1	Niche contractions in declining species: mechanisms and consequences
2	
3	Published: Trends in Ecology & Evolution, May 2017, Vol. 32, pp. 346-355. DOI:
4	http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2017.02.013
5	
6	
7	Ben C. Scheele ^{* a, b} , Claire N. Foster ^a , Sam C. Banks ^a , and David B. Lindenmayer ^{a, b}
8	
9	^a Fenner School of Environment and Society, Australian National University, Canberra,
10	Australia.
11	^b National Environmental Science Programme, Threatened Species Recovery Hub, Australia.
12	
13	Corresponding author: Scheele, B.C. (ben.scheele@anu.edu.au)
14	
15	Keywords:
16	Niche breadth, species decline, conservation management, endangered species
17	

19 Abstract

A fundamental aim of conservation biology is to understand how species respond to threatening processes, with much research effort focused on identifying threats and quantifying spatial and temporal patterns of species decline. Here, we argue that threats often reduce the realized niche breadth of declining species because environmental, biotic and evolutionary processes reduce or amplify threats, or because a species' capacity to tolerate threats varies across niche space. Our 'niche reduction hypothesis' provides a new lens for understanding why species decline in some locations and not others. This perspective can improve management of declining species by identifying where to focus resources and which interventions are most likely to be effective in a given environment.

41 *Patterns of species decline*

42 The earth is entering a sixth mass extinction event, with global change pushing thousands of 43 species towards extinction [1, 2]. The importance of understanding processes of species' decline 44 for responding to this extinction emergency has long been recognized [3-5]. However, research 45 on species declines generally focuses on investigating patterns of decline in geographical 46 distribution [6, 7] and numerical abundance, and identifying threats. This focus on decline in 47 range and population size is understandable given these parameters are often straightforward to 48 evaluate, and correlate with extinction risk [8]. Here, we argue that a complementary focus on 49 reductions in the realized niche breadth of species will be, in many cases, more informative for 50 understanding processes driving declines and developing conservation strategies than simply 51 focusing on geographic patterns.

52

53 The niche reduction hypothesis

The niche concept provides a powerful approach to studying environmental and biotic factors that constrain species' distributions [9, 10]. We propose the 'niche reduction hypothesis', whereby heterogeneity in threat impacts across environmental space can result in reductions in the realized niche breadth of declining species (Figure 1). Acknowledging ongoing debate around niche terminology [11], we describe our niche reduction hypothesis in the context of Hutchinson's fundamental and realized niches, with some modifications to incorporate more recent conceptual developments (see Glossary) [10, 12].

Much research on species' declines implicitly assumes that the impact of threats such as
climate change, land clearing, and introduced organisms is driven by the magnitude or
abundance of the threat [13, 14]. However, a growing body of research has demonstrated that

64 environmental conditions, biotic interactions, or disturbances can reduce or amplify the impacts 65 of threats on aspects of a species' ecology, or the capacity of a species to persist in the presence 66 of those impacts [15-18]. The resulting heterogeneity in threat impacts (and threat tolerance by 67 species) across environmental space can drive changes in species' niche breadth. For example, 68 threats such as non-random habitat loss [19] might eliminate species from lowland areas of their 69 niche, while other threats such as exotic predators, might exclude species from parts of their niche where low habitat complexity amplifies predation rates [15]. The niche reduction 70 71 hypothesis relates primarily to the realized niche, as a species' fundamental niche is genetically 72 and physiologically determined and can be altered only by evolutionary processes [12, 20]. 73 Importantly, the niche reduction hypothesis focuses on changes to niche breadth in 74 multidimensional environmental space, rather than changes in the location or extent of a species' 75 niche in geographic space (although changes in niche space and geographic space can be 76 related).

77 The niche reduction hypothesis provides a new lens of analysis that focuses on 78 contextualizing threats in terms of their impact on the realized niche breadth of species. This is 79 important because when a species' contracts from its pre-threat realized niche (historical niche), 80 to a narrower subset of environmental space (the contemporary niche), it can experience reduced 81 ability to tolerate other threats, as well as lowered adaptive capacity and genetic diversity [10]. 82 The niche reduction hypothesis brings together ecological and evolutionary processes that shape 83 species declines and has the potential to provide new insights into the mechanisms driving 84 species loss, and why species decline more severely or rapidly in some environments than others. 85 Our approach emphasizes diagnosis of processes that determine threat impacts, and species' 86 tolerance of threat impacts. This focus on processes can help determine what management

approaches are appropriate and where to prioritize management actions. Here, we outline threebroad categories of processes by which threat-driven niche reductions can occur.

