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3 **Matters Arising**

4 **Why spatial scale matters in predicting synchrony of ecological disruption**

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6 **Arising from:** C. Trisos et al. *Nature* **580**, 496–501, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2189-9> (2020).

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12 In this provocative study<sup>1</sup>, Trisos, Merow, and Pigot offer alarming predictions of “sudden and  
13 devastating effects on local biodiversity and ecosystem services” from the nearly simultaneous  
14 exposure of “local assemblages” to “climate conditions beyond their realized niche limits.” The  
15 headline claim is the abruptness and synchrony of effects on these species assemblages. Without  
16 any doubt, the fate of species and habitats under ongoing climate change is genuine and urgent<sup>2</sup>,  
17 with serious consequences for ecosystems and human well-being<sup>3</sup>, and nothing I say here should  
18 be interpreted to the contrary. But I suggest that both the synchrony of exposure of co-occurring  
19 species to intolerable climate regimes and the consequent synchrony and spatial extent of  
20 sudden, devastating effects—as envisioned in this study—may be overestimated.

21 **Spatial scale of climate and biogeography**

22 The most salient problems with this study arise from the coarse spatial resolution of the  
23 analysis—uniformly 100 km x 100 km, on land and sea. This grid is used to map modeled

24 historical and future climatic regimes (homogeneously, within each map cell) and to map the  
25 current geographical range of each of the more than 30,000 terrestrial and marine species in the  
26 study. The tolerance limits of each species' realized thermal niche are then defined as the  
27 extremes of mean annual temperature (sea surface temperature, for marine map cells), over 155  
28 years (1850–2005) of modelled historical climate records, reached anywhere within the set of  
29 100 x 100 km map cells that define that species' current distribution. (The authors also  
30 considered precipitation, for terrestrial map cells, but focused on temperature, as I will do here.)

31         When the projected future temperature in a given map cell first exceeds the estimated  
32 upper (or lower) tolerance limits of a species mapped into that cell, that species is declared  
33 “exposed” to unprecedented climatic conditions and is added to the cumulative “horizon profile”  
34 for the assemblage. A map-cell assemblage is designated “at risk of abrupt ecological disruption”  
35 when at least 20% of the species currently mapping in that cell “are projected to undergo  
36 exposure to unprecedented temperatures within the same decade.” The authors state that they do  
37 not assume that local extinction (absence from a map cell) is the inevitable consequence of local  
38 exposure, but instead, that “evidence for the ability of species to persist in the wild is largely  
39 absent” once niche limits are exceeded in a map cell. The practical difference seems elusive.

40         Just how coarse is this spatial scale, in biological and climatic terms? Consider the  
41 biodiverse country of Costa Rica. It is little more than 100 km from the Caribbean coast to the  
42 Pacific, as the toucan flies, traversing complex climatic gradients and distinct ecosystems up to  
43 3000 m elevation, each with its characteristically distinct biota (Fig. 1), including many endemic  
44 species with narrow, disjunct elevational ranges (Fig. 2). A single 100 km x 100 km map cell  
45 encompasses ecosystems ranging from mangroves and coastal forest, to lowland rainforest,

46 seasonal dry forest, cloud forest, and treeless alpine paramo (Fig. 1). The entire country could be  
47 encompassed by just 5 such map cells.

48 For a marine equivalent, I suggest a 100 x 100 km map cell with its NW corner on Lady  
49 Elliot Island, at the southern end of the Great Barrier Reef, a cell that would encompass near-  
50 shore shallows, coral reef flat, reef face, and continental shelf marine habitats, with depths down  
51 to 3000 m in the Fraser Canyons (Fig. 3). But even topographically relatively homogeneous  
52 regions of the open oceans have strong vertical temperature gradients, inhabited by different  
53 communities at different depths<sup>4</sup>, and open-ocean pelagic systems cover ~50% of the planet  
54 surface and occupy 99% of the volume of the biosphere<sup>5</sup>. Unlike terrestrial regions with little  
55 topographic complexity (e.g. Saskatchewan prairies or the Amazon), in which mean annual  
56 temperature can be reasonably treated as a spatially homogeneous condition, temperatures at the  
57 sea surface poorly reflect those 100s or 1000s of metres deep, and warming in the deep ocean is  
58 much less than at the surface<sup>6</sup>.

