

International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 2, Issue 2, July 2022

A Systematic Review of Global Warming's Impact on Plant Growth

Rajitha Tungani¹ and Dr. Nirmal Sharma²

Research Scholar, Department of Botany¹ Professor, Department of Botany² NIILM University, Kaithal, Haryana, India

Abstract: This review examines how plant phenology and distribution are affected by climate change. Several types of data that may be used to recreate past climates are in favor of climate change. Temperature readings, glacier retreat, melting arctic sea ice, rising sea levels, and global precipitation are the sources of these data. Furthermore, empirical evidence has shown that climate change has a wide range of effects on life as we know it. Climate change primarily affects plant phenological characteristics, such as blooming time, species richness and distribution, and composition of assemblages. In order to adapt to the changing environment, several plant species have adjusted when they leaf out, blossom, and fruit. They have also extended their ranges and become more species rich on alpine peaks. Natural populations may be able to adjust more quickly to climate change with the aid of evolution. Adaptive adaptations may influence a species' capacity to benefit from climate change. Phenotypic plasticity allows plant species to adjust to changing environmental conditions.

Keywords: Plants, Ecosystems, Adaptation

I. INTRODUCTION

Climate change is the term used to describe any change in the climate over time, regardless of whether it is caused by natural variability or human action. The mechanisms that essentially determine climate include heat transfer into and out of the earth as well as heat storage in the atmosphere, land, ocean, and snow/ice. Ultimately, this heat originates from the sun. The atmosphere only makes up a small percentage of the total heat stored at the Earth's surface; the bulk is found in the seas. The rate at which heat moves from the water into the atmosphere is much higher. However, changes in ocean temperature provide a more reliable indicator of climate change than differences in air temperature because the ocean holds so much heat.

There are many different pieces of data from many sources that corroborate the truth of climate change, making it possible to reconstruct past climates. For instance, data on temperature over the last three decades indicates a rise in world temperature of around 0.6°C. Glaciers are considered to be among the most sensitive indicators of climate change, according to Seiz and Foppa. The estimation of glacier mass is aided by the mass balance of snow inputs and meltouts. When the temperature rises, the glaciers retreat until more snowfall falls to replace the melting portion. Globally, glaciers are reportedly rapidly disappearing, according to the World Glacier Monitoring Service. The 1940s saw some significant glacial retreats, while the 1920s and 1970s saw conditions look stable or even improved, but by the mid-1980s, the glaciers had started to retreat again, and they have continued to do so ever since.

Another sign of the rapid rate of climate change is the decline in the extent and thickness of Arctic sea ice during the last several decades. The average yearly rate of Arctic sea ice reduction from 1979 to 2000, as determined by satellite data, is now 11.5 percent per decade. The rise in sea levels and regional differences in precipitation are other indicators of climate change. Global warming is compatible with the average global sea level increase of 1.8 millimeters per year over the last 40 years. Precipitation patterns during the last century show that it has increased significantly in eastern regions of North and South America, northern Europe, and northern and central Asia, while it has decreased in the Sahel, the Mediterranean, southern Africa, and parts of southern Asia.

Furthermore, scientific evidence has shown the many impacts of climate change on life as we know it. Some of the most important examples of phenological features include plant blooming time, breeding, and the arrival of migratory

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 2, Issue 2, July 2022

species. The composition of assemblages as well as the distribution and richness of species are impacted by climate change. A species' range may either stay the same or fluctuate in reaction to changes in its surroundings, expanding, declining, or moving. Therefore, the purpose of this review research is to show how climate change affects plant life cycles and distributions and how plants have adapted to tolerate these changes.

Major causes of climate change

The term "climate forcings" or "forcing mechanisms" refers to factors that have the power to change the climate's state or condition. A few examples of climate forcing mechanisms include variations in solar radiation, modifications to greenhouse gas concentrations, mountain and continental drift creation, and changes in the Earth's orbit. Numerous climate change feedbacks have the potential to strengthen or weaken the initial force. Different components of the climate system respond differently to climatic forcings. For instance, some regions respond more quickly than others, like as the oceans and ice caps.

Forcing techniques may be classified as "external" or "internal." External forcing mechanisms, such as changes in solar output, may be brought on by either natural or human causes, while internal forcing mechanisms, such as the thermohaline circulation, are naturally occurring processes within the climate system.

Ocean variability

Internal climate variability results from natural fluctuations in the components and interactions that make up the earth's climate system. The El Nino-Southern oscillation, the Pacific decadal oscillation, the North Atlantic oscillation, and the Arctic oscillation are a few instances of short-term variations that are indicative of climatic variability rather than climate change. On the other hand, long-term heat redistribution in the world's oceans and the extremely slow, very deep flow of water depend on modifications to ocean processes, such as thermohaline circulation, which occurs over longer periods of time.

