

1 Executive Summary

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18

Authors

Susan Herrod Julius, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
Jordan M. West, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
Geoff Blate, AAAS Fellow at U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
Jill S. Baron, U.S. Geological Survey and Colorado State University
Brad Griffith, U.S. Geological Survey
Linda A. Joyce, U.S.D.A. Forest Service
Peter Kareiva, The Nature Conservancy
Brian D. Keller, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
Margaret Palmer, University of Maryland
Charles Peterson, University of North Carolina
J. Michael Scott, U.S. Geological Survey and University of Idaho

1 Climate variables are key determinants of geographic distributions and biophysical
2 characteristics of ecosystems, communities, and species. Climate *change*¹ is therefore
3 affecting many species attributes, ecological interactions, and ecosystem processes.
4 Because changes in the climate system will continue into the future regardless of
5 emissions mitigation, strategies for protecting climate-sensitive ecosystems through
6 management will be increasingly important. While there will always be uncertainties
7 associated with the future path of climate change, the response of ecosystems to climate
8 impacts, and the effects of management, it is both possible and essential for adaptation to
9 proceed using the best available science.

10
11 This report provides a preliminary review of adaptation options for climate-sensitive
12 ecosystems and resources in the United States. The term “adaptation” in this document
13 refers to adjustments in human social systems (*e.g.*, management) in response to climate
14 stimuli and their effects. Since management always occurs in the context of desired
15 ecosystem conditions or natural resource management goals, it is instructive to examine
16 particular goals and processes used by different organizations to fulfill their objectives.
17 Such an examination allows for discussion of specific adaptation options as well as
18 potential barriers and opportunities for implementation. Using this approach, this report
19 presents a series of chapters on the following selected management systems: National
20 Forests, National Parks, National Wildlife Refuges, Wild and Scenic Rivers, National
21 Estuaries, and Marine Protected Areas. For these chapters, the authors draw on the
22 literature, their own expert opinion, and expert workshops composed of resource
23 management scientists and representatives of managing agencies. The information drawn
24 from across these chapters is then analyzed to develop the key synthetic messages
25 presented below.

26
27 *Many existing best management practices for “traditional” stressors of concern have the*
28 *added benefit of reducing climate change exacerbations of those stressors.*
29 Changes in temperature, precipitation, sea level, and other climate-related factors can
30 often exacerbate problems that are already of concern to managers. For example,
31 increased intensity of precipitation events can further increase delivery of non-point
32 source pollution and sediments to rivers, estuaries, and coasts. Fortunately, many
33 management practices that exist to address such “traditional” stressors can also address
34 climate change impacts. One such practice with multiple benefits is the construction of
35 riparian buffer strips that (1) manage pollution loadings from agricultural lands into rivers
36 today and (2) establish protective barriers against increases in both pollution and
37 sediment loadings due to climate changes in the future. While multiple benefits may
38 result from continuing with today’s best practices, key adjustments in their application
39 across space and time may be needed to ensure their continued effectiveness in light of
40 climate change.

41
42 *Seven “adaptation approaches” can be used for strategic adjustment of best management*
43 *practices to maximize ecosystem resilience to climate change.*

¹ Climate change refers to any change in climate over time, whether due to natural variability or as a result of human activity. This usage differs from that in the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, which defines “climate change” as: “a change of climate which is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and which is in addition to natural climate variability observed over comparable time periods.”

1 As defined in this report, the goal of adaptation is to reduce the risk of adverse
2 environmental outcomes through activities that increase the resilience of ecological
3 systems to climate change. Here, resilience refers to the amount of change or disturbance
4 that a system can absorb without undergoing a fundamental shift to a different set of
5 processes and structures. Managers' past experiences with unpredictable and extreme
6 events have already led to some existing approaches that can be adjusted for use in
7 adapting to longer-term climate change. The specific "adaptation approaches" described
8 below are derived from discussions of existing (and new) management practices to
9 maintain or increase ecosystem resilience, drawn from across the chapters of this report.

10
11 **Protecting key ecosystem features** involves focusing management protections on
12 structural characteristics, organisms, or areas that represent important "underpinnings" or
13 "keystones" of the overall system. **Reducing anthropogenic stresses** is the approach of
14 minimizing localized human stressors (*e.g.*, pollution, fragmentation) that hinder the
15 ability of species or ecosystems to withstand climatic events. **Representation** refers to
16 protecting a portfolio of variant forms of a species or ecosystem so that, regardless of the
17 climatic changes that occur, there will be areas that survive and provide a source for
18 recovery. **Replication** centers on maintaining more than one example of each ecosystem
19 or population such that if one area is affected by a disturbance, replicates in another area
20 provide insurance against extinction and a source for recolonization of affected areas.
21 **Restoration** is the practice of rehabilitating ecosystems that have been lost or
22 compromised. **Refugia** are areas that are less affected by climate change than other areas
23 and can be used as sources of "seed" for recovery or as destinations for climate-sensitive
24 migrants. **Relocation** refers to human-facilitated transplantation of organisms from one
25 location to another in order to bypass a barrier (*e.g.*, urban area).