59 Treating all the species in a 100 km x 100 km areas such as those shown in Figs. 1 and 3  
60 as a “co-occurring assemblage” (even for a major group, such as amphibians or marine fishes)  
61 makes neither ecological nor biogeographical sense. Thus, predictions of “ecological disruption,”  
62 with the functional implications of that term (“...sudden and devastating effects on local  
63 biodiversity and ecosystem services”<sup>1</sup>), may be painted with far too broad a brush for  
64 topographically complex, terrestrial or marine regions—and even for the open ocean, with its  
65 strong vertical temperature stratification<sup>7</sup>.

66 For the purposes of the Trisos et al. study<sup>1</sup>, such a coarse scale may well be adequate for  
67 flat, climatically homogeneous terrestrial regions or oligotrophic ocean gyres, which tend to have  
68 homogeneous biotas because of shared range limits<sup>8</sup>. But the same coarse scale fails to capture

69 the more varied fates of terrestrial species that inhabit topographically and climatically rugged  
70 regions (Figs. 1 and 2), coastal bottom-dwelling fish (Fig. 3), or pelagic species that inhabit  
71 thermal fronts or seamounts<sup>9</sup>.

72 Yet mountains<sup>10,11</sup> and complex marine habitats<sup>9</sup> host a remarkable number of species,  
73 disproportionate to their area. The authors' rationale for using such a coarse scale—to avoid  
74 "incurring false presences" in smaller map cells, arising from inaccurate range maps and patchy  
75 distributions<sup>12</sup>—paradoxically creates more false than real presences for narrow-ranged species  
76 on steep climatic gradients on land, misleadingly joining species with largely or even entirely  
77 disjunct ranges (Fig. 2) into supposed "assemblages"—a term that normally implies co-  
78 occurrence in space and time<sup>13</sup>. In the sea, the same approach likewise unites all species in a map  
79 cell, regardless of depth ranges, habitat preference, and differences in temperature tolerances.

## 80 **Spatial scale and synchrony of exposure**

81 What are the dynamic consequences of modeling niches and exposure to the risk of local  
82 extinction in topographically varied regions under warming climates, on such a coarse  
83 geographic scale? As the modeled climate warms, in lock-step for all species with distributions  
84 mapping in a single cell, the temperature of each 100 x 100 km cell is assumed spatially uniform.  
85 However, in the real world many such cells are spatially heterogeneous, encompassing strong  
86 temperature and habitat gradients within the geographical limits of a single cell (Figs. 1 and 3).  
87 Regional temperatures (on the scale of tens of km) may be simultaneously both hotter and cooler  
88 than the single value assigned to the cell by the authors' model. For example, the temperature  
89 difference between sea level and 3000 m elevation, within the single 100 x 100 km cell in Fig. 1,  
90 on any day of the year, is about 15°C<sup>14</sup>, more than three times the 4°C total scope of modeled

91 future warming. The temperature gradient between sea surface and just 200 m depth (the depth  
92 limit for species considered by the authors) on the Great Barrier Reef (Fig. 3) is about  $10^{\circ}\text{C}^4$ .

93         The unrealistic uniformity assumed by the author’s method obscures the potential for  
94 several, distinct, asynchronous and spatially heterogeneous mechanisms that allow species to  
95 persist over time, even within a single 100 x 100 km cell, in the face of climatic changes. Cooler  
96 than average regions within such a cell, on a scale of tens of km, amount to thermal refugia, in  
97 the context of the model, protecting species from local extirpation or total extinction. These  
98 regional refugia spread out the timing of exposure to inimical temperatures within the map cell,  
99 inevitably reducing abruptness and synchrony of exposure, to an unknown degree—perhaps  
100 quite substantially. The authors mention a possible role for “microclimatic refugia” in averting  
101 local extinction, but that term generally applies on a much smaller spatial scale<sup>9,15</sup>.

