

1 **Title:**

2 Amazonian and Andean tree communities are not tracking current climate warming

3

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42 **Abstract**

43

44 Climate change is shifting species distributions, leading to changes in community composition
45 and novel species assemblages worldwide. However, the responses of tropical forests to climate
46 change across large-scale environmental gradients remain largely unexplored. Using long-term
47 data over 66,000 trees of more than 2,500 species occurring over 3,500 m elevation along the
48 hyperdiverse Amazon-to-Andes elevational gradient, we assessed community-level shifts in
49 species composition through a 44-year time span. We tested for the predicted increase in relative
50 abundances of species from warmer climates (thermophilization) along the Amazon-to-Andes
51 elevational gradients in Peru and Bolivia. Additionally, we examined the relative contributions of
52 tree mortality, recruitment, and growth to observed compositional changes. Mean
53 thermophilization rates across the Amazon-to-Andes gradient were slow relative to concordant
54 changes in regional temperatures. Thermophilization rates were positive and more variable
55 among Andean forest plots compared to Amazonian plots but were fastest at mid-elevations
56 around the cloud base. Across all elevations, thermophilization rates were driven primarily by
57 tree mortality and decreased growth of highland species rather than an influx of lowland species
58 with higher thermal optima. Given the high variability of community-level responses to warming
59 along the elevational gradients and the generally slower-than-warming rates of compositional
60 change, we conclude that most tropical tree species, and especially Amazonian tree species, will
61 not be able to escape current or future climate change through upward range shifts.

62

63 **Keywords:** Global warming, range shifts, species migration, thermal niches, tropical
64 biodiversity

65 **Significance statement**

66

67 Our study investigates how climate change affects species composition in tropical forests across
68 the Amazon-to-Andes elevational gradient in Peru and Bolivia. Using long-term data over four
69 decades, we found that while species from warmer climates showed some increase in relative
70 abundance (thermophilization), the process was slower than regional temperature increases.
71 Thermophilization was faster at mid-elevations near the cloud base and was primarily driven by
72 tree mortality and slowed growth of highland species rather than an influx of lowland species.
73 Given the slow rate of compositional change and high variability in community responses, our
74 study concludes that most tropical tree species, especially those in the Amazon, are unlikely to
75 shift upward in range fast enough to adapt to ongoing climate change.

76 **Introduction**

77

78 Tropical regions have warmed at an average of 0.26 °C per decade since the mid-1970s (1), and in
79 the Neotropics, contemporary rates of climate warming exceed those observed during any time in
80 the last 50,000 years (2). Moreover, temperatures in some montane tropical ecosystems (e.g., the
81 Andes) have increased approximately 0.10 - 0.11 °C per decade since 1939 (3) and are predicted
82 to increase 2 - 7 °C this century (4). Changes in precipitation, drought, fire, and nitrogen deposition
83 are also associated with changes in temperature (5–7). The rapid pace of ongoing environmental
84 changes presents unprecedented challenges to plant and animal species across tropical ecosystems,
85 and species responses to these challenges are just beginning to be understood.

86

87 Climate change is causing the displacement of species distributions along environmental gradients,
88 resulting in compositional shifts and the emergence of novel species assemblages (8–10). Although
89 these shifts have been well documented in the palaeoecological record, how they occur over shorter
90 timescales and vary between different biogeographic regions remain key questions (11, 12). Within
91 communities, the relative abundance of species adapted to cooler temperatures is predicted to
92 decrease with warming, while the relative abundance of species adapted to hotter temperatures is
93 predicted to increase, a pattern known as community thermophilization (13). The thermophilization
94 hypothesis has been previously tested across montane tropical forests in the Andes using forest
95 surveys of tree populations (14) and across ecoregions in the New World using plant collections
96 (15). These studies show an overall increase in the abundance of warm-adapted species but also
97 high heterogeneity in thermophilization rates across plant communities and regions, which remains
98 unexplained. Furthermore, the thermophilization hypothesis remains untested in lowland tropical

99 ecosystems such as Amazonian forests (e.g., *floodplain* and *terra firme* forests), and the
100 contributions of underlying demographic processes (growth, recruitment, mortality) to
101 thermophilization remain poorly characterized.

