

1 **TITLE**

2 Reimagining species on the move across space and time

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73 **KEY WORDS**

74 Range shift; phenological shift; biogeography; temporal ecology; spatial ecology

75 **ABSTRACT**

76 Climate change is already leaving a broad footprint of impacts on biodiversity, from an  
77 individual caterpillar emerging earlier in spring to an entire plant community migrating  
78 poleward. Despite the various modes of how species are on the move, we primarily document  
79 shifting species along only one gradient (e.g., latitude or phenology) and along one dimension  
80 (space or time). Here we present a unifying framework for integrating the study of species on the  
81 move over space and time and from micro to macro scales. Future conservation planning and  
82 natural resource management will depend on our ability to use this framework to improve  
83 understanding, attribution, and prediction of species on the move.

84 **HIGHLIGHTS**

- 85 ● Distributional shifts and phenological trends are hallmarks of contemporary climate  
86 change, yet these responses are generally considered in isolation of one another.
- 87 ● Our pervasive inability to accurately predict climate change responses may result from  
88 the failure to consider that organisms have multiple pathways to climate-driven  
89 redistribution that can occur simultaneously.
- 90 ● We advocate a more holistic approach that appraises how organisms are shifting along  
91 multiple spatiotemporal gradients simultaneously.
- 92 ● Such an approach has the potential to reveal more complete climate tracking and could  
93 pave the way to more accurate projections of “species on the move” into the future.

94 **OUTSTANDING QUESTIONS**

- 95 1. Can more fully accounting for the thermal gradients available to species at various  
96 temporal and spatial scales enhance our understanding of species on the move?  
97 2. Will reimagining species on the move resolve outstanding issues in global change  
98 biology such as the chronically low predictive power of species traits?  
99 3. How will this novel framework reshape our management of species on the move?

100 **INTRODUCTION**

101 Climate change is having diverse impacts on ecosystems, from birds shifting to higher  
102 elevations to bud bursting earlier and earlier each year [1–3]. These various phenomena occur  
103 across a broad range of spatial and temporal scales, and are typically recorded as **range shifts** or  
104 **phenological shifts** (see **Glossary**). Collectively, species that are shifting their spatial  
105 distributions and/or timing of behavior and life history in response to climate change have come  
106 to be known as **species on the move** (SOTM). These phenomena have profound consequences  
107 for humanity and the natural world. Natural resource management must now address species  
108 shifting in and out of protected areas or across management boundaries, and human societies  
109 may lose species of cultural or economic importance or be exposed to novel species or diseases  
110 [4].

111 Detecting SOTM, attributing their shifts to human impacts, and predicting their future  
112 dynamics is a key challenge for ecology in the Anthropocene [5]. This challenge is magnified by  
113 the complexity of studying range and phenological shifts at multiple scales. Yet, the studies that  
114 have confronted this complexity have typically found greater insight into species' responses to  
115 climate change. For example, Nearctic birds have shifted spatial distributions and breeding

116 phenology, but have tracked temperatures more through phenological shifts [6], while in  
117 Lepidoptera, species that have shifted both their ranges and phenology have shown more resilient  
118 population trends [7].

119         These promising studies aside, scientists primarily document shifting species by focusing  
120 on only a single temperature **gradient** (e.g., seasonal phenology or latitude) along one  
121 **dimension** (space or time). A pervasive inability to accurately predict the magnitude and/or  
122 direction of species shifts remains [5], despite extensive methodological improvements [8–10]  
123 including sampling advances and the incorporation of **biotic interactions** and **dispersal**  
124 **limitations**. We contend that, to make progress toward understanding and forecasting SOTM, we  
125 must embrace the idea that species’ responses to climate change are happening simultaneously  
126 across multiple spatial and temporal gradients and at different **scales**. This represents a paradigm  
127 shift in how SOTM are monitored, modeled, and managed.