102         Pervasive and ongoing range shifts along elevational, depth, and latitudinal gradients,  
103 driven by warming climate, have already been widely documented<sup>3,16</sup>. Yet the model holds  
104 distributions static, while isotherms inexorably shift both within real-world 100 x 100 km cells  
105 and also into adjacent cells along these gradients as warming proceeds. In the authors’ model, by  
106 the time a species is declared “exposed” to unprecedented temperatures that exceed its niche  
107 limits, in a particular map cell, the species’ range may have shifted out of the cell. Regardless,  
108 such range-shifting species are added to the cell’s “horizon profile,” once their ghost niche limits  
109 have been exceeded by cell-averaged climate, inflating the synchrony of biotic change. Perhaps  
110 the authors would include such fugitive range shifts—although they may well rescue individual  
111 species from extinction—as contributing to “sudden and devastating effects on local biodiversity  
112 and ecosystem services,” but their model does not take account of these potential range-shift-  
113 escapes, nor are they discussed.

114 In the Methods section, the authors acknowledge the directional effect of spatial scale on  
115 abruptness, writing, "...individual grid cells at this resolution may contain ...substantial  
116 ...spatial climatic heterogeneity, thus...overestimating the abruptness of assemblage exposure  
117 dynamics." As a rough index of the internal climatic heterogeneity of each terrestrial 100 x 100  
118 km cell (marine cells were not considered), they recorded the range of interpolated  
119 temperatures<sup>17</sup> at a 1° x 1° resolution and showed that this index is negatively correlated with  
120 horizon abruptness. From this exercise, they conclude that "...increasing the spatial resolution at  
121 which species niche limits and assemblages are defined would enable a more precise  
122 quantification of the timing of species exposure to changing climates..." It is not simply a  
123 matter of precision, however, but directional bias (accuracy)—synchrony of exposure is inflated  
124 to an unmeasured degree.

125 Regional-scale refugia and range shifts are not the only escapes from inimical climates  
126 that would be expected to reduce the apparent abruptness of climate horizons, though they are  
127 probably the most affected by coarse spatial scale. Another issue is the vexing question of  
128 unexpressed tolerance, as highlighted by Sunday<sup>18</sup> in her commentary on this study. Do some  
129 species fondly remember the Miocene, when global temperatures were 6°C hotter than today?<sup>19</sup>  
130 In other words, do their fundamental thermal niches maintain unexpressed adaptations to past,  
131 warmer climates<sup>20</sup>? Are their realized niches truncated by topographic boundaries<sup>21</sup>? If so, the  
132 effects of future warming may be overestimated by the approach taken by the authors, and shared  
133 current geographical boundaries may falsely synchronize future projections. We know, for many  
134 terrestrial ectotherms, that thermal tolerance limits are surprisingly high, even for species from  
135 higher latitudes. For marine species, the thermal safety margin is smaller<sup>22</sup>, particularly in  
136 tropical seas<sup>7,23</sup> The corresponding data for long-lived endotherms are much scarcer. The

137 authors mention this issue as a complication, but their quantitative predictions do not take  
138 account of it. Nonetheless, it is not a neutral source of uncertainty, but represents a directional  
139 bias towards overestimating exposure—and synchrony of exposure—of co-occurring species to  
140 future, adverse climates.

141 Finally, as the authors acknowledge, their model is blind to evolutionary rescue<sup>24</sup>, yet  
142 another mechanism that would be expected to decrease the abruptness and synchrony of  
143 exposure to inimical temperatures. In fact, selection for evolutionary adaptation to warming  
144 climates is expected to be strongest in the trailing edge of species ranges<sup>25-27</sup>, as they follow  
145 thermoclines across topographic or depth gradients. But these gradients are flattened or  
146 completely eliminated (Fig. 1) by coarse spatial scaling. It is precisely trailing-edge species that  
147 accumulate in the authors' horizon profiles.

148 Taken together, disjunct ranges, regional refugia, range shifts, and evolutionary rescue—  
149 all mechanisms of survival hidden by coarse spatial scaling—add up to an unmeasured, but  
150 directional bias, exaggerating the abruptness and synchrony of exposure of species to inimical  
151 climates, especially in the most topographically complex map cells. Put another way, the coarse  
152 spatial resolution drives a coarse temporal resolution of exposure—overestimating the spatial  
153 extent and coordination of the “abrupt ecological disruptions” of the title of Trisos et al.<sup>1</sup>.

