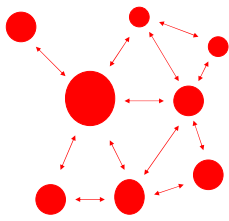
Pre-Monsoon, 2002

250 m



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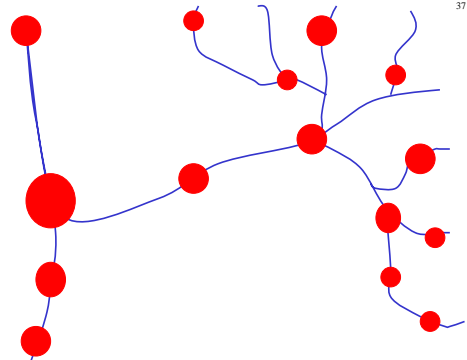
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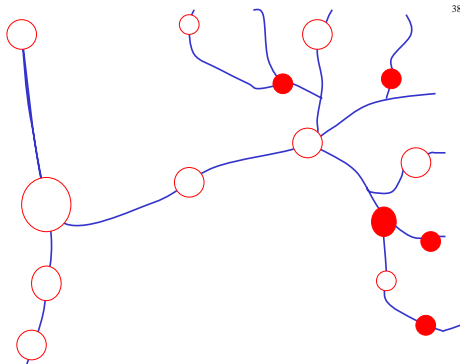
Metapopulation Dynamics



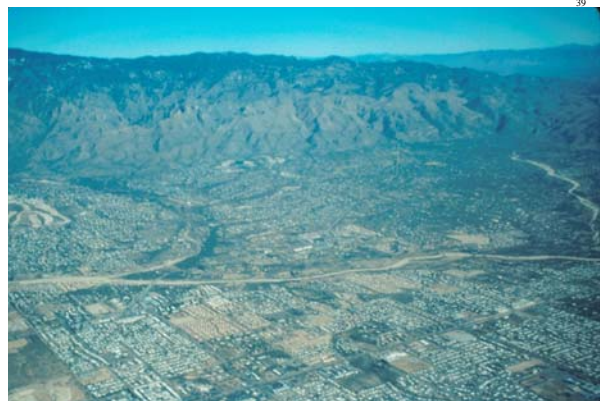
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El Endo