89

90 Processes resulting in niche reduction

91 A. Heterogeneity in the occurrence or impacts of threats in environmental space

92 Environmental conditions can moderate the distribution of threats, or the severity of threat impacts, resulting in the contraction of a species' realized niche to a subset of the environmental 93 94 conditions occurring in its historical niche. We identify three subtly different mechanisms by 95 which this can occur: (i) environmental conditions limit threat distribution (threat absent); (ii) 96 environmental conditions reduce or amplify the severity of threat impacts; and (iii) geographic 97 barriers prevent threat occurrence in a subset of a species' range, potentially resulting in an 98 incidental reduction in realized niche breadth. Below, we describe and illustrate each process 99 with case studies.

100 Environmental conditions can limit threat distribution, resulting in contractions of species 101 to areas where the threat is absent and a corresponding reduction in realized niche breadth 102 (Environmental refugia, Figure 1A). For example, high elevation dry forests provide refuges for 103 many declining, native Hawaiian birds from an introduced threat, avian malaria [21, 22]. Malaria 104 causes severe mortality at low and intermediate elevations, which excludes many bird species 105 from resource-rich, lowland, wet forest. The mosquito vector crucial for malaria transmission is 106 currently absent at high elevations, allowing birds to persist [21, 23]. Another example is the 107 widespread clearing of lowland vegetation for agriculture, causing species, such as the 108 Bougainville monkey-faced bat (*Pteralopex anceps*) in Papua New Guinea, to be unable to

109 occupy lowland rainforests (because they no longer exist) and resulting in a contraction of the110 species' realized niche to high elevation moss forests [24].

111 Environmental conditions can reduce or amplify the severity of threat impacts, allowing 112 species to coexist with threats or excluding them from areas with high threat impact, respectively 113 (Threat reduction and threat amplification, Figure 1A). When threat reduction or amplification 114 occurs in only part of a species' realized niche, its niche breadth can be reduced. For example, 115 the spread of introduced brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) has contributed to the decline of 116 endangered bull trout (Salvelinus confluentus) through competition and hybridization [25]. 117 However, while brook trout can occur throughout the bull trout niche, they have a higher thermal 118 optimum than bull trout. Unfavourable thermal conditions for brook trout in high elevation 119 headwater streams reduce their competitive advantage and the incidence of hybridization [25]. 120 Thus, bull trout have contracted to high elevation areas where they are competitively superior. 121 Another example of threat reduction is reduced pathogen impacts in environments 122 unfavourable for the pathogen. For instance, the emergence of chestnut blight (Cryphonectria 123 *parasitica*) has resulted in the contraction of the American chestnut (*Castanea dentate*) to dry, 124 high disturbance areas where disease impact is reduced. This represents a major reduction in the 125 realized niche breadth of the American chestnut [26]. This example, and others (e.g. white nose 126 syndrome in bats [27, 28]), highlight how the emergence of new biotic interactions can reshape 127 the contemporary niche of impacted species; restricting them to areas where threat impact is 128 environmentally reduced.

Interactions between several co-occurring threats, or threats and environmental
conditions, can amplify the severity of threat impacts in certain parts of a species' realized niche,
thus removing the corresponding set of environmental conditions from the contemporary niche.

132 There is growing recognition that complex interactions between anthropogenic disturbances and 133 threatening processes drive species declines [15, 16, 29]. For example, the noisy miner 134 (Manorina melanocephala), a native, disturbance-tolerant honeyeater, has increased in 135 abundance in degraded woodlands in Australia, leading to frequent aggressive interactions with 136 sympatric bird species that can result in local extirpation [30]. Importantly, in high quality 137 woodland or areas with densely planted revegetation, noisy miners are less abundant, and have minimal impact on bird community structure [31, 32]. Thus, vulnerable bird species are excluded 138 139 only from areas of their historical niche where they are subject to both habitat degradation and 140 negative interactions with noisy miners, but are capable of persisting with each threat in 141 isolation.

142 Finally, geographic refugia (Figure 1A) also can enable persistence of declining species 143 in areas where threatening processes are absent. Geographic refugia can occur when barriers 144 restrict threat distribution, resulting in incomplete overlap with the distributional extent of an 145 impacted species. For example, nearshore islands often provide refuges for species extirpated 146 from adjacent mainland regions by introduced predators [6], such as the contraction of little 147 spotted kiwis (Apteryx owenii) in New Zealand to offshore islands where introduced mammalian 148 predators are absent [33]. Although resulting from geographic, rather than environmental 149 barriers, this can lead to an incidental reduction in niche breadth when only a proportion of the 150 species' historical niche is represented in the refugia.