128         To achieve this paradigm shift, we develop a conceptual framework (Fig. 1) of responses  
129 to directional climate change where organisms can shift simultaneously along two dimensions –  
130 space and time – and along multiple thermal gradients that exist at various scales, from macro to  
131 micro. We base this framework on temperature because temperature changes due to climate  
132 change are more uniform and predictable than other changes (e.g., precipitation regimes [11])  
133 and because thermal gradients are ubiquitous and diverse across the land, sea, inland waters, and  
134 sky. Yet, we acknowledge the fundamental importance of other components of species’ niches  
135 (e.g., rainfall, biotic interactions) and hope that our framework can be applied to other abiotic  
136 gradients (e.g., oxygen, humidity, pH, etc.). Unified, this framework can lead us to a more  
137 holistic and accurate understanding of how species are, or are not, on the move.

138

139 **A UNIFYING FRAMEWORK FOR SHIFTING SPECIES**

140           The **thermal niche** is a fundamental component of species' Grinnellian niche, a range of  
141 temperatures in which a species can survive and reproduce [12]. In a warming world, we expect  
142 species to shift in order to conserve their thermal niche, but they can only do so if there are  
143 thermal gradients along which they can shift. Critically, there exists a multitude of thermal  
144 gradients at various spatial and temporal scales along which species could shift (Fig. 1), but we  
145 need to examine these potential avenues for shifting if we are to properly quantify SOTM.

146           To better illustrate our framework, imagine a canopy-dwelling frog species in a warming  
147 world. Long-term occurrence data might be used to detect a latitudinal range shift toward the  
148 poles; yet this range shift lags behind changing isotherms, suggesting the species is incompletely  
149 tracking climate change. Concurrently, a separate study might find that this frog is failing to also  
150 shift upslope in elevation despite marked warming. Yet another project might note that these  
151 frogs are shifting in time by advancing their breeding phenology earlier in the year when the  
152 weather is cooler. Additional studies of this species on other gradients may produce new,  
153 independent interpretations of whether the frog is tracking climate change or not. While these  
154 responses may seem disparate and inconsistent when studied in isolation, when placed together  
155 in context, a simple truth emerges: the frog is maintaining its niche within a complex, dynamic,  
156 hierarchically-nested thermal environment.

157           Here, we define two dimensions through which species can shift: space and time (Fig. 1).  
158 For each of these dimensions there exists multiple thermal gradients that occur at different  
159 scales. In space, latitude is the largest thermal gradient, stretching from the equator to the poles.  
160 Elevation (on land) and depth (in water) provide thermal gradients at intermediate scales while,  
161 at small scales there are thermal gradients in **microhabitat**, such as from canopy to forest floor

162 [13], down into soil, or within kelp forests. Temporally, temperature fluctuates in multi-annual  
163 cycles, across seasons, and across the day, all of which provide thermal gradients for changes in  
164 activity or development.

165         Seen within a two-dimensional, multiscale framework of potential temperature tracking,  
166 single-gradient studies may not accurately represent how well species are successfully adapting  
167 to climate change. Thus, assigning shifts as “lagging”, “counter-intuitive”, or “individualistic”  
168 [14–17] may not represent nature itself, but rather a limitation of how climate change impacts  
169 have been studied so far. To move beyond this myopia, we need to study species across multiple  
170 dimensions and along gradients at multiple scales (Fig. 2, [6]).

## 171 **THE AVAILABILITY AND RELEVANCE OF DIFFERENT THERMAL GRADIENTS**

172 Despite the potential for organisms to shift in multiple ways, the availability of different thermal  
173 gradients varies across the globe (Fig. 2). At large spatial scales, the latitudinal thermal gradient  
174 appears consistent, but actually changes with latitude. In temperate forests, for example, a steady  
175 thermal gradient may facilitate northward shifts [18], but this gradient is almost entirely absent  
176 across large swathes of the tropics (Fig. 2A). At intermediate scales, the availability of  
177 elevational gradients is far more heterogeneous (Fig. 2B). The Andes and Himalayas present  
178 sharp elevational thermal gradients allowing upslope shifts [19], yet organisms in the middle of  
179 the Amazon or Congo basin are hundreds of miles from the nearest foothill forest (Fig. 2B; [20]).  
180 Similarly, in the ocean, benthic species on wide continental plates or the abyssal plane do not  
181 have the same bathymetric opportunities as those on the continental shelf (Fig. 2B). Zooming in  
182 further still, thermal gradients exist within habitats. Lowland forests exhibit a striking thermal  
183 gradient from the forest floor to canopy [21], contrasting with the stunted forests of high  
184 elevation ridgelines (Fig. 2C).