External forcings

Solar radiation and volcanism

Variations in sun intensity over short and long timescales affect the global climate. The change in the sun's spectral distribution and radiation output over timescales spanning from years to millennia is known as solar variation. Although these variations include periodic components, the major solar variation is the approximately 11-year solar cycle, sometimes referred to as the sunspot cycle. The projected variation in the total solar output during the preceding three 11-year sunspot cycles was 0.1%, or 1.3 Watts per square meter. Climate change is thought to be affected by solar oscillations and volcanic activity. Many times a century, eruptions affect the climate because, for a few years thereafter, they partially block solar energy from reaching the Earth's surface, which results in cooling. The 1991 eruption of Mount Pinatubo, the second-greatest terrestrial eruption of the 20th century, significantly altered the climate, whereas the 1912 eruption of Novarupta, located on the Alaska Peninsula, was the century's first large eruption. Consequently, global temperatures decreased by around 0.5°C (0.9°F). Because of Mount Tambora's eruption in 1815, the region did not have a summer in 1816.

Tectonic plate

The reorganization and creation of topography over millions of years by the movement of tectonic plates may affect regional and global patterns of climate and atmosphere-ocean circulation.

Ocean circulation patterns are influenced by the way the continents are oriented, which also forms the seas. The formation of the Panama Isthmus around 5 million years ago, which prevented direct mixing between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, is evidence of tectonic control over ocean circulation. This phenomenon has a major influence on the Gulf Stream's current ocean dynamics and may have contributed to the ice cover in the Northern Hemisphere. Plate tectonics may have contributed to extensive carbon storage and enhanced glaciation between 300 and 360 million years ago.

Human influence

Experts generally agree that "climate change is changing and that these changes are largely caused by human activities" and that it "is largely irreversible." The destruction of natural flora and the emission of greenhouse gases are the two

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 2, Issue 2, July 2022

most important human activities. The most important greenhouse gases in Earth's atmosphere include carbon dioxide (CO2), methane (CH4), nitrous oxide (N2O), water vapor (H2O), and halocarbons (a family of gases that includes fluorine, chlorine, or bromine) (NAS 2001). One common feature of these greenhouse gases is their tendency to absorb infrared radiation from the planet. However, because of their different radiative properties and atmospheric lifetimes, greenhouse gases have varying warming effects on the global climate system (IPCC 2007).

The burning of fossil fuels and changes in land use, such as the conversion of forests into agricultural land, are the main contributors to the increase in the global CO2 concentration. The observed increase in CH4 concentration is most likely caused by the use of fossil fuels and agriculture, whereas the observed increase in N2O concentration is most likely caused by agriculture (IPCC 2007). While man-made compounds like CFCs are released into the atmosphere, ocean evaporation is the main source of gaseous water (NAS 2001).

The impacts of climate change on plants

The signals that a plant gets from its environment are crucial to every facet of its existence, including germination, growth, and reproduction. Consequently, temperature and precipitation variations, particularly those that come on abruptly or to very high levels, have an immediate impact on species and may therefore have an impact on the development of interspecies conflict. It is anticipated that different species and plant populations would have different effects from global climate change, which is unlikely to be uniform in degree. General circulation models, for instance, forecast greater winter temperatures at northern latitudes while predicting more droughts and less precipitation in southern Europe.

Three main responses are seen in plants to climate change: (1) quicker growth and increased population; (2) decreased population and potential extinction in a given location; and (3) migration to new, more favorable places. Phenology and range shifting are the two major methods used to investigate how plants are responding to climate change.

Global distribution of plants

The wide range of plant species and flora is influenced by climate. The presence or absence of a species is influenced by local environmental factors such as soil pH, nutrient status, water-holding capacity, slope, and aspect. But whether a plant survives depends on intra- and interspecific interactions, such as competition for nutrients, water, and light.

Greenhouse gas emissions have an impact on both present and future vegetation patterns since they quickly alter the climate. The two main human-caused causes that are anticipated to have an impact on biodiversity worldwide in a century are changes in land use and climate.

Numerous evaluations indicate that certain species have changed where they are found as a result of climate change. Latitudinal shifts have been shown in studies, although changes in the distribution of plant species are more difficult to identify. The 0°C isotherm is closely linked to Holly's northern boundary, which is well-known for its correlation with winter temperatures. Over the last 50 years, Holly has drifted north with this isotherm, absorbing more climate along Sweden's southern shores. It has been noticed that trees in the Scandinavian Alps ascend. The northern hardwood-boreal forest ecotone top limits of Vermont shifted 91–115 meters upslope between 1962 and 2005. Elevation gradient assessments conducted in southern California between 1977 and 2006–2007 revealed an average elevation increase of 65 m for the leading plant species. Precipitation variability and regional warming were the causes of this surge.