154 The coarse spatial resolution (for distributions, climate, and assemblages) could have  
155 been avoided, on land and for bottom-dwelling species in the oceans, by using a hybrid spatial  
156 scale—smaller cells for diverse topography, larger ones for flatter topography, as done by  
157 Rangel et al.<sup>27</sup>. The bookkeeping is more complicated, but entirely feasible. For pelagic systems  
158 in the open ocean, a different approach would need to be devised, to account for depth-related  
159 heterogeneity within map cells. In conclusion, I do not question the ongoing impact of

160 anthropogenic climate change on ecosystems presented, but I have reservations about the degree  
161 of abruptness and synchrony of the projected changes that Trisos and colleagues<sup>1</sup> predict.

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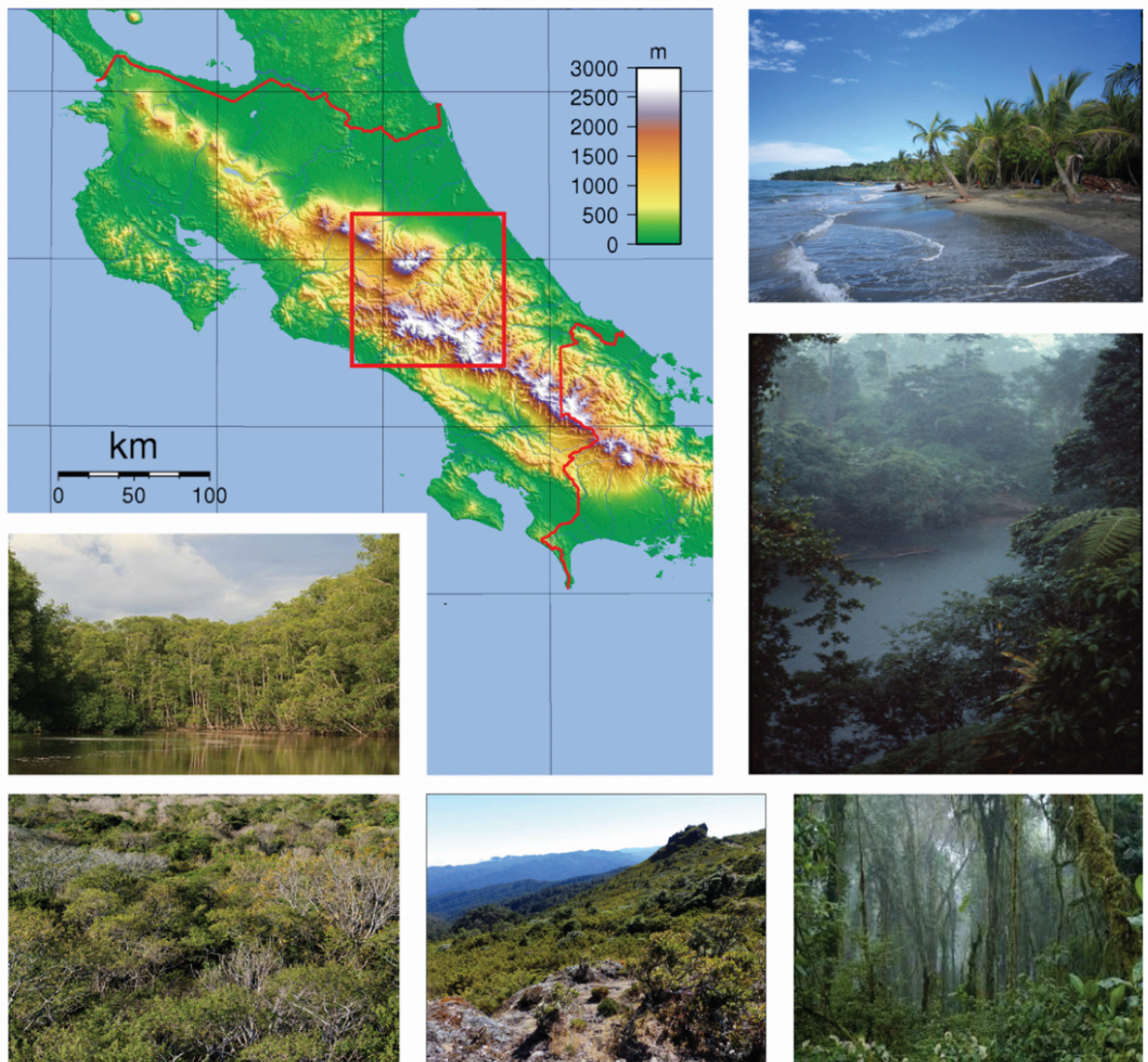
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167 **Author contributions** R.K.C. developed the ideas, wrote the manuscript, and prepared the  
168 figures.