26
27 Each of these adaptation approaches ultimately contributes to resilience, whether at the
28 scale of individual protected area units, or at the scale of regional/national systems. The
29 approaches above are not mutually exclusive and may be implemented jointly. The
30 specific management activities that are selected under one or more approaches above
31 should then be based on considerations such as: the ecosystem management goals, type
32 and degree of climate effects, type and magnitude of ecosystem responses, spatial and
33 temporal scales of ecological and management responses, and social and economic
34 factors.

35
36 *Levels of confidence in these adaptation approaches vary and are difficult to assess, yet*
37 *are essential to consider in adaptation planning.*

38 Due to uncertainties associated with climate change projections as well as uncertainties in
39 species and ecosystem responses, there is also uncertainty as to how effective the
40 different adaptation approaches listed above will be at supporting resilience. It is
41 therefore important to assess the confidence within the expert community that these
42 approaches will support a degree of resilience that may allow ecosystems to persist
43 without major losses of ecosystem processes or functions. Using one of the
44 methodologies presented in the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's
45 guidelines² for estimating uncertainties, the authors of this report developed their

² Guidance on uncertainty from *Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Contribution of Working Group II to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, M.L. Parry, O.F. Canziani, J.P. Palutikof, P.J. van der Linden and C.E.

1 confidence estimates by considering two separate but related elements of confidence. The
2 first element is the amount of available evidence (high or low) to support the
3 determination that the effectiveness of a given adaptation approach is well-studied and
4 understood. Evidence might consist of any of the following sources: peer-reviewed and
5 gray literature, data and observations, model results, and the authors' own experience
6 with each adaptation approach. The second element is the level of agreement or
7 consensus throughout the scientific community about the different lines of evidence on
8 the effectiveness of the adaptation approach.

9
10 The resulting confidence estimates vary, both across approaches and across management
11 systems. Reducing anthropogenic stresses is one approach for which there is considerable
12 scientific confidence in its ability to promote resilience for virtually any situation.
13 Confidence in the other approaches—including protecting key ecosystem features,
14 representation, replication, restoration, identifying refuges, and especially relocation—is
15 much more variable. Despite this variability, many of the individual adaptation options
16 under these approaches may still be effective. In these cases, a more detailed assessment
17 of confidence for individual adaptation options is needed, based on a clearer
18 understanding of how the ecosystem in question functions, the extent and type of climate
19 change that will occur there, the resulting ecosystem impacts, and the projected
20 ecosystem response to the adaptation option.

21
22 One method for integrating confidence estimates into resource management given
23 uncertainty is adaptive management. Adaptive management is a process that promotes
24 flexible decision-making so that adjustments are made in decisions as outcomes from
25 management actions and other events are better understood. This method supports
26 managers in taking action today using the best available information while also providing
27 the possibility of ongoing future refinements through an iterative learning process.

28
29 *The success of adaptation strategies may depend on recognition of potential barriers to*
30 *implementation and creation of opportunities for partnerships and leveraging.*
31 In many cases, perceived barriers associated with legal or social constraints, restrictive
32 management procedures, limitations on human and financial capital, and gaps in
33 information may be converted into opportunities. For example, there may be a possibility
34 to address difficulties associated with information or capacity shortages through
35 leveraging of human capital. Existing staff could receive training on addressing climate
36 change issues within the context of their current job descriptions and management
37 frameworks, but a critical requirement for success of this activity would be to ensure that
38 employees feel both valued as “climate adaptation specialists” and empowered by their
39 institutions to develop and implement innovative adaptive management approaches that
40 might be perceived as “risky.” As a second example, partnerships among managers,
41 scientists, and educators can go a long way toward efficiently closing information gaps.
42 With good communication and coordination, scientists can target their research to better
43 inform management challenges, resource managers can share data and better design
44 monitoring to test scientific hypotheses, and outreach specialists can better engage the
45 public in understanding and supporting adaptation activities. Two additional categories of
46 opportunities that are especially promising are highlighted below.

Hanson, Eds., Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 976pp.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

The Nation’s adaptive capacity can be increased through expanded collaborations among ecosystem managers.