The European Alps' favorable environment has expanded species ranges, as shown by Walther et al. (2005), who found that alpine peaks had higher species counts. Because of migratory species moving upwards as a result of climate change, more specialized alpine species may become extinct locally. There have been changes in the Mediterranean Mountains' biomes. Penuelas & Boada (2003) discover that after 1945, heathlands at lower altitudes have given way to holm oak (Quercus ilex L.) while beech forest (Fagus sylvatica L.) has shifted uphill by 70 m.

It seems that tropical environments are more nuanced. However, Colwell et al. (2008) used plant data from Costa Rica to investigate the consequences of climate change for tropical elevation gradients. They come to the conclusion that, similar to greater latitudes, species from lower elevations or lowlands may impede biota upslope migrations on mountain slopes.

Some plant species have migrated northward throughout Europe in recent decades, perhaps as a result of rising temperatures. In the last 30 years, species of plants that are thermophilic have spread over Western Europe, whereas those that are cold-tolerant have slightly declined.

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 2, Issue 2, July 2022

Due to moisture availability (Fei et al. 2017), alien species invasion (Dainese et al. 2014), and climate change, European alpine species have been displaced by alien species. Some plant species may have been able to climb upland and compete with native species thanks to longer growth seasons and higher temperatures. Due to climatic change over the last 60 years, sub-alpine plants as well as species of spruce and pine may have reached higher altitudes on Alps summits.

Other continents' mountainous regions have seen comparable changes. Warming temperatures have caused sub-alpine forest to spread over higher-elevation alpine meadows in Washington State's Olympic Mountains. Over the last 30 years, there has been an increase in species richness due to an increase in air temperatures of 1°C per decade. Two native Antarctic flowering plants found in the Argentine Islands saw substantial population growth between 1964 and 1990, which coincided with a significant warming of the Antarctic Peninsula. Warmer summer temperatures and longer growing seasons may have aided in the fast population increase of these species by increasing plant reproduction.

Phenology of plants

Plant phenology encompasses leaf emergence, autumn, flowering, and fruiting. Phonological pattern alterations are bioindicators of climate change since the environment greatly affects seasonal plant and animal occurrences. Flowering, leaf emergence, fruit maturing, and leaf falling occur. Cherry tree blossoming is first mentioned in Japan's 801 AD bloom festival.

Flowers bloom in plants' most vital season. It affects seed ripening, distribution, and pollination, particularly seasonal pollinators. Blooming time affects animals because they ingest pollen, nectar, and seeds. Early flowering may alter competitive interactions between species due to earlier food intake, root development, and leaf expansion. These behaviors are necessary for niche differentiation between coexisting species. Therefore, substantial blooming date fluctuations may disrupt environmental balance.

Several research have studied how climate change impacts phenology. Between 1971 and 2000, leaf fall was delayed by 0.2 days while early leafing, blooming, and fruiting increased by 2.5 days. From 1900 to 1997, North American lilac spring was examined. Regional differences aside, spring temperatures rose 5-7 days between 1959 and 1993.

The national relationship between phenology and climate change is well-studied. In the 1990s UK, Fitter & Fitter (2002) observed that 385 species' first flowering dates climbed by 4.5 days every decade. Four tree species, including Ginkgo biloba L., saw their budburst advance by 5.6 days per 10 years in four Japanese locales that warmed the most in 50 years. The March temperature rise may have triggered these effects.

In the 20th century, Wolfe et al. (2005) evaluated leaf emergence and blooming dates in lilac, apple, and grape perennials. The research found that Northeastern US spring phenology for these species has advanced 2–8 days over 35 years. Most studies have found that temperature variations are the major cause, although not always.

The 1920s to 1980s phenological investigations of four Eucalyptus species showed considerable connections between temperature, rainfall, and flowering. However, temperature and rainfall affected the four species differently. Two species blossomed later and two early under forecast summer rains and temperatures. Many plant species' phenological occurrences have been influenced by climate change.

Expansion of invasive plant species

Invasive plant species threaten native ecosystems, natural resources, and regulated areas worldwide. Climate change is expected to worsen the consequences of invasive plant species since they may spread owing to favorable weather. More CO2 makes invading plants more competitive with native species. Many invasive species may grow fast into disturbed habitats, such as freshly burnt sites, which may become more widespread due to climate change. Because invasive plants outcompete native ones, ecosystems are threatened.