185 Temporal thermal gradients also vary markedly across scales and geographies.  
186 Populations in boreal and temperate forest experience great swings in temperature between  
187 summer and winter (Fig. 2E), producing sharp seasonal gradients along which species can shift  
188 their phenology [7]; the tropics, meanwhile, have famously stable year-round temperatures.  
189 Humid forests also have buffered temperatures from day to night, while xeric deserts undergo  
190 extreme heat and cold across the daily cycle ([22]; Fig. 2D). Thus, for every ecosystem, we must  
191 consider which thermal gradients are available, and some places may have more options than  
192 others (Fig. 3): in the tropics, shifting upslope may be the most efficient strategy [20], while in  
193 the temperate north, shifts in phenology may negate the need for shifts in space [6,23].

194 Besides extrinsic availability, there are also intrinsic factors that can differentially affect  
195 species' ability to shift along different thermal gradients. Chief among these factors is dispersal  
196 ability. Shifts in latitude require covering the largest distances, a feat most likely for species with  
197 high dispersal ability [24]. For example, migratory butterflies may find it much easier to shift  
198 with latitude than non-volant millipedes. This contrast becomes even more stark when  
199 considering taxa that *cannot* physically move, like trees and kelp, that can only expand their  
200 range via recruitment of new individuals. Dispersal ability itself is also affected by factors such  
201 as landscape connectivity or ocean currents. Upslope elevational shifts may be more likely along  
202 continuously forested mountains than fragmented ones [25], latitudinal shifts may be impeded by  
203 ecological barriers such as coastlines [26], and oceanic shifts may be influenced by prevailing  
204 currents [27].

205 In addition to dispersal ability, other traits may enhance or hinder a species' ability to  
206 shift along particular gradients [28]. A fish that specializes on feeding from the surface of a lake  
207 cannot switch to a demersal lifestyle any more than an earthworm can climb to the canopy, and a



208 species cannot alter its phenology without in-built mechanisms for plasticity. The relevance of  
209 different thermal gradients can even vary depending on an organism's life stage. Tadpoles in  
210 bromeliads and sea anemones clinging to rocks are clearly unable to shift in space, but their more  
211 vagile life stages – adult frogs and planktonic larvae – can potentially travel much greater  
212 distances. Thus, one must also consider the thermal gradients that each organism is *most likely* to  
213 employ for shifting, given its traits and life history.

## 214 **HOW TO STUDY SHIFTING SPECIES**

215         A greater recognition that species may simultaneously be shifting along multiple  
216 dimensions and at different scales requires ecologists to reimagine how to test for, evaluate  
217 impacts of, and forecast future species shifts. Field observations have been integral to building  
218 understanding of SOTM [1], but the high effort required of most field sampling has limited  
219 ecology's extent and scope of dimensions to-date [29]. While it may be possible to expand the  
220 scope (e.g., spatial or temporal) or supplement sampling (e.g., add sampling at finer scales)  
221 within traditional monitoring programs, we expect this option to be rare. However, combining  
222 existing data with emerging technologies and new tools will still provide great insight into  
223 SOTM [30].

224         The study of SOTM has long relied on tools like species distribution models (SDMs) for  
225 forecasting range shifts, but these models are often criticized for their low predictive power,  
226 which has been attributed to a multitude of factors [31–33]. Looking forward, process-based (i.e.,  
227 mechanistic) models provide a more theoretically motivated integration of organismal  
228 physiology with population-level phenology and distribution [34,35]. Process-based models have  
229 a long history of applications to plant and animal phenology, sometimes integrating experiments  
230 and remotely sensed data with field observations [36]. Process-based models of range shifts and

231 “hybrid SDMs” that include physiology or other processes have emerged much more recently  
232 and show great promise (e.g., [37]).

233 Modeling frameworks are emerging that can formally bridge multiple scales and  
234 dimensions [30]. For example, mechanistic models can be fitted to movement data from  
235 individual animals, informed with bioenergetics, and used to gain inference into population-level  
236 processes, including geographical distribution and seasonal behavior [38]. These and other  
237 flexible modeling frameworks may integrate traditional biodiversity surveys (which typically  
238 occur on a seasonal or annual basis) with novel technologies that operate at scales from minutes  
239 to days (e.g., next-generation sensors, environmental DNA [39]).

