

1 **TITLE**

2 Reimagining species on the move across space and time

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76 **ABSTRACT**

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

85 **OUTSTANDING QUESTIONS**

- 86 1. To date, studies of species on the move that are focused on a single gradient (such as
87 elevation or seasonal phenology) in a single dimension (space or time) often find
88 evidence for partial or no “climate tracking”. Can we enhance our understanding of
89 species on the move by more fully accounting for thermal gradients available to species
90 at multiple temporal and spatial scales?
- 91 2. While they are hypothesized to be key drivers of species’ range and phenological shifts,
92 traits rarely emerge from synthesis studies as strong statistical predictors. Will
93 reimagining species on the move resolve the chronically low predictive power of species
94 traits?

95 3. Conservation interventions for shifting species also vary in scale and have rarely been
96 matched to empirical evaluations of the gradient(s) along which species are actually
97 shifting. How will this novel framework reshape our management of species on the
98 move?

99 **SPECIES MOVING IN TIME AND SPACE**

100 Climate change is having diverse impacts on ecosystems, from birds shifting to higher
101 elevations to buds bursting earlier each year [1–4]. These various phenomena occur across a
102 broad range of spatial and temporal scales, and are typically recorded as **range shifts** or
103 **phenological shifts** (see **Glossary**). Collectively, species that are shifting their spatial
104 distributions in response to climate change have come to be known as **species on the move**
105 (SOTM), to which we also include species shifting their timing of behavior and life history.
106 These phenomena have profound consequences for humanity and the natural world. Natural
107 resource management must now address species shifting in and out of protected areas or across
108 management boundaries, and human societies may lose species of cultural or economic
109 importance or be exposed to novel species or diseases [5].

110 Detecting SOTM, attributing their shifts to human impacts, and predicting their future
111 dynamics is a key challenge for ecology in the Anthropocene [6]. This challenge is magnified by
112 the complexity of studying range and temporal shifts at multiple scales. Yet, the studies that have
113 confronted this complexity have typically found greater insight into species' responses to climate
114 change. For example, Nearctic birds have shifted spatial distributions and breeding phenology,
115 but have tracked temperatures more through phenological shifts [7], while in Lepidoptera,
116 species that have shifted both their ranges and phenology have shown more resilient population
117 trends [8].

118 These exemplar studies aside, scientists primarily document shifting species by focusing
119 on only a single temperature **gradient** (e.g., seasonal phenology or latitude) along one
120 **dimension** (space or time). A pervasive inability to accurately predict the magnitude and/or
121 direction of species responses to climate change remains [6], despite extensive improvements in
122 methods and modeling [9–11] including sampling advances and the incorporation of **biotic**
123 **interactions** and **dispersal limitations** into predictive models [12,13]. We contend that, to make
124 progress toward understanding and forecasting SOTM, we must embrace the idea that species’
125 responses to climate change are happening simultaneously across multiple spatial and temporal
126 gradients and at different **scales** [14,15]. This represents a paradigm shift in how SOTM are
127 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 shifts due to climate change
132 are more uniform and predictable than other changes (e.g., precipitation regimes [16]) and
133 because thermal gradients are ubiquitous and diverse across land and water. Yet, we
134 acknowledge the fundamental importance of other components of species’ niches (e.g., rainfall,
135 biotic interactions) and believe that our framework can be extended to other abiotic gradients
136 (e.g., oxygen, humidity, pH, etc.) and the explicit incorporation of biotic interactions [17]. Thus,
137 this framework can lead us to a more holistic and accurate understanding of how species are, or
138 are not, on the move.

139 **A UNIFYING FRAMEWORK FOR SHIFTING SPECIES**

140 The **thermal niche** is a critical component of a species' fundamental niche – the range of
141 temperatures in which a species can survive and reproduce [18]. In a warming world, we expect
142 species to **shift** in order to conserve their thermal niche, but this potential only exists 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). We need
145 to examine these potential avenues for shifting if we are to properly quantify SOTM.

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

158 Here, we define two dimensions through which species can shift: space and time (Fig. 1).
159 For each of these dimensions there exist multiple thermal gradients that occur at different scales.
160 In space, latitude is the largest thermal gradient, stretching from the equator to the poles while
161 elevation (on land) and depth (in water) provide thermal gradients at intermediate scales. At

162 small scales there are thermal gradients in **microhabitats** created by abiotic features like
163 geological formations (e.g., boulder fields), as well as biotic structures or features that directly
164 modify temperature clines (e.g., canopies and coral heads) [19]. Temporally, temperature
165 fluctuates in multi-annual cycles, across seasons, and across the day, all of which provide
166 thermal gradients for changes in activity or development, such as shifting daily activity patterns
167 or altering breeding phenology.