The invasion-vulnerable terrain region may vary with temperature and precipitation. In the western US, increased precipitation has spread non-native grasses, whereas in the south, higher temperatures have transported invasive plants northward.

Climate change may boost species invasion in some locations. In response to climate change, invasive plants like tamarisk and yellow starthistle are expected to expand, while spotted knapweed and cheatgrass are expected to expand and contract.





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 2, Issue 2, July 2022

Forests, rangelands, and farms are threatened by invasive plants. These plants damage controlled areas and cost the US billions of dollars to eradicate. These invaders live in small but non-dominant populations in numerous at-risk areas, threatening quick development due to climate change.

Adaptive features in plants for resisting climate change

Climate change affects natural population growth, reproduction, and geographic dispersion, altering community composition and species interactions. Many species face extinction due to ineffective climate change mitigation. To avoid extinction, populations may be moved, species features adjusted, or creatures can adapt to severe environments.

The fast evolution of biotic invaders and native species responding to them may help battle climate change, according to studies.

Migration or evolution by humans may preserve fragile species. Adaptive alterations may reduce species' ability to profit from climate change-induced CO2 enrichment growth and seasonal impacts.

Climate change causes habitat loss, fragmentation, and rapid species movement. Several studies imply that invasive species and disruptions stress populations, causing climate change. Invasions and fragmentation may alter gene distribution and hybridize new genotypes.

Favorable temperatures boost populations and species, creating new lineage contact zones. This promotes interspecific hybridization and taxon competition. Hybridization diminishes variation and fitness, hurting conservation. However, hybridization may aid evolution. Molecular evidence suggests hybridization broadened a species' climate. Genetic variety from hybridization may accelerate population growth. Interspecies hybridization helps Darwin's finches adapt to their changing environment. Hybridization may assist adapted species adapt.

Phenotypic plasticity helps plants adapt to changing conditions. Genetic traits vary by circumstance. Certain responses are inescapable because to physical processes or resource constraints, but adaptive flexibility improves genotype fitness. Climate change will affect plant plasticity.

High genetic diversity aids climatic and environmental adaptation. Plants develop plastic defenses and sense environmental changes with genetic variation. For instance, temperature sensor and vernalization transcription factor gene variety aids plant temperature adaptation. Flexibility may accelerate adaptation and slow climate change.

II. CONCLUSION

Global climate change influences plant life cycles and dispersion. Many climate change research focus on plant phenology and range shifting. Climate determines plant distributions, but intra- and inter-specific interactions and local factors alter them. Plant ranges have shifted due to climate change. Climate affects plant flowering, leaf emergence, fruit maturation, and leaf falling.

Because invasive plant species expand faster into disturbed regions and compete more with native species under increased CO2 concentrations, climate change is likely to intensify their harmful impacts. Threatening forests, rangelands, and farms, invasive plants out compete native ones.

Darwin's finches' genetic variety in shape comes from interspecies hybridization to adapt to changing conditions. Hybridization boosts population adaptability and evolution. Initial adaption to multiple settings may simplify habitat adaptability in hybridizing animals. Plants may adapt to changing surroundings via phenotypic plasticity. High genetic variability helps natural populations adapt to climatic change. Some genetic variations affect a plant's capacity to sense environmental changes and react plasticly.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Anon Y & Kazui K (2007) Phenological data series of cherry tree flowering in Kyoto, Japan, and its application to reconstruction of springtime temperatures since the 9th century. International Journal of Climatology 28: 905–914.
- [2]. Bajpai O, Dutta V, Chaudhary LB & Pandey J (2018) Key issues and management strategies for the conservation of the Himalayan Terai forests of India. International Journal of Conservation Science 9(4): 749–760.
- [3]. Bajpai O, Dutta V, Singh R, Chaudhary LB & Pandey J (2020) Tree Community Assemblage and Abiotic Variables in Tropical Moist Deciduous Forest of Himalayan Terai Eco-Region. Proceedings of the National

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in DOI: 10.48175/568



963



International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 2, Issue 2, July 2022

Academy of Sciences, India Section B: Biological Sciences, Online available. [DOI: 10.1007/s40011-019-01161-2]