240 These models can also use experimental results as informative priors, underscoring the  
241 importance of experiments in clarifying mechanisms of shifting species in order to make robust  
242 predictions across scales. SOTM scientists increasingly use transplant experiments to study range  
243 expansions [40] and physiological experiments to collect critical parameters for biophysical  
244 models such as thermal performance [41,42]. Massive distributed experiments may be  
245 particularly useful because they can detect range and phenological shifts and shed light on  
246 mechanisms across dimensions and scales; for example, the International Tundra Experiment  
247 (ITEX) manipulated temperature in tundra plots and recorded the resulting rates of phenological  
248 shifts in plants [43]. In summary, all of the pieces—laboratory and field-based experimental data,  
249 long-term biodiversity monitoring, novel technologies, and complex spatiotemporal models—  
250 exist for the SOTM field to operationalize the theoretical integration that we propose.

251

## 252 **PLANNING FOR A FUTURE ON THE MOVE**

253           The management of SOTM also exists at several spatio-temporal scales. Interventions  
254 include allowing species to naturally respond, local habitat restoration or preservation,  
255 population supplementation, long-distance translocation, and/or assisted adaptation via selective  
256 breeding for beneficial genotypes/phenotypes [44–46]. Each of these management actions are  
257 sensitive spatially to the location of populations within the range (trailing edge, core or leading  
258 edge) as well as temporally to the circadian rhythm, phenology, and life-cycle of a species (Fig  
259 4).

260           Our framework is purposefully univariate (temperature) to highlight the importance of  
261 dimension and scale in understanding SOTM, but management of species must consider all  
262 pressures on species populations (e.g., land-use and change, offtake and harvest, among other  
263 human disturbances), and how these pressures mediate SOTM. Understanding the  
264 multidimensionality of SOTM necessarily reduces existing uncertainty ([47], but see [48]),  
265 helping to explain, for example, why some species are not shifting along a given gradient by  
266 providing context from other gradients (Fig. 3; [6,7]). Such knowledge will help inform short-  
267 and long-term species risk or vulnerability assessments as well as guide priorities and  
268 discussions between managers and scientists in how, where, and when species are monitored.  
269 Thus, conservation practitioners can confidently direct resources towards select species or  
270 towards longer-term strategic goals that may be more proactive than reactive [49].

271           To clarify existing decision-making tools such as Resist-Accept-Direct (RAD) or  
272 Resistance-Resilience-Transition (RRT), which guide whether to resist or accept ecological  
273 changes or to direct species towards a desirable outcome [50], we must ensure the dimension and

274 scale of the intervention matches the dimension and scale of the phenomenon. For example,  
275 management to restore or connect terrestrial landscapes often assumes that species will track  
276 increasing temperatures to higher elevations or latitudes. However, if a species adjusts its  
277 phenology, circadian rhythm, or microhabitat preferences it may not need to shift latitudinally to  
278 conserve its thermal niche (at least for the time being). Thus, practitioners could then prioritize  
279 preserving or enriching local habitat complexity rather than landscape connectivity (Fig. 4).  
280 Conversely, if species are indeed shifting broadly in space, then protecting or connecting habitat  
281 solely for current ranges ignores where species will be in the future or how they'll get there [51].  
282 Moreover, it is possible that if species aren't shifting in absolute distance or time as expected,  
283 then the existing conservation and management may be more effective for SOTM than we  
284 thought—and thus novel, and possibly unnecessary, interventions may lead to maladaptation or  
285 deleterious outcomes.