169 **Competing interests** The author declares no competing interests.

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174 **Fig. 1.** A 100 km x 100 km map cell (red square) superimposed on the country of Costa Rica.

175 Within this single cell, lie (clockwise from top right) Caribbean coastal forest, Atlantic lowland

176 rainforest, mid-elevation cloud forest, high elevation paramo, Pacific coastal dry forest, and

177 mangrove forest, each with its own, largely distinct biota. [Map and photo credits will be added

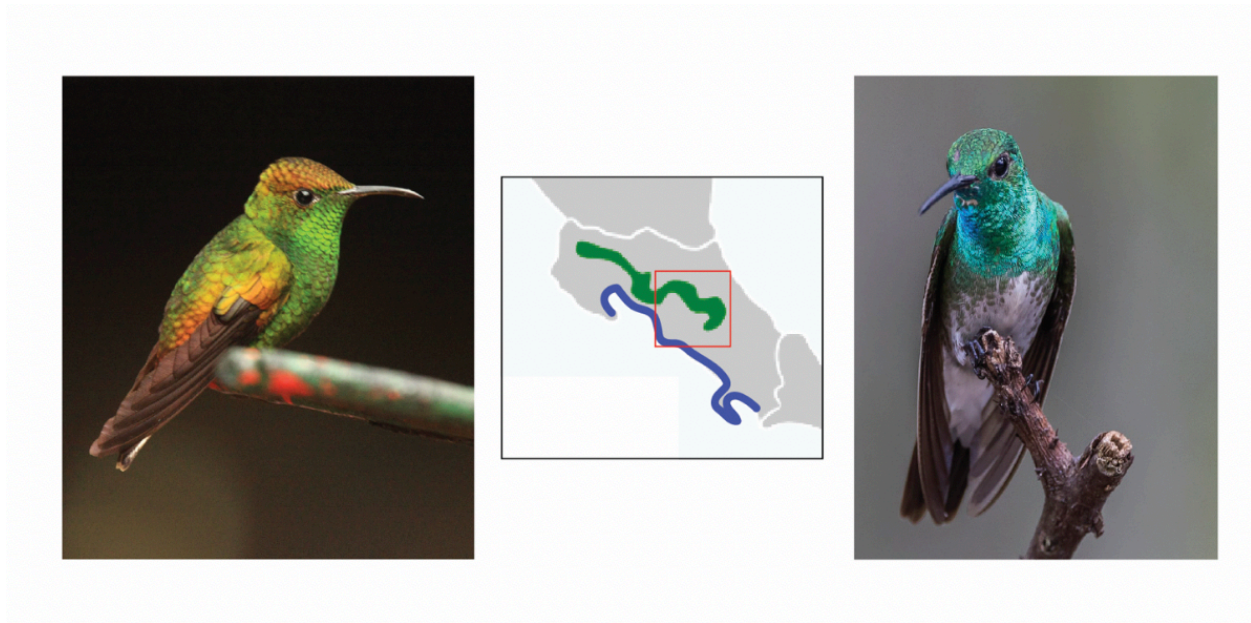
178 if the MS is accepted. All elements are either my own photographs or images and maps labeled