- [4]. Bajpai O, Kumar A, Mishra AK, Sahu N, Behera SK & Chaudhary LB (2012a) Phenological study of two dominant tree species in tropical moist deciduous forest from the northern India. International Journal of Botany 8(2): 66–72.
- [5]. Bajpai O, Kumar A, Mishra AK, Sahu N, Pandey J, Behera SK & Chaudhary LB (2012b). Recongregation of tree species of Katerniaghat Wildlife Sanctuary, Uttar Pradesh, India. Journal of Biodiversity and Environmental Sciences 2(12): 24–40.
- [6]. Bajpai O, Kushwaha AK, Srivastava AK, Pandey J & Chaudhary LB (2015). Phytosociological status of a monotypic genus Indopiptadenia: A Near Threatened Tree from the Terai-Bhabar Region of Central Himalaya. Research Journal of Forestry 9(2): 35–47.
- [7]. Bajpai O, Pandey J & Chaudhary LB (2017). Periodicity of different phenophases in selected trees from Himalayan Terai of India. Agroforestry Systems 91: 363–374.
- [8]. Beckage B, Osborne B & Gavin DG (2008) A rapid upward shift of a forest ecotone during 40 years of warming in the Green Mountains of Vermont. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA (PNAS) 105: 4197–4202.
- [9]. Both C & Visser ME (2001) Adjustment to climate change is constrained by arrival date in a long-distance migrant bird. Nature 411: 296–298.
- [10]. Bradley BA, Oppenheimer M & Wilcove DS (2009) Climate change and plant invasion: restoration opportunities ahead? Glob Change Biology 15: 1511–1521.
- [11]. Bruckschen P, Oesmann S & Veizer J (1999) Isotope stratigraphy of the European Carboniferous: proxy signals for ocean chemistry, climate and tectonics. Chemical Geology 161(3): 127–163.
- [12]. Chaturvedi RK & Raghubanshi AS (2014) Species Composition, Distribution and Diversity of Woody Species in tropical dry forest of India. Journal of Sustainable Forestry 33(8): 729–756.
- [13]. Chaturvedi RK & Raghubanshi AS (2016) Leaf life-span dynamics of woody species in tropical dry forests of India. Tropical Plant Research 3(1): 199–212.
- [14]. Chaturvedi RK, Raghubanshi AS & Singh JS (2011) Effect of small scale variations in environmental factors on the distribution of woody species in tropical deciduous forests of Vindhyan Highlands, India. Journal of Botany 2011: Article ID 297097 [DOI:10.1155/2011/297097]
- [15]. Chaturvedi RK, Raghubanshia AS & Singh JS (2012) Effect of grazing and harvesting on diversity, recruitment and carbon accumulation of juvenile trees in tropical dry forests. Forest Ecology and Management 284(2012): 152–162;
- [16]. Chaturvedi RK, Raghubanshia AS, Tomlinson KW & Singh JS (2017) Impacts of human disturbance in tropicaldry forestsincrease with soil moisture stress. Journal of Vegetation Science 28(5): 997–1007.
- [17]. Chen I-C, Hill JK, Ohlemüller R, Roy DB & Thomas CD (2011) Rapid range shifts of species associated with high levels of climate warming. Science 333: 1024–1026.
- [18]. Colautti RI, Alexander JM, Dlugosch KM, Keller SR & Sultan SE (2017) Invasions and extinctions through the looking glass of evolutionary ecology. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society Biological Science 372: 20160031. [DOI: 10.1098/rstb.2016.0031]
- [19]. Colwell RK, Brehm G, Cardelu CL, Gilman. AC & Longino JT (2008) Global warming, elevational rangeshifts, and lowland biotic attrition in the wet tropics. Science 322: 258–261.
- [20]. Dainese M, Kuhn I & Bragazza L (2014) Alien plant species distribution in the European Alps:influence of species" climatic requirements. Biological Invasions 16: 815–831.
- [21]. Doi H & Katano I (2007) Phenological timings of leaf budburst with climate change in Japan. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 148: 512–516.
- [22]. Donovan LA, Rosenthal DM, Sanchez-velenosi M., Rieseberg LH & Ludwig F (2010) Are hybrid species more fit than ancestral parent species in the current hybrid species habitats? Journal of Evolutionary Biology 23: 805–816.





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 2, Issue 2, July 2022

- [23]. Dukes JS & Mooney H.A (1999) Does global change increase the success of biological invaders? Trends in Ecology & Evolution 14: 135–139.
- [24]. Fei S, Desprez JM, Potter KM, Jo I, Knott JA & Oswalt CM (2017) Divergence of species responses to climate change. Science Advances 3: e1603055. [DOI: 10.1126/sciadv.1603055]
- [25]. Fitter AH & Fitter RSR (2002) Rapid changes in flowering time in British plants. Science 296: 1689–1691. Forest CE (1999) Paleoaltimetry incorporating atmospheric physics and botanical estimates of paleoclimate.