102

103 Differences in the thermophilization rates of forest communities along elevational gradients may
104 result from several ecological processes. First, thermophilization rates may be faster at lower
105 elevations due to faster rates of recruitment and mortality (i.e., faster turnover rates) (16, 17).
106 Second, thermophilization may be influenced by differences in species' thermal tolerances. For
107 example, species from lowland Amazonia are not only adapted to higher temperatures but also
108 tend to have narrower thermal tolerances (i.e., smaller thermal safety margins) compared to species
109 in the highlands (18–20). If lowland species are adapted to a smaller range of environmental
110 conditions, they might be more sensitive to climate change (21), leading to faster thermophilization
111 in lowland communities compared to montane forests. Third, thermophilization rates may be
112 slower in lowland Amazonian than in Andean montane forests due to stronger effects of drought
113 and biotic constraints at lower elevations. Increased drought severity and frequency in the Amazon
114 (22) are shifting tree community composition toward more drought-tolerant species (23, 24). If
115 drought-tolerance traits are uncorrelated with thermal-tolerance traits, then we might observe
116 lower thermophilization rates in lowland forests due to the overriding effect of drought. In
117 addition, theory and some empirical evidence suggest that lower elevational range limits of species
118 are shaped more by biotic interactions than abiotic factors (25–27). If this is true, populations at
119 higher elevations will respond more quickly to climate change, causing rapid shifts in species'
120 upper range limits and increasing thermophilization of Andean communities relative to Amazonian
121 communities. Finally, rates of thermophilization may be slower in the lowlands due to niche

122 truncation and an absence of potential immigrants from hotter areas, which could allow incumbent
123 species to persist even under suboptimal conditions (15).

124

125 Despite widespread interest in the demographic processes underlying community-level responses
126 to climate change (28, 29), little is known about their relative importance in determining
127 compositional change and thermophilization patterns in the Amazon and Andes.

128 Thermophilization reflects the culmination of three non-mutually exclusive demographic
129 processes that can influence species' relative abundances within communities: 1) faster tree
130 growth of warm-adapted than cold-adapted species; 2) faster tree mortality of cold-adapted than
131 warm-adapted species; and/or 3) faster recruitment of warm-adapted than cold-adapted species.

132 Previous studies of montane tropical forests in the Colombian Andes (30) and tropical forests
133 along an elevational gradient in Costa Rica (31) both concluded that tree mortality was the main
134 driver of thermophilization. However, comparative studies of the demographic drivers of
135 thermophilization across the Amazon-to-Andes elevational gradient are still lacking.

136

137 In this study, we tested the thermophilization hypothesis and the contributions of individual
138 demographic processes to thermophilization across the hyper-diverse Amazon-to-Andes
139 elevational gradient. We used two of the world's largest elevational transects located on the
140 eastern slope of the Bolivian and Peruvian Andes, spanning lowland western Amazonian forests
141 to the eastern Andean treeline. These elevational transects are represented through
142 comprehensive networks of forest plots censused repeatedly over the last 44 years. Using long-
143 term data from a combined total of 66 permanent forest plots (totaling 72.5 ha), we addressed
144 three questions about the pace and underlying demographic basis of observed changes in tree

145 community composition. Specifically, we asked: (1) Does the rate of thermophilization vary with
146 elevation? 2) Do thermophilization rates differ between Amazonian and Andean forests? and 3)
147 What are the individual contributions of tree mortality, recruitment, and growth to observed
148 thermophilization rates? Our study provides novel insights into the patterns and causes of
149 tropical forest responses to climate change.