151

152 B. Heterogeneity in species' tolerance of threat impacts in environmental space

A species' capacity to tolerate a given magnitude of threat impact can vary across its niche space(in response to environmental conditions), driving a reduction in realized niche breadth. Here, we

155 use the term 'threat impact' to describe the effects of a threat on the vital rates (e.g. mortality) of 156 a species. Threat tolerance is the ability of a species to persist despite a given threat impact. For 157 example, the capacity of Australian alpine tree frog (*Litoria verreauxii alpina*) populations to 158 tolerate mortality associated with chytrid fungus (Box 1) is dependent on environmental 159 conditions [34]. High disease impact in adults truncates age structure, resulting in the loss of 160 long-lived adults capable of reproducing across multiple years. Prior to disease emergence, 161 iteroparity buffered populations in ephemeral wetlands from periodic recruitment failure due to 162 drought [34]. Reduced capacity to tolerate recruitment failure has resulted in this species 163 contracting to drought-proof perennial wetlands; representing a major reduction in realized niche 164 breadth [34].

165 More broadly, variation in individual or population growth rates in response to 166 environmental conditions can determine whether threats cause population declines. For example, 167 when environmental conditions are conducive to high adult survival or high reproductive rates, 168 populations have a greater capacity to tolerate threat impacts. In contrast, populations exposed to 169 threats in marginal environments can have limited capacity to tolerate threat impact [35]. For 170 example, ectotherms occupying high elevation habitats are characterized by slower growth rates 171 and longer times to reach reproductive maturity, compared to those living in lowlands [35]. High 172 elevation populations are therefore less able to tolerate a given level of adult mortality compared 173 to lower elevation populations, resulting in the same level of threat impact causing 174 disproportionate declines in populations in high elevation habitats [36]. Variability in a species' 175 capacity to tolerate relatively uniform threat impacts can result in contraction of the 176 contemporary realized niche to optimal habitat [6], with parts of the historical niche either 177 unoccupied, or acting as 'sinks' for individuals dispersing from optimal habitat.

179 C. Evolutionary shifts

180 Emerging threats also have the potential to drive evolutionary changes in impacted species,

affecting both realized and fundamental niches (Evolutionary shifts, Figure 1C) [20].

182 Evolutionary responses can allow species to re-expand into their historical niche, after an initial 183 decline, when such responses either reduce the severity of threat impacts or increase the species' 184 capacity to tolerate those impacts. For example, there is evidence that an evolutionary response 185 in the bird, the Hawaii amakihi (*Hemignathus virens*), is facilitating re-expansion into low 186 elevation parts of its historical niche where it experienced severe declines associated with the 187 emergence of avian malaria [22, 23]. Similarly, evolutionary shifts, such as morphological 188 adaptions to urban environments, can increase species' capacity to exploit novel environments 189 [37], potentially facilitating an expansion in fundamental niche breadth.

190 Although the examples above demonstrate the capacity for evolutionary responses to 191 partially overcome niche contractions, the processes by which threats reduce realized niche 192 breadth also can reduce genetic diversity in declining species. This can potentially limit capacity 193 for re-expansion or evolutionary responses. Local adaptation to environmental conditions has 194 been demonstrated in a wide variety of species [38], and an increasing number of studies have 195 documented associations between genetic diversity and local adaptation [39, 40]. Therefore, loss 196 of realized niche breadth is likely to be associated with loss of adaptive genetic diversity [41]. 197 This might constrain evolutionary responses to future environmental change and the capacity of 198 a species to shift outside its contemporary niche [10]. This has practical relevance because 199 conservation strategies that focus on evolutionary processes (e.g. climate-adjusted provenancing

[42] and other assisted migration strategies [43]) depend on the presence of environmentally-adaptive genetic diversity.

202

203 Applying the niche reduction hypothesis to improve conservation outcomes

In the following sections, we outline how recognizing changes in a species' realized niche can
help parameterize the operating space for conservation actions. We highlight the differences
between, and opportunities presented by, managing for conservation within the contemporary
niche versus managing in the historical niche.