168 Of course, tracking thermal gradients may also be mediated by biotic interactions [20]
169 which can constrain range shifts – such as upslope shifts of birds limited by the rate of treeline
170 expansion [21] – or facilitate them – such as parasites and pathogens shifting poleward in
171 latitude enabled through shifts of hosts [22]. Our framework can thus be extended to describe
172 these SOTM that are tracking temperature gradients indirectly via other species, but with
173 caution, given the dynamic nature of species interactions.

174 Seen within a two-dimensional, multiscale framework of potential temperature tracking,
175 single-gradient studies may not accurately represent how well species are successfully adapting
176 to climate change. Thus, assigning shifts as “lagging”, “counter-intuitive”, or “individualistic”
177 [23–26] may not represent nature itself, but rather a limitation of how climate change impacts
178 have been studied so far. To move forward, we need to study species responses to climate change
179 across multiple dimensions and along gradients at multiple scales [7] (Fig. 2).

180 **THE AVAILABILITY AND RELEVANCE OF DIFFERENT THERMAL GRADIENTS**

181 Despite the potential for organisms to shift in multiple ways, the availability of different
182 thermal gradients varies across the globe (Fig. 2). At large spatial scales, the latitudinal thermal
183 gradient appears consistent, but actually changes with latitude. In temperate forests, for example,
184 a steady thermal gradient may facilitate poleward shifts [27], but this gradient is almost entirely

185 absent across large swathes of the tropics (Fig. 2A). At intermediate scales, the availability of
186 elevational gradients is far more heterogeneous (Fig. 2B). The Andes and Eastern Rift mountains
187 present sharp elevational thermal gradients allowing upslope shifts [28], yet organisms in the
188 middle of the Amazon or Congo basin are hundreds of miles from the nearest foothill forest [29]
189 (Fig. 2B). Similarly, in the ocean, benthic species on wide continental plates or the abyssal plain
190 do not have the same bathymetric opportunities as those on the continental shelf (Fig. 2B).
191 Zooming in further still, thermal gradients exist within habitats. Lowland forests exhibit a
192 striking thermal gradient from the forest floor to canopy where the change in temperature from a
193 1-meter increase in height equates to shifting hundreds of kilometers in latitude [30] (Fig. 2C).

194 Temporal thermal gradients also vary markedly across scales and geographies.
195 Populations in boreal and temperate forest experience great swings in temperature between
196 summer and winter (Fig. 2E), producing sharp seasonal gradients along which species can shift
197 their phenology [8]; the tropics, meanwhile, have famously stable year-round temperatures.
198 Humid forests also have buffered temperatures from day to night, while xeric deserts undergo
199 extreme heat and cold across the daily cycle [31] (Fig. 2D). Thus, for every ecosystem, we must
200 consider which thermal gradients are available, and some places may have more options than
201 others (Fig. 3): in the tropics, shifting upslope may be the most efficient strategy [29], while in
202 temperate ecosystems, shifts in phenology may negate the need for shifts in space [7,32].

203 Ultimately, the availability of these climatic gradients are further filtered and mediated through
204 biotic interactions, which can both impede and facilitate the accessibility of gradients to species.

205 Besides extrinsic availability, there are also intrinsic factors that can differentially affect
206 species' ability or need to shift along different thermal gradients. Chief among these factors is
207 dispersal ability. Shifts in latitude require covering the largest distances, a feat most likely for

208 species with high dispersal ability [33]. For example, migratory butterflies may find it much
209 easier to shift with latitude than non-volant millipedes. This contrast becomes even more stark
210 when considering taxa that *cannot* physically move, like trees and kelp, and can only expand
211 their range via reproduction and recruitment of new individuals. Dispersal ability itself is also
212 affected by factors such as landscape connectivity or ocean currents. Upslope elevational shifts
213 may be more likely along continuously forested mountains than fragmented ones [34], latitudinal
214 shifts may be impeded by ecological barriers such as coastlines [35], and oceanic shifts may be
215 influenced by prevailing currents [36].