150

151 **Methods**

152

153 *Study area*

154 The study was conducted on the eastern slopes of the Bolivian and Peruvian Andes (Central
155 Andes) along two elevational gradients extending from the Andean treeline at ~3700 m to the
156 lowland Amazon basin at 190 m. In Bolivia, the elevational gradient encompasses mature forests
157 ranging from 200 m to 3400 m in the Madidi region, including the protected areas of Madidi
158 National Park (13.80° S, 67.63° W), Apolobamba (14.99° S, 68.82° W), and the Pilon-Lajas
159 Biosphere Reserve (15.00° S, 67.33° W). In Peru, the elevational gradient spans a stretch of
160 unbroken mature forest ranging from 300 m to 3700 m in the Manu Biosphere Reserve (11.86°
161 S, 71.72° W) and extends to 190 m in the nearby Tambopata National Reserve (12.92° S, 69.28°
162 W) (Fig. 1a). In the study area, mean annual temperature (MAT) decreases linearly with
163 increasing elevation along the gradient at an adiabatic lapse rate of $-5.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C km}^{-1}$ with mean
164 annual temperatures ranging from 26.6 °C at the lowest elevations to 6.4 °C at the treeline (2, 32,
165 33). Mean annual precipitation varies non-linearly across the gradient from 2448 to 10425 mm
166 yr^{-1} , with significant interannual variability throughout (33, 34). The study area has high cloud
167 frequency in all seasons, and the cloud base zone is estimated to be between 1200 to 2000 m (33,

168 35). Temperatures in the study area have been increasing by approximately 0.03 °C y⁻¹ in both
169 the Amazon and the Andes since 1980 (<http://berkeleyearth.org>, Fig. 1b).

170

171 ***Forest monitoring data***

172 Our dataset includes 66 permanent tree inventory plots (totaling 72.5 ha) from two large-scale
173 forest plot networks in the Central Andes of Bolivia (28 plots) and Peru (38 plots) (Fig. 1a). The
174 Bolivian elevational gradient encompasses 50 1-ha permanent plots, established and maintained
175 by the Madidi Project at the Missouri Botanical Garden since 2002
176 ([http://www.missouribotanicalgarden.org/plant-science/plant-science/south-america/the-madidi-](http://www.missouribotanicalgarden.org/plant-science/plant-science/south-america/the-madidi-project.aspx)
177 [project.aspx](http://www.missouribotanicalgarden.org/plant-science/plant-science/south-america/the-madidi-project.aspx)) but for this study, we used only a subset of 28 plots with repeated tree censuses
178 ranging from 600 to 3300 m in elevation and established between 2005 to 2010. The Peruvian
179 elevational gradient consists of 21 1-ha permanent plots established and maintained by the Andes
180 Biodiversity and Ecosystem Research Group (ABERG; <http://www.andesconservation.org/>)
181 ranging from 400 to 3625 m elevation and established between 2003 to 2017, and an additional
182 17 permanent plots ranging from 190 to 405 m in elevation and established between 1979 to
183 2014 by various investigators, including J. Terborgh, P. Nuñez, O. Phillips, and A. Gentry, are
184 currently maintained and monitored by the Amazon Forest Inventory Network (RAINFOR)
185 through ForestPlots.net (<http://www.forestplots.net/>). By including western Amazonian forests
186 below 500 m, we were able to include the lower limit populations of Andean tree species (down
187 to 190 m) along their full realized elevational ranges (Supporting Information, Fig. S1). The
188 Amazonian plots included a mix of *floodplain* and *terra firme* forests. *Floodplain* forests are
189 saturated or underwater for a significant portion of each year, while the adjacent *terra firme*
190 forests occur on older and more highly weathered soils and rarely or never flood (36).