208

209 Recognizing reductions in realized niche breadth

210 An important first step in applying the niche reduction hypothesis to species conservation is 211 recognizing that the potential operating space for conservation interventions can be much 212 broader or narrower than the current understanding of a species' realized niche. For long-213 declined species, limited knowledge of the historical niche can lead to an overly narrow 214 understanding of the species' potential or optimal niche space [44]. For example, the last known 215 populations of the takahe (Porphyrio hochstetteri) occurred in sub-alpine grasslands, and this 216 was assumed to represent preferred habitat for this bird in New Zealand [45]. However, subfossil 217 and genetic evidence indicates that the species was historically widespread across a diverse range 218 of lowland environments and subsequent introductions to lowland islands have been successful 219 [46]. Without good historical knowledge, management actions can unnecessarily be restricted to 220 the species' contemporary niche [44], where capacity for conservation gains might be more 221 limited than in the historical niche (Figure 2). Conversely, for recently-declined species,

estimates of habitat requirements and demographic parameters that were attained prior to decline can poorly reflect the current characteristics of the species (particularly if the niche contraction has resulted in a loss of genetic diversity). Finally, awareness of the potential for time-lagged extinction debts is important [47]. When extinction debts are in action, the current distribution of a declined species might be much broader than the contemporary niche (in which populations of the species are viable). For example, following a contraction in niche breadth, a long-lived plant species might survive, but no longer reproduce in a given portion of its historical niche [e.g. 48].

230 Conservation in the contemporary realized niche

Focusing conservation efforts in the contemporary niche of a declined species is important whenstrategies to reduce or eliminate threat impacts are not feasible in the historical niche.

233 Conservation efforts in the contemporary niche are often focused on increasing the geographic 234 extent of the contemporary niche (e.g. through translocation to unoccupied areas, or creation of 235 new areas that correspond to the contemporary niche conditions). Efforts can also focus on 236 identifying what characteristics of the contemporary niche allow species persistence and 237 designing actions to maintain and improve them. For example, alpine tree frogs have been 238 extirpated from ephemeral wetlands by disease and persist only in perennial wetlands [34]. As 239 pathogen eradication or disease prevention in the historical niche is not feasible [49], a practical 240 conservation option is to create additional perennial wetlands to increase the extent of the 241 species' contemporary niche.

While environmental reduction of threat impacts can underpin species persistence in the contemporary niche, it is important to recognize that threat reduction might occur in areas that are otherwise sub-optimal for the species. For example, areas with structurally complex 245 vegetation that allow many small Australian mammal species to persist in the presence of 246 introduced predators, have been perceived as preferred habitat for such species [44, 50]. 247 However, these areas can lack important resources (e.g. preferred food), and encompass only a 248 small proportion of the species historical niche space [29, 44, 50]. Thus, conservation efforts 249 focused on trying to eliminate or reduce threat impact in such habitats might be ineffective 250 because resources, rather than predation, might constrain population abundance. Instead, 251 conservation efforts could focus on environmental management to increase resource availability 252 within complex habitats, or increase habitat complexity in areas adjacent to where the species 253 has persisted to allow re-expansion into more productive environments [15, 51, 52] (Figure 2). 254

255 Conservation in the historical niche

256 Many conservation actions fall into the category of management of the constraints on the 257 contemporary niche (allowing reoccupation of the historical niche) by targeting the threat 258 directly, or the environmental conditions or interactions underpinning the impact of the threat 259 (sections A and B above). For example, in arid Australia, many native species are endangered by 260 exotic cat and fox predation. Significant resources have been concentrated on predator control 261 [53], with many local successes when used in conjunction predator exclosure fencing [54]. 262 However, under certain conditions, a more effective way to mitigate this threat could be through 263 control of invasive rabbits (Oryctolagus cuniculus); a species that inflates exotic predator 264 abundance, and reduces vegetation cover, amplifying predation on native species [55]. Indeed, 265 biological control of rabbits has been associated with reduced exotic predator abundance and 266 subsequent recovery of endangered species [55].

267 Reintroductions and assisted colonization can be used to establish populations of a 268 declining species in parts of its historical niche or unoccupied parts of its fundamental niche, 269 respectively. However, reintroductions into the historical niche are likely to fail if the species has 270 experienced a reduction in realized niche breadth, and the threat has not been mitigated. While 271 direct threat mitigation is sometimes possible, in many cases, a complementary focus on 272 identifying recipient sites where environmental conditions reduce threat impact, or managing sites to actively increase environmental threat reduction (e.g. re-creating important 273 274 characteristics of the contemporary niche within the historical niche), might be more effective 275 (Figure 2). When threat eradication or reduction is not possible, assisted colonization to 276 unoccupied geographic refugia, such as offshore islands within the species fundamental niche, is 277 an option [56]. When identifying recipient islands or locations for other intensive threat 278 mitigation activities (e.g. predator-proof fencing), it is important to consider the species' 279 fundamental niche requirements, rather than trying to match sites to those where the last remnant 280 populations persist, which might poorly represent the historical niche breadth of the species. 281

282 Concluding remarks

Understanding how threatening processes impact declining species is a central focus of
conservation biology. Similarly, the niche concept is an enduring paradigm in ecology. Yet
integration of these two ideas in the context of declining species has received limited attention.
We argue that species' declines are commonly associated with reductions in realized niche
breadth. These niche contractions are underpinned by heterogeneity in the occurrence or impacts
of threats, or variation in species' capacity to tolerate threat impacts across environmental space.
In an era of mass biodiversity loss, understanding how threats shape the realized niche of

declining species can assist the development of new management responses and identify whereto prioritize conservation actions.