216 In addition to dispersal ability, other traits may enhance or hinder a species' ability to
217 shift along particular gradients [37]. A fish that specializes on feeding from the surface of a lake
218 cannot switch to a demersal lifestyle any more than an earthworm can climb to the canopy, and a
219 species cannot easily alter its phenology without an evolved mechanism of phenotypic plasticity.
220 The relevance of different thermal gradients can even vary depending on an organism's life
221 stage. Tadpoles in bromeliads and sea anemones clinging to rocks are clearly unable to shift in
222 space, but their more vagile life stages – adult frogs and planktonic larvae – can potentially travel
223 much greater distances. Thus, one must also consider the thermal gradients that each organism is
224 *most likely* to employ for shifting, given its traits and life history.

225

226 **HOW TO STUDY SHIFTING SPECIES**

227 Our framework necessitates a reimagination of how we test for, evaluate the impacts of,
228 and forecast future species shifts. Field observations have been integral to building
229 understanding of SOTM [1–4] but the high effort required of most field sampling has limited the
230 extent and scope of ecological data and thus inference [38]. We strongly advocate for the

231 expansion of these monitoring programs. For example, annual surveys could be conducted twice
232 in the same season to detect phenological shifts, and regional surveys could include elevational
233 or depth transects to detect finer-scale spatial shifts.

234 Given that biodiversity monitoring is already sparse and its expansion is resource-
235 intensive, we expect that researchers will also need to merge disparate datasets collected across
236 dimensions and scales. This will only be possible for datasets that are published with sufficient
237 metadata and code [39]. To fully capture available gradients for shifting species, researchers will
238 likely need to incorporate non-standardized data (e.g., opportunistic observations), which
239 introduces substantial spatiotemporal bias that is currently challenging to overcome analytically
240 [40]. However, next-generation sensors including acoustic devices and GPS trackers and new
241 technologies such as environmental DNA are making biodiversity monitoring faster and cheaper
242 than ever before [41]. We hope that these technologies will produce data at many spatial and
243 temporal scales while reducing the sampling bias inherent in traditional biodiversity monitoring.

244 The best forecasts of SOTM will couple field data with laboratory experiments to reveal
245 how species may respond to future temperature change. SOTM scientists increasingly use
246 experiments to collect critical parameters of biophysical models such as thermal performance,
247 metabolic rate, and behavior [42,43], and transplant experiments across thermal gradients to
248 study the likelihood of range expansions [44]. Distributed experiments across regions and
249 continents may be particularly useful because they can detect range and phenological shifts and
250 shed light on mechanisms across dimensions and scales; for example, the International Tundra
251 Experiment (ITEX) manipulated temperature in tundra plots and recorded the resulting rates of
252 phenological shifts in plants [45]. As we expand process-based models (see below), a huge

253 investment in conducting thermal response experiments for many species is imperative to
254 parameterize multi-scale spatiotemporal models.

255 The analysis of SOTM data to-date has also been piecemeal, with models fitted at
256 individual, population, or community scales, to explore the roles of dozens of processes from
257 bioenergetics to dispersal limitation [46]. While we do not expect a single modeling approach to
258 emerge that can capture all SOTM across all dimensions and scales, it is still possible to gain
259 insight into SOTM with new modeling approaches. First, “hybrid” models are already integrating
260 data types to make inference across scales – by, for example, combining animal movement
261 estimates (modeled from individual-level tag data) with species distribution models (based on
262 regional surveys) [47]. We advocate for the expansion of these coupled modeling approaches
263 across spatial and temporal scales, which will require adhering to best practices in reporting and
264 interoperability to ensure that the outputs (including uncertainty) of one model can be input into
265 another [48]. Second, while the study of SOTM has historically relied on tools like species
266 distribution models for forecasting range shifts [49–51], process-based (i.e., mechanistic) models
267 provide a more theoretically motivated integration of organismal physiology with population-
268 level phenology and distribution [52,53]. Fitting process-based and hybrid models and coupling
269 them across dimensions and scales should be a clear focus of the SOTM field in the coming
270 years, in order to use the newly-collected data that we encourage above to advance predictive
271 power and skill. We also expect widespread application of the rapidly-growing suite of machine
272 learning and artificial intelligence tools to SOTM, both in forecasting across dimensions and
273 scales and in processing the vast quantities of incoming data.