179 Creative Commons or designated for Non-commercial Use with Modification in Google

180 Images.]

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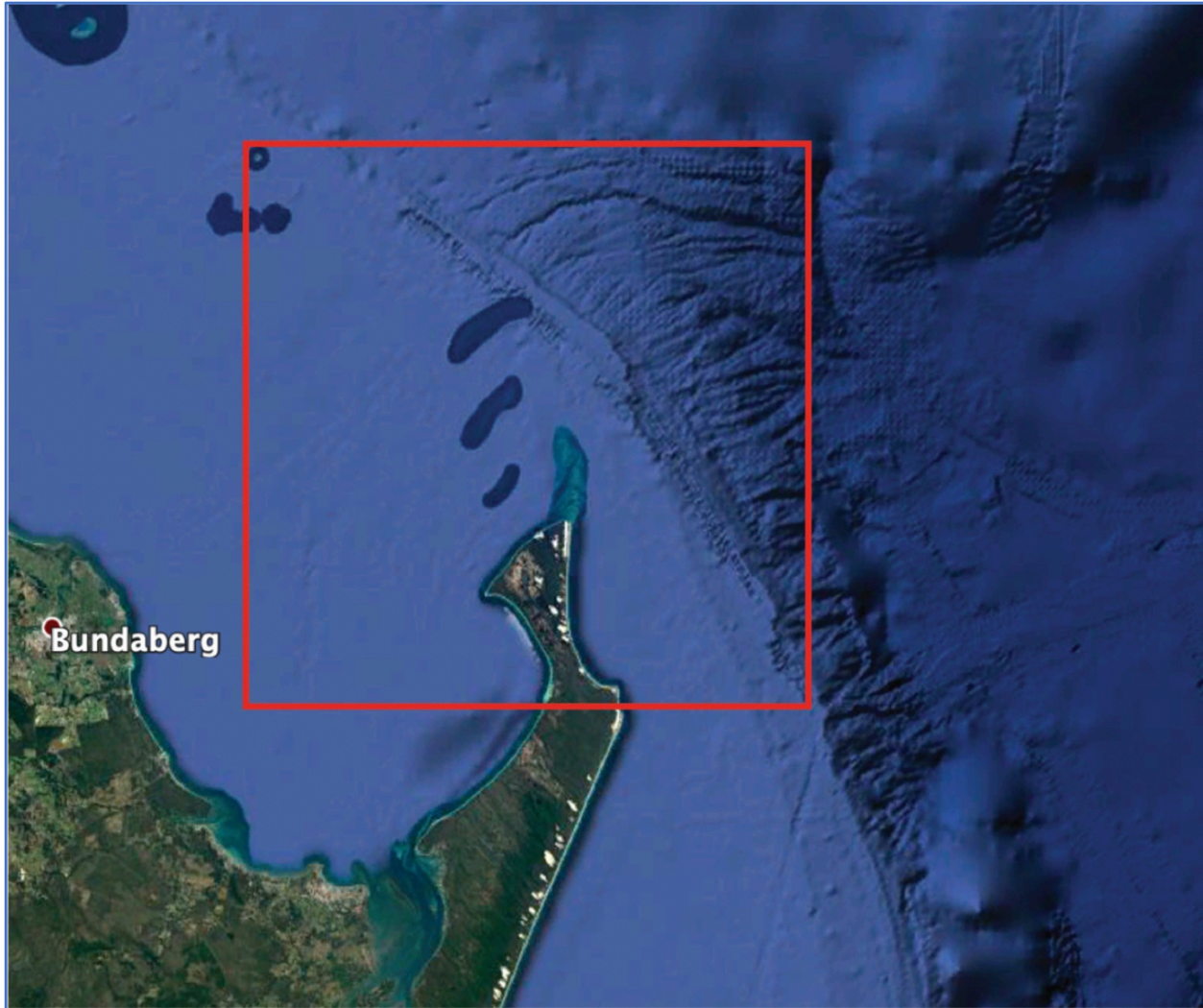
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184 **Fig. 2.** Two hummingbird species endemic to Costa Rica with non-overlapping (disjunct),  
185 elevationally-narrow ranges. *Left:* Male *Elvira cupreiceps* (copper-headed emerald), green on  
186 the map of Costa Rica. *Right:* Male *Amazilia boucardi* (mangrove hummingbird), blue on the  
187 map. The red square on the map outlines a single, 100 km x 100 km map cell (Fig. 1). [*Map and*  
188 *photo credits will be added if the MS is accepted. All elements labeled Creative Commons.*]

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193 **Fig. 3.** A 100 km x 100 km map cell (red square) superimposed on the Queensland, Australia,  
194 coast at the southern end of the Great Barrier Reef. Within this single cell lie areas of near-shore  
195 shallows, coral reef flat, reef face, and continental shelf marine habitats, with depths down to  
196 3000m in the Fraser Canyons, each habitat with its own distinct biota. [Map from Google Earth.]

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- 200 1 Trisos, C., Merow, C. & Pigot, A. The Projected Timing of Abrupt Ecological Disruption  
201 from Climate Change. *Nature* 580, 496–501, doi: [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2189-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2189-9)  
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