292

293 Acknowledgements

294 Constructive feedback from Joern Fischer, David Hunter, Sarah Legge, John Woinarski, and two

anonymous reviewers greatly improved the manuscript. Clive Hilliker helped with figures. This

study was supported by funding from the Australian Government's National Environmental

297 Science Programme through the Threatened Species Recovery Hub.

2	n	n
2	Э	Э

300 **References**

- 301 1. Ceballos, G. et al. (2015) Accelerated modern human-induced species losses: Entering the
- 302 sixth mass extinction. Science Advances 1, e1400253.
- 303 2. Barnosky, A.D. et al. (2011) Has the Earth's sixth mass extinction already arrived? Nature
 304 471, 51-57.
- 305 3. Dirzo, R. et al. (2014) Defaunation in the Anthropocene. Science 345, 401-406.
- 4. Pimm, S.L. et al. (1988) On the risk of extinction. Am Nat, 757-785.
- 307 5. Caughley, G. (1994) Directions in conservation biology. J Anim Ecol, 215-244.
- 308 6. Channell, R. and Lomolino, M.V. (2000) Dynamic biogeography and conservation of
- 309 endangered species. Nature 403, 84-86.
- 310 7. Sagarin, R.D. et al. (2006) Moving beyond assumptions to understand abundance distributions
- across the ranges of species. Trends Ecol Evol 21, 524-530.
- 8. Purvis, A. et al. (2000) Predicting extinction risk in declining species. Proc R Soc Lond, Ser
- **313** B: Biol Sci 267, 1947-1952.
- 314 9. Soberón, J. (2007) Grinnellian and Eltonian niches and geographic distributions of species.
- 315 Ecol Lett 10, 1115-1123.
- 316 10. Holt, R.D. (2009) Bringing the Hutchinsonian niche into the 21st century: ecological and
- evolutionary perspectives. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 106, 19659-19665.

- 318 11. McInerny, G.J. and Etienne, R.S. (2012) Stitch the niche–a practical philosophy and visual
 319 schematic for the niche concept. J Biogeogr 39, 2103-2111.
- 12. Hutchinson, G.E. (1957) Population studies animal ecology and demography concluding
 remarks. Cold Spring Harb. Symp. Quant. Biol. 22, 415–427.
- 322 13. Tulloch, V.J. et al. (2015) Why do we map threats? Linking threat mapping with actions to
- 323 make better conservation decisions. Front Ecol Environ 13, 91-99.
- 14. Coll, M. et al. (2012) The Mediterranean Sea under siege: spatial overlap between marine
- biodiversity, cumulative threats and marine reserves. Global Ecol Biogeogr 21, 465-480.
- 326 15. Doherty, T.S. et al. (2015) Multiple threats, or multiplying the threats? Interactions between
- invasive predators and other ecological disturbances. Biol Conserv 190, 60-68.
- 328 16. Didham, R.K. et al. (2007) Interactive effects of habitat modification and species invasion on
- ative species decline. Trends Ecol Evol 22, 489-496.
- 330 17. Brook, B.W. et al. (2008) Synergies among extinction drivers under global change. Trends
 331 Ecol Evol 23, 453-460.
- 18. Foster, C.N. et al. (2016) Integrating theory into disturbance interaction experiments to better
 inform ecosystem management. Global Change Biol 22, 1325-1335.
- 19. Simmonds, J.S. et al. (2017) Non-random patterns of vegetation clearing and potential biases
- in studies of habitat area effects. Landscape Ecol (in press), DOI: 10.1007/s10980-016-0482-7.

20. Pearman, P.B. et al. (2008) Niche dynamics in space and time. Trends Ecol Evol 23, 149-158.

21. van Riper, C. et al. (1986) The epizootiology and ecological significance of malaria in
Hawaiian land birds. Ecol Monogr 56, 327-344.

340 22. Atkinson, C.T. et al. (2013) Experimental evidence for evolved tolerance to avian malaria in
a wild population of low elevation Hawaii Amakihi (*Hemignathus virens*). EcoHealth 10, 366342 375.

343 23. Woodworth, B.L. et al. (2005) Host population persistence in the face of introduced vector-

borne diseases: Hawaii amakihi and avian malaria. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 102, 1531-1536.