## 286 **CONCLUDING REMARKS**

287 Embracing a multidimensional, scalable framework for conceptualizing climate-change  
288 responses will lead us to redefine our understanding of species' ability to track climate change.  
289 This paradigm shift could resolve the ongoing paradox that, while ecosystems on the whole are  
290 responding to climate change, few single-species responses can be predicted well with existing  
291 methods. Part of this puzzle is the recurring finding that ecological and life-history traits rarely  
292 predict single-species responses well, despite strong theoretical underpinnings, but our  
293 framework could be expanded to bring trait-based predictions into focus. Furthermore, this  
294 framework can inspire multidimensional thinking across all ecological disciplines, expanding our  
295 understanding of species distributions and anthropogenic responses beyond two-dimensional  
296 space. With new insights we are better able to ready society for SOTM [4], providing a more

297 nuanced picture of which species may be more likely to shift into new territory, which may take  
298 up new daily activity patterns, which may adjust their phenology earlier in the year, and how all  
299 of these shifts affect humans.

300

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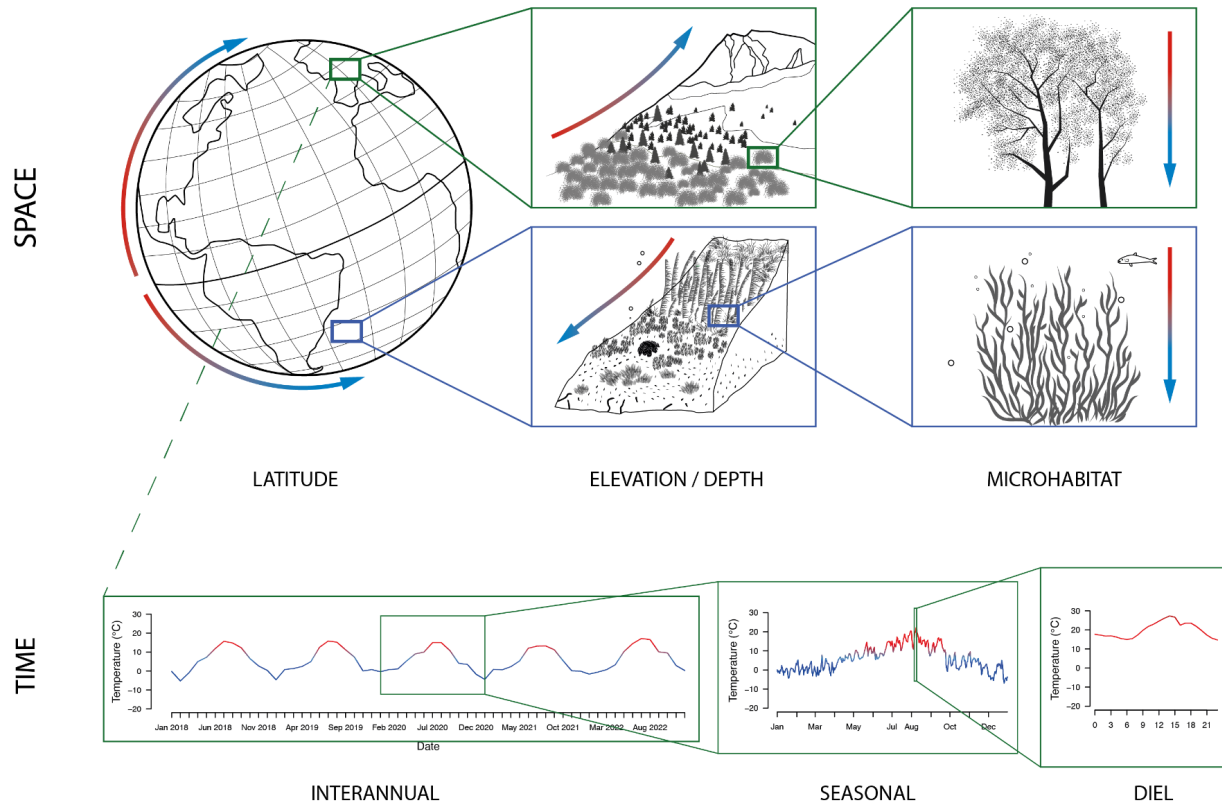
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431

432 **Figure 1.**

433 **Species track temperature in both space and time, at varying scales. (A) Species**

434 experiencing climate change have been documented shifting in space at a range of scales, taking

435 advantage of latitudinal, elevational, and microhabitat gradients in temperature. (B) Species

436 experiencing climate change have also exhibited shifts in time (phenological shifts), ranging