274 **PLANNING FOR A FUTURE ON THE MOVE**

275 The management of SOTM also exists at several spatio-temporal scales. Interventions
276 include allowing species to naturally respond, local habitat restoration or preservation,
277 population supplementation, long-distance translocation, and/or assisted adaptation via selective
278 breeding for adaptive genotypes/phenotypes [54–56]. Each of these management actions are
279 sensitive spatially to the location of populations within the range (trailing edge, core or leading
280 edge) as well as temporally to the circadian rhythm, phenology, and life-cycle of a species (Fig
281 4).

282 Our framework is purposefully univariate (temperature) to highlight the importance of
283 dimension and scale in understanding SOTM, but management of species must consider all
284 pressures on species populations (e.g., land use and change, offtake and harvest, among other
285 human disturbances), and how these pressures mediate SOTM. Notably, this framework can
286 reveal whether a species not shifting along a given gradient is compensating via shifts along
287 other gradients or is, more concerningly, stymied by a lack of available gradients [7,8] (Fig. 3).
288 Such knowledge will help inform short- and long-term species risk or vulnerability assessments
289 as well as guide priorities and discussions between managers and scientists in how, where, and
290 when species are monitored. Thus, conservation practitioners can confidently direct resources
291 towards select species or towards longer-term strategic goals that may be more proactive than
292 reactive [57].

293 To clarify existing decision-making tools such as Resist-Accept-Direct (RAD) or
294 Resistance-Resilience-Transition (RRT), which guide whether to resist or accept ecological
295 changes or to direct species towards a desirable outcome [58], we must ensure the dimension and
296 scale of the intervention matches the dimension and scale of the phenomenon. For example,

297 management to restore or connect terrestrial landscapes often assumes that species will track
298 increasing temperatures to higher elevations or latitudes. However, if a species adjusts its
299 phenology, circadian rhythm, or microhabitat preferences it may not need to shift latitudinally to
300 conserve its thermal niche (at least for the time being). Thus, practitioners could then prioritize
301 preserving or enriching local habitat complexity rather than landscape connectivity [59] (Fig. 4).
302 Conversely, if species are indeed shifting broadly in space, then protecting or connecting habitat
303 solely for current ranges ignores where species will be in the future or how they will get there
304 [60]. Moreover, it is possible that if species are not shifting in absolute distance or time as
305 expected, then existing conservation and management may be more effective for SOTM than we
306 thought – and novel, and possibly unnecessary, interventions could lead to maladaptation or
307 deleterious outcomes.

308 **MOVING FORWARD WITH SOTM**

309 Embracing a multidimensional, scalable framework for conceptualizing climate-change
310 responses will lead us to redefine our understanding of species' ability to track climate change.
311 This paradigm shift could resolve the ongoing paradox that, while ecosystems on the whole are
312 responding to climate change, few single-species responses can be predicted well with existing
313 methods. Part of this puzzle is the recurring finding that ecological and life-history traits rarely
314 predict single-species responses well, despite strong theoretical underpinnings, but our
315 framework will help to bring trait-based predictions into focus. Furthermore, this framework can
316 inspire multidimensional thinking across all ecological disciplines, expanding our understanding
317 of species distributions and anthropogenic responses beyond two-dimensional space (see
318 Outstanding Questions). With new insights we are better able to ready society for SOTM [5],
319 providing a more nuanced picture of which species may be more likely to shift into new places,

320 which may take up new daily activity patterns, which may adjust their phenology earlier in the
321 year, and how all of these shifts affect humans.