345 24. Fisher, D.O. (2011) Trajectories from extinction: where are missing mammals rediscovered?
346 Global Ecol Biogeogr 20, 415-425.

347 25. Rieman, B.E. et al. (2006) Have brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) displaced bull trout

348 (*Salvelinus confluentus*) along longitudinal gradients in central Idaho streams? Can J Fish Aquat
349 Sci 63, 63-78.

26. Burke, K.L. (2012) Niche contraction of American chestnut in response to chestnut blight.
Can. J. For. Res. 42, 614-620.

27. Flory, A.R. et al. (2012) Environmental conditions associated with bat white-nose syndrome
mortality in the north-eastern United States. J Appl Ecol 49, 680-689.

28. Langwig, K.E. et al. (2012) Sociality, density-dependence and microclimates determine the
persistence of populations suffering from a novel fungal disease, white-nose syndrome. Ecol Lett
15, 1050-1057.

357 29. Hernandez-Santin, L. et al. (2016) Introduced predators and habitat structure influence range
358 contraction of an endangered native predator, the northern quoll. Biol Conserv 203, 160-167.

30. Maron, M. et al. (2013) Avifaunal disarray due to a single despotic species. Divers Distrib
19, 1468-1479.

361 31. Montague-Drake, R.M. et al. (2011) A reverse keystone species affects the landscape

362 distribution of woodland avifauna: a case study using the Noisy Miner (Manorina

363 *melanocephala*) and other Australian birds. Landscape Ecol 26, 1383-1394.

364 32. Lindenmayer, D. et al. (2010) What makes an effective restoration planting for woodland365 birds? Biol Conserv 143, 289-301.

366 33. Ramstad, K.M. et al. (2013) Genetic consequences of a century of protection: serial founder
367 events and survival of the little spotted kiwi (*Apteryx owenii*). Proc R Soc Lond, Ser B: Biol Sci
368 280, 20130576.

369 34. Scheele, B.C. et al. (2016) High adult mortality in disease-challenged frog populations

increases vulnerability to drought. J Anim Ecol 85, 1453-1460.

371 35. Morrison, C. and Hero, J.M. (2003) Geographic variation in life-history characteristics of
372 amphibians: a review. J Anim Ecol 72, 270-279.

- 36. Muths, E. et al. (2011) Compensatory effects of recruitment and survival when amphibian
 populations are perturbed by disease. J Appl Ecol 48, 873-879.
- 375 37. Winchell, K.M. et al. (2016) Phenotypic shifts in urban areas in the tropical lizard *Anolis*376 *cristatellus*. Evolution 70, 1009-1022.
- 377 38. Savolainen, O. et al. (2013) Ecological genomics of local adaptation. Nat Rev Genet 14, 807378 820.
- 379 39. Jones, F.C. et al. (2012) The genomic basis of adaptive evolution in threespine sticklebacks.
 380 Nature 484, 55-61.
- 40. Crandall, K.A. et al. (2000) Considering evolutionary processes in conservation biology.
 Trends Ecol Evol 15, 290-295.
- 383 41. Joost, S. et al. (2007) A spatial analysis method (SAM) to detect candidate loci for selection:
- towards a landscape genomics approach to adaptation. Mol Ecol 16, 3955-3969.
- 385 42. Prober, S.M. et al. (2015) Climate-adjusted provenancing: a strategy for climate-resilient
- ecological restoration. Front. Ecol. Evol. 3, 65.
- 43. Sgro, C.M. et al. (2011) Building evolutionary resilience for conserving biodiversity under
- 388 climate change. Evol. Appl. 4, 326-337.
- 389 44. Bilney, R.J. (2014) Poor historical data drive conservation complacency: The case of
- 390 mammal decline in south eastern Australian forests. Austral Ecol 39, 875-886.