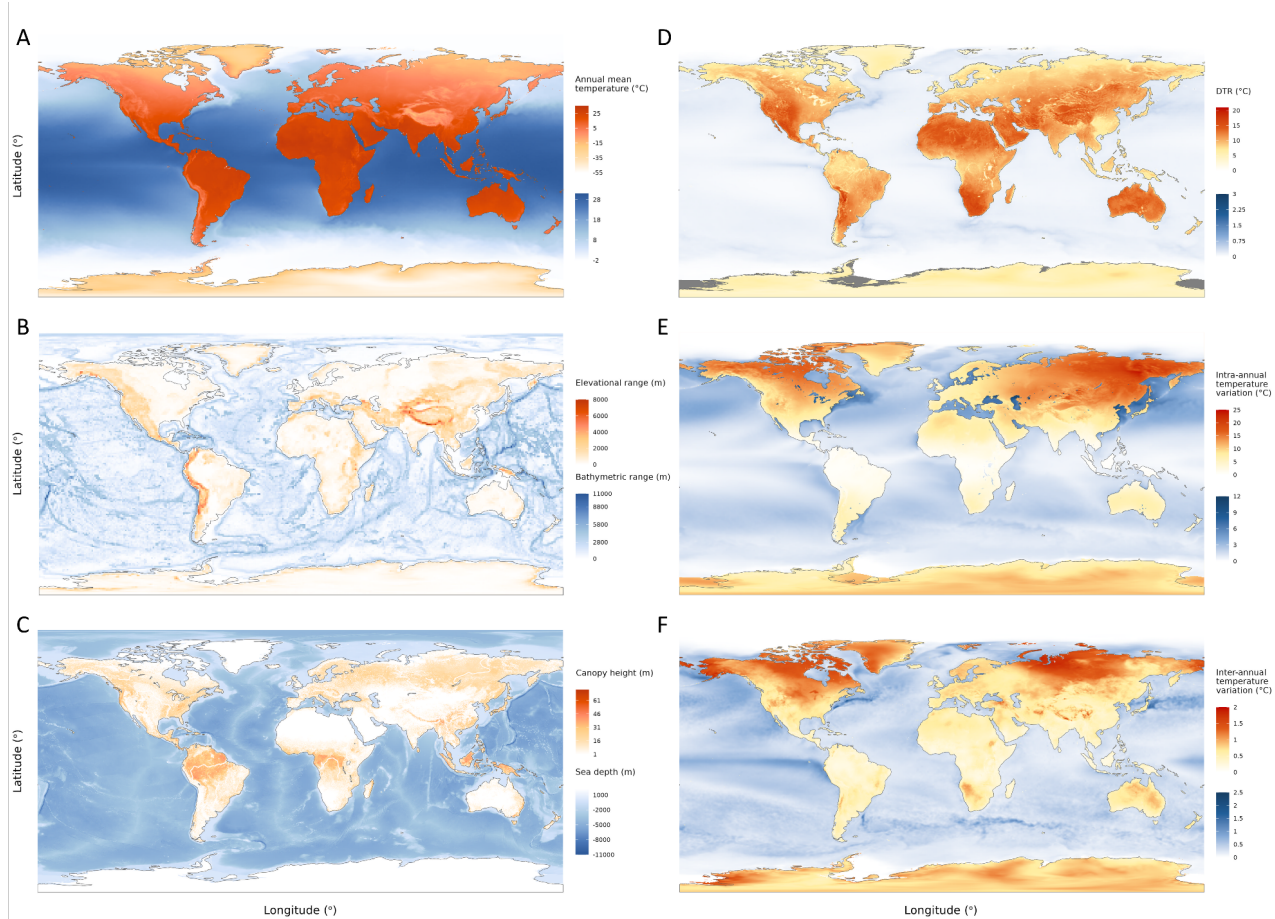
437 from interannual phenomena to altered timing of seasonal behaviors and changing diel patterns.