322

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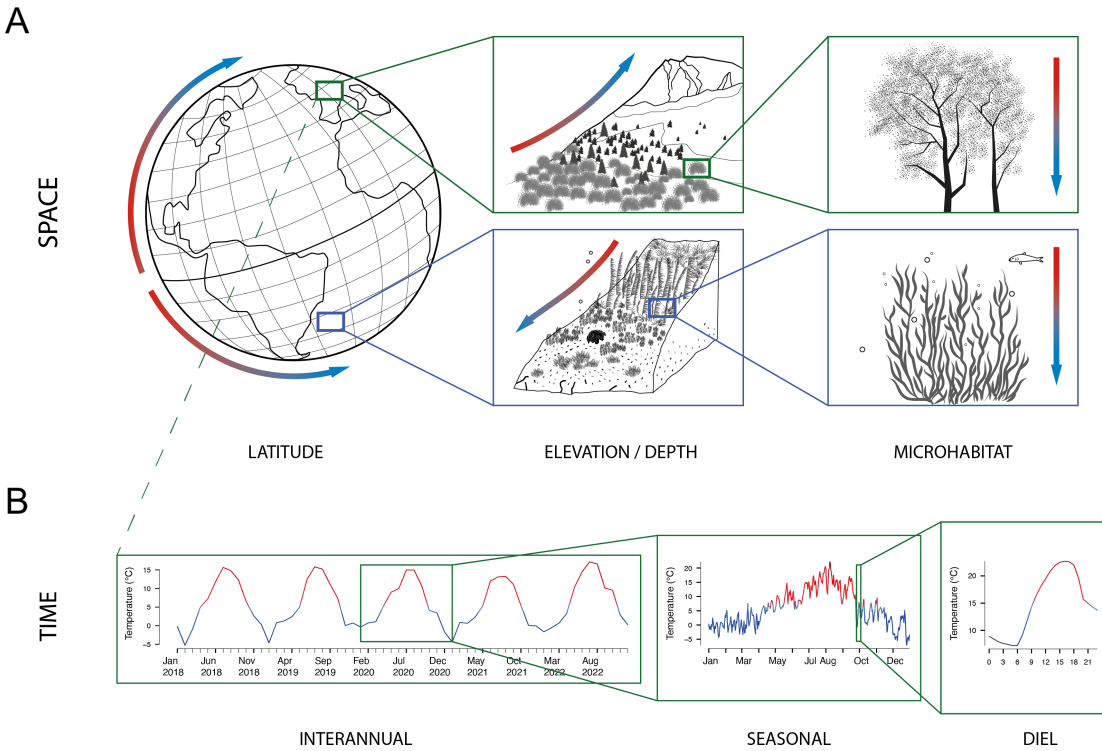
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474

475 **Figure 1.**

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

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

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

479 experiencing climate change have also exhibited shifts in time, ranging from interannual

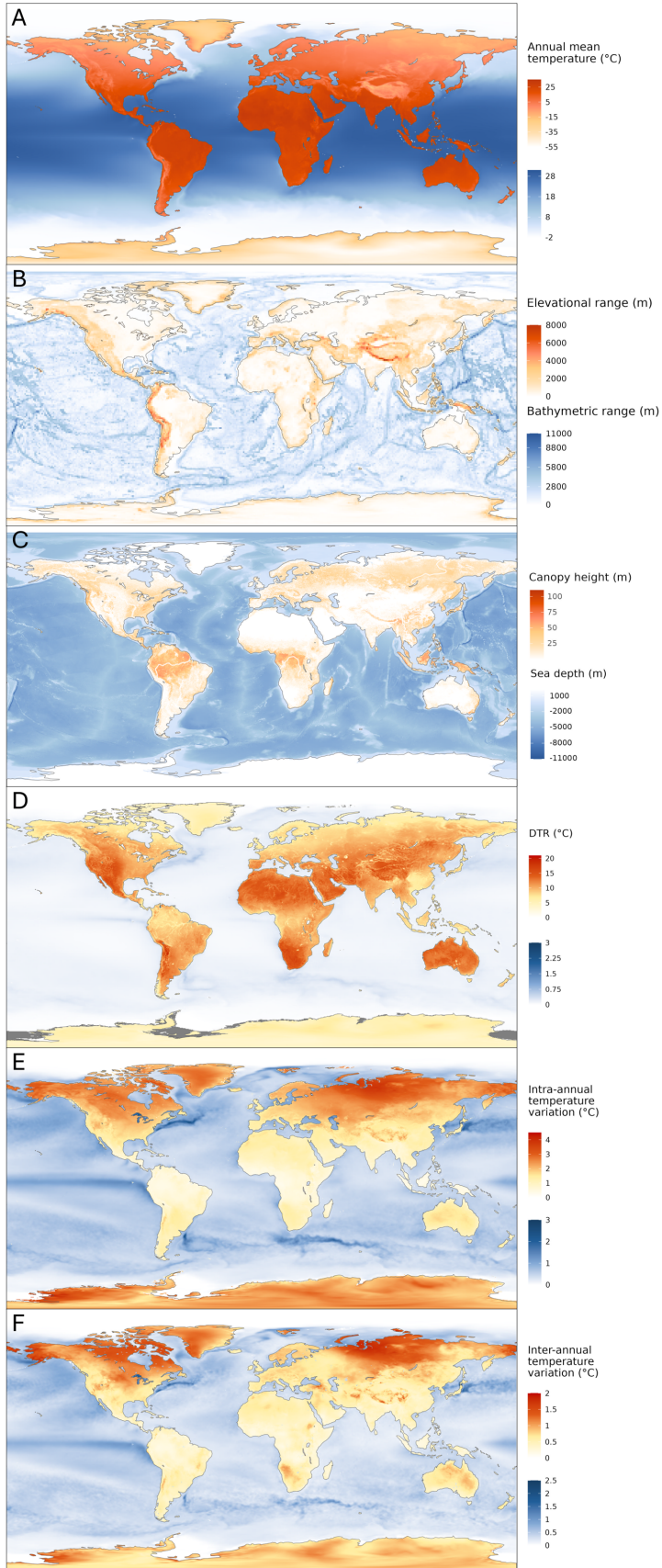
480 phenomena to altered timing of seasonal behaviors (phenological shifts) and changing diel