- 45. Mills, J.A. et al. (1984) The takahe—a relict of the Pleistocene grassland avifauna of New
 Zealand. N Z J Ecol, 57-70.
- 46. Grueber, C.E. and Jamieson, I.G. (2011) Low genetic diversity and small population size of
 Takahe *Porphyrio hochstetteri* on European arrival in New Zealand. Ibis 153, 384-394.
- 47. Hylander, K. and Ehrlén, J. (2013) The mechanisms causing extinction debts. Trends Ecol
 Evol 28, 341-346.
- 48. Colling, G. et al. (2002) Population structure and establishment of the threatened long lived
- 398 perennial *Scorzonera humilis* in relation to environment. J Appl Ecol 39, 310-320.
- 49. Scheele, B.C. et al. (2014) Interventions for reducing extinction risk in chytridiomycosis-
- 400 threatened amphibians. Conserv Biol 28, 1195–1205.
- 401 50. Kinnear, J. et al. (2002) The red fox in Australia—an exotic predator turned biocontrol agent.
 402 Biol Conserv 108, 335-359.
- 403 51. Doherty, T.S. and Ritchie, E.G. (2016) Stop jumping the gun: A call for evidence based
- 404 invasive predator management. Conserv. Lett., doi: 10.1111/conl.12251.
- 405 52. Leahy, L. et al. (2016) Amplified predation after fire suppresses rodent populations in
- 406 Australia's tropical savannas. Wildl Res 42, 705-716.
- 407 53. Woinarski, J.C. et al. (2015) Ongoing unraveling of a continental fauna: Decline and
- 408 extinction of Australian mammals since European settlement. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 112,
- 409 4531-4540.

- 410 54. Hayward, M.W. et al. (2014) The role of predator exclosures in the conservation of
- 411 Australian fauna. Carnivores of Australia: past, present and future (Glen, A. and Dickman, C.
- 412 eds), pp. 353-371, CSIRO Publishing.
- 413 55. Pedler, R.D. et al. (2016) Rabbit biocontrol and landscape scale recovery of threatened
- 414 desert mammals. Conserv Biol 30, 774-782.
- 415 56. Woinarski, J. et al. (2014) Action plan for Australian mammals 2012, CSIRO Publishing.
- 416 57. Puschendorf, R. et al. (2011) Environmental refuge from disease-driven amphibian
- 417 extinction. Conserv Biol 25, 956-964.
- 418 58. Stockwell, M.P. et al. (2015) Island provides a pathogen refuge within climatically suitable
- 419 area. Biodivers Conserv 24, 2583-2592.
- 420 59. Knapp, R.A. et al. (2016) Large-scale recovery of an endangered amphibian despite ongoing
- 421 exposure to multiple stressors. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 113, 11889-11894.

425 Box 1. Reduced niche breadth in amphibians impacted by disease.

426 The global emergence of chytrid fungus (*Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*) – a pathogen that 427 infects over 600 amphibian species worldwide – provides an example of the different processes by which a single threat can reduce the realized niche breadth of different species. A. 428 429 Heterogeneity in the occurrence or impacts of threats in environmental space: Chytrid 430 fungus growth is dependent on favourable environmental conditions; areas with sub-optimal 431 temperatures and humidity provide refugia for frogs, where the pathogen is present, but infection 432 intensity (and hence mortality) is reduced. Species such as the armoured mistfrog (*Litoria lorica*) 433 (Figure I A), have been extirpated from closed canopy rainforest sites and now persist only in 434 open savanna sites that are sub-optimal for the fungus [57]. Heterogeneity in threats in 435 geographic space can also result in incidental reduction in niche breadth in environmental space, 436 when species contract to areas (and the corresponding set of environmental conditions) where the 437 threat is absent (Geographic refugia). Chytrid fungus remains absent from some islands adjacent 438 to infected mainland regions. Isolated, uninfected islands can act as geographic refugia for 439 amphibian species that are extinct or highly threatened on adjacent mainlands, such as the green 440 and golden bell frog (*Litoria aurea*) (Figure I B) [58]. B. Heterogeneity in species' tolerance of 441 threat impacts in environmental space: A species' capacity for demographic buffering of 442 chytrid-induced mortality can be influenced by environmental conditions. For example, high 443 recruitment in boreal toad (Bufo boreas) (Figure I C) populations at low elevations appears to 444 offset adult mortality associated with chytrid, while populations at high elevations – on the edge 445 of the species' environmental limits – have limited capacity for compensatory recruitment and 446 are more vulnerable to decline [36]. C. Evolutionary shifts: Some species that were initially highly susceptible to chytrid fungus appear to be evolving resistance to the pathogen. An 447

example is the endangered Sierra Nevada yellow legged frog (Rana sierrae) (Figure I D), which 448 449 has experienced sustained recovery despite ongoing pathogen presence [59], potentially allowing 450 the species to reoccupy parts of its niche after major declines. Applying the niche reduction 451 hypothesis to improve conservation outcomes: Recognizing chytrid-associated reductions in 452 realized niche breadth has been crucial to the development of innovative management solutions, 453 including assisted colonization to environmental refugia within species fundamental, but not 454 historically occupied niche, habitat manipulation to decrease environmental suitability for 455 chytrid, and increasing population capacity for demographic buffering [49].