438 These spatial and temporal shifts at different scales and along different gradients can be

439 conceptually unified: species shift in response to temperature change along spatial and temporal

440 dimensions, and at any temporal or spatial scale, species may have different gradients available

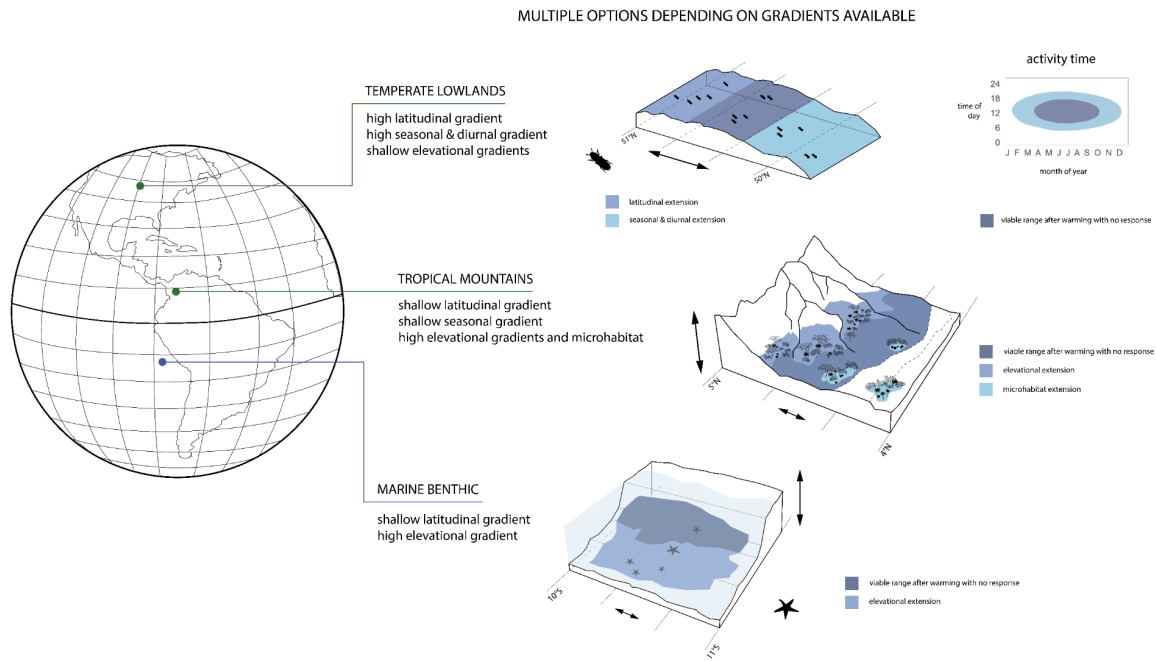
441 to them along which to shift.



442

443 **Figure 2.**

444 **The availability of thermal gradients differs across the world.** We demonstrate the global  
 445 distribution of thermal gradients via: (A) the latitudinal gradient in annual mean temperature, (B)  
 446 elevational range on land and bathymetric range in the ocean (maximum-to-minimum range  
 447 within 3-degree pixels), (C) forest canopy height on land and depth in the ocean, (D) daily  
 448 temperature range (hottest hour - coldest hour each day, averaged over 5 years), (E) intra-annual  
 449 temperature variation (average standard deviation of monthly temperatures over 20 years), and  
 450 (F) inter-annual temperature variation (standard deviation of annual mean temperatures over 20  
 451 years). Temperature data were extracted from ERA5 (2004-2023); elevation and depth data were  
 452 extracted using a DEM from NOAA's ETOPO 2022 at 60 Arc Second Resolution.



453

454 **Figure 3.**

455 **Varying availability of gradients around the world gives rise to differential opportunities**

456 **for species to track thermal niches over space and time.** Three different example

457 environments – temperate lowlands (top), tropical mountains (middle), and marine seafloor

458 (bottom) – show variable access to thermal gradients across multiple dimensions. Differing

459 available gradients may, in turn, shift expectations about the type and magnitude of spatial or