481 patterns. These spatial and temporal shifts at different scales and along different gradients can be

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

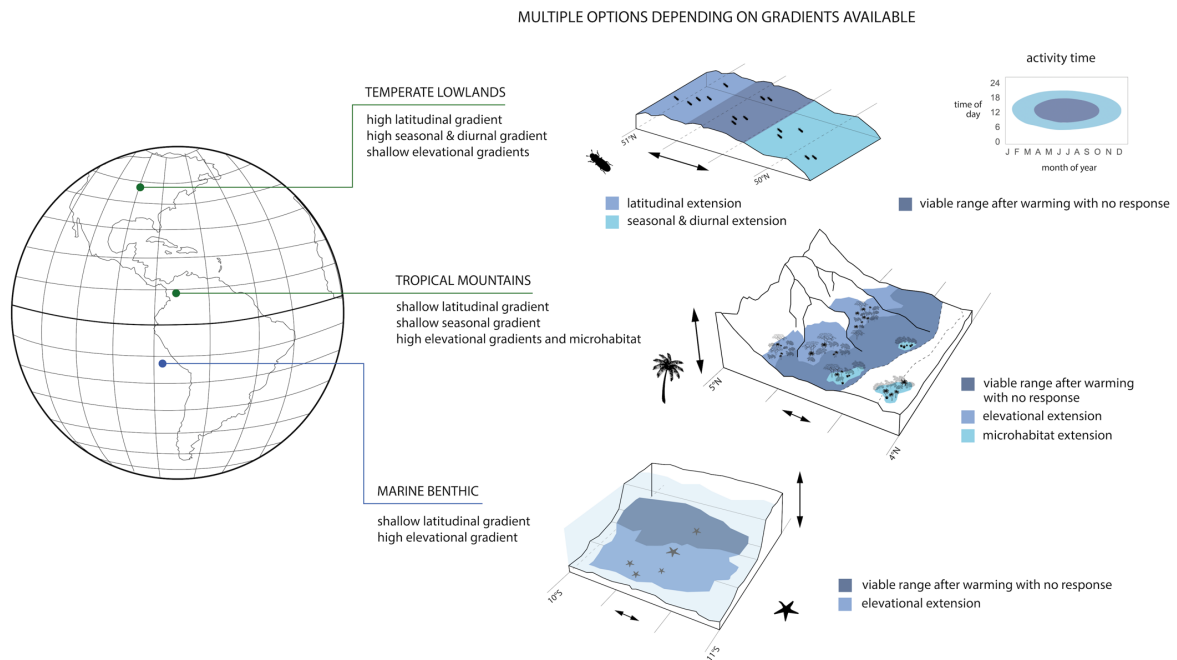
483 dimensions, and at any temporal or spatial scale, species may have different gradients available

484 to them along which to shift.