456

- 457 Photo credits as follows: (A) Conrad Hoskin, used with permission; (B) Michael McFadden,
- 458 used with permission; (C) from <u>http://www.biologicaldiversity.org</u>, photo by Devin Edmonds of
- 459 the United States Geological Survey; (D) from <u>http://www.biologicaldiversity.org</u>, photo by
- 460 Chris Brown of the United States Geological Survey.

462	Glossary
463	Contemporary niche: the realized niche occupied by a species following a reduction in niche
464	breadth associated with threat impact.
465	
466	Environmental refuge: a geographic location which corresponds to a set of environmental
467	conditions where a threat cannot occur, and is within the fundamental niche of a declined species
468	of interest.
469	
470	Fundamental niche: the multidimensional environmental space under which a species could
471	potentially persist and reproduce, in the absence of limiting biotic interactions and dispersal
472	barriers. The fundamental niche is genetically and physiologically determined.
473	
474	Geographic refuge: a geographic location where a threat is currently absent (e.g. due to
475	dispersal barriers), but could potentially occur in the future, and that is within the fundamental
476	niche of a declined species of interest.
477	
478	Geographic distribution: the spatial extent of a species' distribution; analogous to area of
479	occupancy.
480	
481	Historical niche: the realized niche space occupied by a species prior to decline.
482	
483	Niche breadth: the range of environmental conditions encompassed in a species' realized niche.
484	

485	Niche reduction: a decrease in the realized niche breadth of a declining species associated with
486	threat impact.
487	
488	Range contraction: a spatial reduction in a species range. Commonly, but not always associated
489	with a coincident reduction in realized niche breadth.
490	
491	Realized niche: the multidimensional environmental space that a species occupies and maintains
492	positive population growth. It is a product of a species' environmental tolerances, biotic
493	interactions (both inter and intra-specific) and dispersal barriers. The realized niche can be
494	spatially and temporally variable, and for some species, population growth can be dependent on
495	the structure of this variability.
496	
497	Reintroduction: the assisted establishment of a species within part of its historical niche where
498	it has been extirpated.
499	
500	Assisted colonization: the assisted establishment of a species within its fundamental niche, but
501	outside its historical niche space.
502	
503	Threat: a biotic or biophysical process that threatens the survival, abundance or evolutionary
504	development of a species.
505	
506	Threat impact: the effect of a threat on a certain aspect of a species' ecology. For example,
507	reduced adult survival.

509 Threat tolerance: a species' capacity to persist given a certain level of threat impact. Capacity
510 to tolerate threat impact can vary between populations of the same species depending on
511 extrinsic and intrinsic factors of that portion of the niche. For example, differences in resource
512 availability between populations can affect reproductive rates, and thus a population's capacity
513 to tolerate a given level of adult mortality.
514



A. Threat distribution or impact is heterogeneous in environmental space

B. Impacted species' tolerance of the threat is heterogeneous in environmental space



C. The threat triggers an evolutionary response in the impacted species





517 Figure 1. Model of how environmentally heterogeneous threat impacts and heterogeneous

518 responses of impacted species can alter realized niche breadth in declining species.

519 Heterogeneity in species declines in environmental space can occur through three main

520 mechanisms: (A) heterogeneity in the occurrence or impacts of threats in environmental space,

- 521 which results in the impacted species contracting to parts of its niche where the threat is absent
- 522 or has low-impact; (B) the impacted species' intrinsic capacity to tolerate threat impacts is

523	heterogeneous in environmental space, so the species contracts to parts of its niche with high
524	intrinsic tolerance (e.g. high reproductive rate), and (C) after exposure to a threat, evolutionary
525	responses in the impacted species might allow it to either re-occupy parts of its historical niche,
526	or expand/shift its fundamental niche (and contemporary niche) into new environmental space.
527	These processes can act individually, or in concert to generate differences between the historical
528	and contemporary niches of a declining species, and this difference we refer to as reduced niche
529	breadth.



532 Figure 2. Using the niche reduction hypothesis to inform conservation actions.

533 Where it is feasible to control or mitigate the impacts of a threat, then management within the 534 historical niche, such as threat control and subsequent reintroduction, can have the greatest 535 potential conservation gains. However, when threat control is not achievable, management within the contemporary niche to increase the abundance, expand the geographic extent (e.g. 536 537 through habitat creation or translocation to environmentally similar but previously unoccupied 538 areas) or improve the temporal stability of populations can be most beneficial. It might also be 539 possible to work at the boundaries of the contemporary niche, using habitat manipulation, or 540 managing interacting processes, to allow a species to re-expand into its historical niche. Finally, 541 assisted colonization to create insurance populations in areas outside the realized niche (but 542 within the fundamental niche), where the threat is absent or has low impact, might be useful to 543 ensure the survival of highly threatened species.