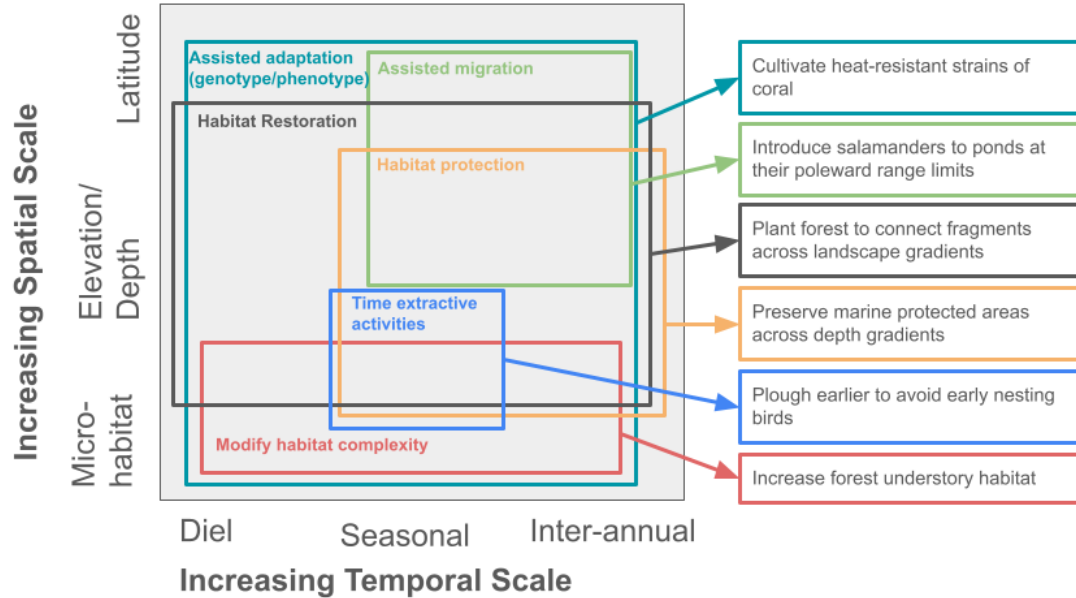
460 temporal shift following climate warming for given species – with each species (e.g., a beetle

461 [top] or a sea star [bottom]) having its own ability or limitations to effectively track temperature

462 given its life history and traits.

**A. Dimensionality of management actions**

**B. Examples of actions**



463

464 **Figure 4.**

465 **With opportunities for shifting species differing across dimensions and scales, management**  
 466 **and conservation actions logically also have varying influence across scales and gradients.**

467 Here, we highlight six different types of management actions (A) each of which – with specific  
 468 examples (B) [52–57] – has an approximate zone of influence across different aspects of spatial  
 469 and temporal scale. For example, assisted migration generally helps species cope with range  
 470 shifts across broader spatial scales (e.g., latitude) and is effective across multi-annual time scales,  
 471 whereas increasing habitat complexity through understory restoration primarily provides  
 472 microhabitat buffering that can also facilitate thermal tracking across many time scales, from  
 473 daily to long-term.

474

475 **GLOSSARY**

- 476 ● **Biotic Interaction:** The association – whether facilitative, antagonistic, or neutral in  
477 outcome – between two living creatures. Biotic interactions can either hinder or facilitate  
478 range shifts depending on the nature of the relationship.
- 479 ● **Circadian Rhythm:** Biological processes over a 24 hour time period; influenced by  
480 environmental variables such as temperature or day length.
- 481 ● **Dimension:** Distinct axes or aspects from which a species can respond to climate change  
482 with two primary dimensions of space (e.g., microhabitat to latitude) and time (e.g., diel  
483 to inter-annual).
- 484 ● **Gradient:** A range of environmental conditions in space or time such as temperature  
485 change across habitat types or from one season to the next.
- 486 ● **Microhabitat:** The fine scale, localized environment where an organism lives, which  
487 often has unique attributes that differ from the surrounding environment.
- 488 ● **Phenological shift:** Changes in the timing of life-cycle processes such as breeding,  
489 migration or flowering, in response to climate change.
- 490 ● **Range shift:** The expansion or contraction of species geographic ranges, typically  
491 assumed poleward or upslope, in response to changing environmental conditions.
- 492 ● **Scale:** Temporal and spatial extent of environmental change or ecological response  
493 ranging from broad (macro) to fine (micro) levels of scale.
- 494 ● **Species on the Move (SOTM):** Species that are shifting their geographic ranges and/or  
495 timing of their life history/life-cycle processes in response to climate change.
- 496 ● **Thermal niche:** The range of temperatures experienced by a species across space and  
497 time in which it can survive, reproduce, and perform vital ecological functions.