

1 **Ecological responses to environmental change in marine systems**

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12 **Background to volume**

13 Worldwide, the structure of marine communities is being transformed by threats as diverse as climate
14 change, ocean acidification, human introductions of invasive species, and habitat damage, loss or
15 disturbance. Evidence of ecological responses to these threats are increasingly common, manifested in a
16 variety of ways from changes in the behaviour of organisms, to increasing prevalence of disease, changes in
17 the structure, functioning and distribution of species and communities, and efforts to mitigate threats and
18 conserve biodiversity. These responses are occurring across a range of geographic scales, from local, to
19 regional and global, and efforts to understand changes in marine ecosystems are at the forefront of science
20 today. These questions were the focus of the 2015 Aquatic Biodiversity and Ecosystems Conference (ABEC)
21 and this Special Issue presents some of the on-going challenges, solutions and evidence of these responses
22 that emerged from this conference.

23

24 **Threats to natural systems**

25 There are numerous threats to marine ecosystems originating from a complex web of human activities,
26 occurring at a range of spatial and temporal scales (Halpern et al. 2008; Knights et al. 2015). Whilst many of
27 these threats are largely manageable, perhaps some of the greatest challenges – habitat loss, climate
28 change, invasive species and ocean acidification – are less so, and the impacts of those threats continue to
29 be at the forefront of scientific research today.

30

31 Global temperatures continue to increase at unprecedented rates (IPCC 2014) due to historic and
32 continued greenhouse gas emissions, but steps to mitigate impacts are expected to take at least 50 years
33 before effects are seen (Firth & Hawkins, 2011). The impacts of climate change on marine ecosystems are
34 wide and varied (Harley et al., 2006; Rosenzweig et al., 2008): reductions in sea ice (Stocker et al., 2013),
35 increased frequency and intensity of storms (Kossin and Vimont, 2007; Smale et al., 2015), extreme
36 weather events (Crisp, 1964; Firth et al., 2011, 2015; Wetthey et al., 2011; Wernberg et al., 2016) and

37 drought (Difffenbaugh et al., 2015) are particularly obvious examples that have led to catastrophic whole
38 ecosystem changes (Johnson et al., 2011; Russell et al., 2011; Filbee-Dexter and Scheibling, 2014). The
39 implications of global climate change for marine habitats and species are great (Hawkins et al., 2009) but
40 the extent and severity of impacts are yet to be fully revealed (Swart et al., 2015).

41
42 Ocean acidification also continues to pose a significant threat to marine ecosystems. In recent years, there
43 has been a burgeoning literature in this field (Gaylord et al., 2015), many of which focused on impacts on
44 early life-history stages (Byrne, 2011; Findlay et al., 2010a; Findlay et al., 2010b) and to a lesser degree,
45 adults (but see Findlay et al., 2009; Gooding et al., 2009; Rodolfo-Metalpa et al., 2011) of plants and
46 animals. Recent studies have suggested historic ocean acidification linked to the Permian-Triassic mass
47 extinction led to the disappearance of ~90% of marine species (Clarkson et al., 2015). Today, surface ocean
48 hydrogen ion (H^+) concentrations are predicted to increase a further 150 % by 2100 (Stocker et al., 2013).
49 Numerous taxa at first glance appear robust to OA, but when coupled with increased temperature
50 predictions (i.e. ocean acidification-warming scenarios), the persistence of many marine species and
51 associated ecosystem services is less certain (Kroeker et al. 2013).

52
53 The introduction of non-native species into new areas, either through intentional (e.g. aquaculture,
54 (Knights et al., 2016; Wetthey et al., 2011; Woodin et al., 2014) or unintentional means (ballast water or hull
55 fouling; Wonham et al., 2005; Drake and Lodge, 2007; Mineur et al. 2007) is of continuing concern,
56 especially given the costs associated with the successful establishment of invasive species to ecosystem
57 services (Costanza et al., 1997; Pimentel et al., 2005). It has been estimated that ~10,000 species are
58 transported globally by these methods alone (Carlton, 1999). The mechanisms of invasion success remain
59 unclear, although evidence suggests the likelihood of establishment may be limited by the existence of
60 intact native species communities (Elton, 1958; Stachowicz et al., 2002; Levine et al., 2004; Arenas et al.
61 2006). Recently, studies have suggested that the traits and functions of invasives are more similar to those
62 of native species than previously suggested (Wilkie et al., 2012; Zwerschke et al., 2016, but see Borsje et al
63 2011 for an example of where the non-native outperforms the native), such that the competitiveness (and
64 likelihood of establishment) of invading species is high (Freestone et al., 2011; Freestone et al., 2013). This
65 competitiveness is also likely to increase into the future, at least in part, because invasive species often
66 have broad tolerance for a range of environmental conditions, such as temperature, and so may have a
67 competitive advantage over local species which are better adapted to the local environment (Zerebecki &
68 Sorte 2011).

69
70 As the human population continues to expand (Gerland et al., 2014) and given the propensity to live by the
71 coast, there has been a significant expansion in the use of artificial structures to protect coastal habitats
72 from climate change impacts such as increased erosion. The introduction of artificial structures has had a

73 number of impacts including the loss or replacement of natural habitats (Bulleri and Chapman, 2010; Dugan
74 et al., 2011), change in environmental conditions (Airoldi et al., 2005; Wilson and Elliott 2009), breaking
75 down of biogeographic barriers (Dong et al. 2016), and change in community composition including
76 facilitating the establishment and spread of invasive species (Fig. 1, Mineur et al., 2012; Airoldi et al., 2015;
77 Firth et al., 2016).