486 **Figure 2.**

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



496

497 **Figure 3.**

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

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

500 environments – temperate grassland lowlands (top), tropical forested mountains (middle), and

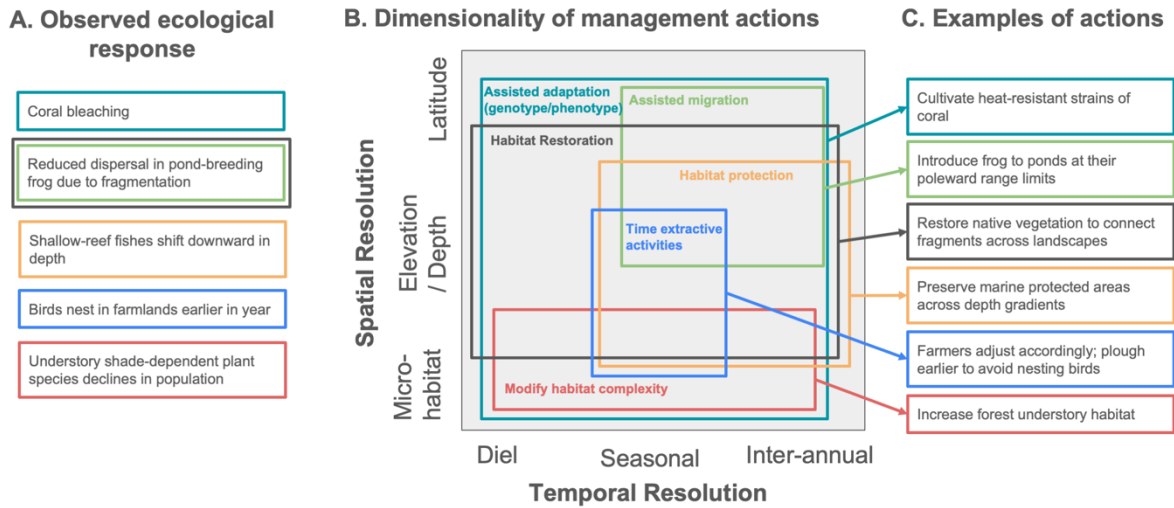
501 marine seafloor (bottom) – show variable access to thermal gradients across multiple

502 dimensions. Differing available gradients may, in turn, shift expectations about the type and

503 magnitude of spatial or temporal shift following climate warming for given species – with each

504 species (e.g., a beetle [top], an understory palm [middle], or a sea star [bottom]) having its own

505 ability or limitations to effectively track temperature given its life history and traits.



506

507 **Figure 4.**

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

510 Here, we highlight common ecological responses to climate change (A) and six different types of
 511 management actions (B) each of which – with specific examples (C) [61–66] – has an
 512 approximate zone of influence across different aspects of spatial and temporal scale. For
 513 example, assisted migration generally helps species cope with range shifts across broader spatial
 514 scales (e.g., latitude) and is effective across multi-annual time scales, whereas increasing habitat
 515 complexity through understory restoration primarily provides microhabitat buffering that can
 516 also facilitate thermal tracking across many time scales, from daily to long-term.

517

518 **GLOSSARY**

- 519 ● **Biotic Interaction:** The association – whether facilitative, antagonistic, or neutral in
520 outcome – between two living creatures. Biotic interactions can either hinder or facilitate
521 range shifts depending on the nature of the relationship.
- 522 ● **Circadian Rhythm:** Biological processes over a 24-hour time period; influenced by
523 environmental variables such as temperature or day length.
- 524 ● **Dimension:** Distinct axes along which a species can respond to climate change, with two
525 primary dimensions: space (e.g., microhabitat to latitude) and time (e.g., diel to inter-
526 annual).
- 527 ● **Gradient:** A cline in environmental conditions in space or time such as temperature
528 change across habitat types or from one season to the next.
- 529 ● **Microhabitat:** The fine scale, localized environment where an organism lives, which
530 often has unique attributes that differ from the surrounding environment.
- 531 ● **Phenological shift:** Changes in the seasonal timing of life-cycle processes such as
532 breeding, migration or flowering, in response to climate change.
- 533 ● **Range shift:** The expansion or contraction of species geographic ranges in response to
534 changing environmental conditions.
- 535 ● **Shift:** Referencing broadly to changes in distribution and/or phenology; thus ‘shifts’ in
536 space and/or time.
- 537 ● **Scale:** Temporal and spatial extent of environmental change or ecological response
538 ranging from broad (macro) to fine (micro) levels of scale.
- 539 ● **Species on the move (SOTM):** Species that are shifting their spatial distributions and/or
540 timing of their life history/life-cycle processes in response to climate change.

- 541 • **Thermal niche:** The range of temperatures experienced by a species across space and
542 time in which it can survive, reproduce, and perform vital ecological functions.