When managers seize opportunities to link with other managers to coordinate adaptation planning, they are able to broaden the spatial and ecological scope of potential adaptation options with a shared vision for increasing adaptive capacity. For example, many management units are nested within or adjacent to other systems. Collaboration across systems allows individual units to be, in effect, extended beyond their official boundaries to encompass entire ecosystems or regions; the result is a larger array of options for responding to future climate change impacts. Collaboration may also enhance research capacity and offer opportunities to share data, models, and experiences. In addition to overcoming limiting factors such as inadequate resources and mismatches of management unit size with ecosystem extent, collaborations may also be used to create flexible boundaries that follow unanticipated changes in ecosystems or species in response to climate change. Exercising opportunities for collaboration has the advantage of reducing uncertainties associated with attaining management goals under climate change because (1) the increase in the geographic range over which resources can be managed and the associated increase in available adaptation options makes success more likely, and (2) the increase in the resource base, in research capabilities, and in the size of data sets through data sharing and coordinated monitoring reduces statistical uncertainties and increases the probability of success.

The Nation’s adaptive capacity can be increased through creative re-examination of program goals and authorities.

Anticipated climate-induced changes in ecosystems and species and the uncertain nature of some of those changes will necessitate dynamic management systems that can accommodate and address such changes. Existing management authorities may be malleable enough to allow for changing conditions and dynamic responses, and with creative re-examination of those authorities their full capabilities could be applied. For example, federal land and water managers may be able to strategically apply traditional legislative authorities in non-traditional ways to coordinate management outside of jurisdictional boundaries. Similarly, while management policies can sometimes be limiting, the iterative nature of management planning may allow priorities and plans to be revisited on a cyclical basis to allow for periodic adjustments. Greater agility in program planning can increase the probability of meeting management goals by overcoming implementation barriers associated with narrowly defined and interpreted authorities.

Establishing current baselines, identifying thresholds, and monitoring for changes will be essential elements of any adaptation approach.

Climate changes may cause ecological thresholds to be exceeded, leading to abrupt shifts in the structure of ecosystems. Threshold changes in ecosystems have profound implications for management because such changes may be unexpected, large, and difficult to reverse. If these ecosystems cannot then be restored, actions to increase their resilience will no longer be viable. Understanding where thresholds have been exceeded in the past and where (and how likely) they may be exceeded in the future allows managers to plan accordingly and avoid tipping points where possible. Activities taken to prevent threshold changes include establishing current baseline conditions, modeling a range of possible climate changes and system responses, monitoring to identify relevant

1 ecological changes, and responding by implementing adaptation actions at appropriate
2 scales and times. Current baselines capture a benchmark set of conditions for the
3 ecological attributes or processes that are critical for maintaining that system and the
4 current set of ecosystem services that the public has come to expect from that system.
5 Developing a range of quantitative or qualitative visions of the future (scenarios) and
6 planning adaptation responses for that range provide an approach for addressing the large
7 uncertainties associated with any single projection of the future. Sensitivity analyses for
8 any given scenario explore key attributes of the system and their response to systematic
9 changes in the climate drivers. Such analyses may allow managers to identify thresholds
10 beyond which key management goals may become unattainable. Directed monitoring
11 then supports managers' ability to detect changes in baseline conditions, informs their
12 decisions about the timing of adaptation actions, and helps them evaluate the
13 effectiveness of their actions. With such information, a program that has the authority to,
14 for example, acquire land interests and water rights to restore a river to its historic flows
15 would better be able to determine how, when, and where to use this authority.

16
17 *Beyond "managing for resilience," the Nation's capability to adapt will ultimately*
18 *depend on our ability to be flexible in setting priorities and "managing for change."*
19 Prioritizing actions and balancing competing management objectives at all scales of
20 decision making is essential, especially in the midst of shifting budgets and rapidly
21 changing ecosystems. Using a systematic framework for priority setting would help
22 managers catalog information, design strategies, allocate resources, evaluate progress,
23 and inform the public. This priority-setting could happen in an ongoing way to address
24 changing ecological conditions and make use of new information. Over time, our ability
25 to "manage for resilience" of current systems in the face of climate change will be limited
26 as temperature thresholds are exceeded, climate impacts become severe and irreversible,
27 and socioeconomic costs of maintaining existing ecosystem structures, functions, and
28 services become excessive. At this point, it will be necessary to "manage for change,"
29 with a re-examination of priorities and a shift to adaptation options that incorporate
30 information on projected ecosystem changes. Both "managing for resilience" and
31 "managing for change" require more observation and experimentation to fill knowledge
32 gaps on how to adapt to climate change. This report presents a preliminary review of
33 existing adaptation knowledge to support managers in taking immediate actions to meet
34 their management goals in the context of climate change. However, this is only a first
35 step in better understanding this burgeoning area of research in adaptation science and
36 management. It will be necessary to continuously refine and add to this body of
37 knowledge in order to meet the challenge of preserving the Nation's lands and waters in a
38 rapidly changing world.