78

79 **Ecological Responses**

80 The impact of these threats to marine habitats is great, especially as marine habitats from the intertidal
81 zone out to the continental shelf break (and those under greatest threat) are estimated to provide ~43% of
82 global ecosystem goods (e.g. food, raw materials) and services (e.g. nutrient cycling, carbon sequestration)
83 per year (Costanza et al., 1997). Amelioration of these impacts, in some instances, can be achieved through
84 active management or conservation efforts, or by adaptation by species themselves.

85



86

87

88 **Fig. 1.** Proliferation of non-native barnacle (*Austrominius modestus*) and non-native oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*) species
89 interspersed with native barnacles, *Semibalanus balanoides*, on a rocky shore in Plymouth, England. Recruitment has
90 been facilitated by the introduction of artificial substrate on previously open and exposed bedrock. Photo credit: A.M.
91 Knights (unpublished).

92

93 The ecological responses of marine organisms to environmental change are highly variable both within and
94 between species depending on the relationship between the organism and its environment (Chevin et al.,

95 2010; Harley et al., 2006). Moritz and Agudo (2013 and references therein) refer to a combination of
96 exposure (at regional or mesoscales) and intrinsic sensitivity (tolerance) as drivers of species vulnerability.
97 They argue that mediation of vulnerability can be achieved by a range of biological responses, including:
98 reductions in body size (Sheridan and Bickford, 2011), changes in abundance, phenological and range shifts
99 (Parmesan, 2006; Parmesan and Yohe, 2003; Mieszkowska et al., 2005, 2014), altered animal behaviour
100 (Sih, 2013), localised adaption (Hansen et al., 2013; Hof et al., 2011; Muir et al., 2016), but may also be
101 characterised by increased incidence of disease and parasites (Hari et al., 2006; Lindgren and Gustafson,
102 2001) and local extinction (e.g. Pounds, et al. 2005; Poloczanska et al., 2008; Wetthey et al., 2011).
103 Variability in species performance, community composition or general response to environmental change
104 at local and regional scales (Muir et al., 2014) is increasingly being shown to affect ecosystem functioning,
105 stability, and ecosystem service provision (McCann, 2000; Naeem, 1998; Tilman et al., 2006) and was an
106 important focus of many talks and posters presented at the ABEC Conference.

107

108 **Structure of the volume**

109 This Special Issue volume of *the Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* is a compilation of
110 articles emerging from the Aquatic Biodiversity and Ecosystems Conference (ABEC) held at the University of
111 Liverpool in September 2015. Originally conceived as a follow-up and review of the 1990 Conference *Plant-*
112 *Animal Interactions in the Marine Benthos*, ABEC addressed eight themes falling under the broad banner of
113 “Evolution, Interactions and Global change”. The themes were: (i) Evolutionary Biology, (ii) Fisheries and
114 Aquaculture, (iii) Dispersal and Connectivity, (iv) General Aquatic Biology, (v) Global Environmental Change,
115 (vi) Food webs and trophic dynamics, (vii) Conservation, Management and Policy, and (viii) Biodiversity,
116 Ecosystem Functioning and Services.

117

118 This Special Issue is a compilation of reviews and research articles, each of which, fall under one of these
119 themes. Reviews include the effect of ocean sprawl on ecological connectivity (Bishop et al. 2016) and soft
120 sediment habitats (Heery et al. this issue), ocean acidification impacts on ecosystem service provision in
121 oysters (Lemasson et al. this issue), nutrient flux across the land-sea interface (Moss, this issue) and a
122 global analysis of the role of kelp forests as biogenic habitat formers (Teagle et al. this issue). Research
123 articles include environmental factors affecting host-parasite interactions (Firth et al. this issue), habitat
124 complexity of artificial structures affecting biodiversity (Lavender et al. this issue, Loke et al. this issue),
125 impacts of climate change on intertidal ectotherm behaviour (Ng et al. this issue) and larval metamorphosis
126 in response to biofilm cues (Simith et al. this issue).

127

128 Finally, we dedicate and open this volume with a tribute to Professor Roger Hughes, formerly Editor-in-
129 Chief of the *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*. Thanks to Professor Bob Elnor for

130 agreeing to write this fitting tribute and especially to Helen Hughes for providing much of the information
131 and long-time Roger's right-hand 'man' – she is deserving of tributes of her own!

132

133 **Acknowledgments**

134 Compiling this special edition has been a rewarding challenge that couldn't have been achieved without the
135 efforts of all of those who were involved in its preparation and production. We must firstly thank Professor
136 Sandra Shumway, Editor-in-Chief of the Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology, for giving us
137 the opportunity to produce this special issue. We are also extremely grateful to all the authors for
138 submitting papers to make this exciting issue covering a broad range of topics, and to all the peer-reviewers
139 who helped to draw the contributions together. Without your donated time, we would not have been able
140 to complete this volume. We also wish to thank the staff at the Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and
141 Ecology for their help in the production of this special volume. But finally, we wish to acknowledge the
142 legacy and contribution of two great scientists, one who this volume is dedicated to, and another who sadly
143 passed away during the production of this volume. To Professor Roger Hughes and Professor Brian Moss –
144 you are missed.

145

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