191 The forest plots included in this study were established and remeasured multiple times following
192 highly standardized protocols (37, 38). The inventory plots were censused at least two times
193 between 1979 and 2023 (total number of tree measurements = 252,075, total number of censuses
194 = 334, average number of censuses per plot = 5, median number of censuses per plot = 5). The
195 oldest plot was established in 1979 in the Tambopata *terra firme* rain forest of Peru and has the
196 most censuses (n = 13; SI Appendix, Table S1). In total, the 66 permanent plots contained
197 66,715 stems \geq 10 cm in diameter at breast height (d.b.h.).

198

199 ***Plant identifications***

200 All botanical collections from the permanent plots were identified *in situ* and in different
201 herbaria and were compared and standardized across sites in each country. The vouchers were
202 deposited in Bolivian, Peruvian, and USA herbaria (CUZ, HOXA, HUT, LPB, MOL, USM, and
203 DAV, MO, F, WFU). Additionally, local flora and plant checklists were used as references (39–
204 45) and taxonomic experts also confirmed plant identifications. We then combined and
205 standardized the species names from all the permanent plots. The combined species list was
206 submitted to the Taxonomic Name Resolution Service (TRNS version 4.0,
207 <http://tnrs.iplantcollaborative.org/>) to standardize and validate the species names (46). All taxa
208 identified to morphospecies [e.g., sp1(5984WFR)] or with invalid names (e.g., “indet”) were
209 assigned as “undetermined.” We followed the APG IV plant classification for the valid species
210 names (47). All TNRS “accepted” species names with an overall TNRS-score below 0.9 were
211 manually reviewed, and the names were confirmed on The Plant List
212 (<http://www.theplantlist.org/>) and Tropicos (<http://www.tropicos.org>) databases. We used the
213 valid genus names as a unique species identifier if the specific epithet was not confirmed.

214 Species with an unassigned accepted TNRS name (e.g., “invalid,” “illegitimate” or “no opinion”)
215 were also manually reviewed, and the species names were corrected using The Plant List and
216 Tropicos databases. Unidentified taxa at the genus level were excluded from subsequent analysis.
217 In total, the plots included 2,523 arborescent species and morphospecies, including trees, tree
218 ferns, and palms (hereafter, “trees”).

219

220 *Species thermal distributions and thermal optima*

221 We used established protocols to estimate the geographic thermal distributions for all tree
222 species occurring in the study plots (48). For each species, we downloaded all available
223 georeferenced herbarium records from Andean-Amazonian countries (i.e., Bolivia, Colombia,
224 Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela) through the Botanical Information and Ecology Network (BIEN:
225 <http://bien.nceas.ucsb.edu/bien/>). Plant records that were missing coordinates, records that were
226 tagged by the BIEN as having coordinate errors or that had evident georeferenced errors (e.g.,
227 falling in large bodies of water), and duplicate records were all discarded. The mean annual
228 temperatures (MAT) of all specimens were calculated at the collection locations by extracting
229 the temperature values from the CHELSA (v.1.2 raster) BIOCLIM1 values at 30-arcsec
230 resolution (49). We estimated the thermal optimum for each species represented by ≥ 10
231 herbarium collection records as the mean MAT ($^{\circ}$ C) at the collection locations. For species with
232 < 10 available records or identified at the genus level (2.5%), the thermal optimum was
233 estimated as the average collection temperature calculated from all available records of
234 congeneric individuals collected from the tropical Andean-Amazonian region (48). For a small
235 number of species, there were insufficient records available at either the species or genus level;
236 these species were excluded from relevant analyses.

237

238 *Community temperature index (CTI) and thermophilization rates (TR)*

239 The Community Temperature Index (CTI) was calculated for each forest plot in each census as
240 the average thermal optimum of all the species recorded in the plot weighted by their relative
241 abundances (48). We calculated CTI using two different metrics of relative abundances. First, we
242 weighted CTI using the numbers of individuals of each species, such that changes in CTI are
243 only influenced by individuals dying or recruiting in a local population. Second, we weighted
244 CTI using the total basal area of each species (i.e., the summed cross-sectional area of stems at
245 1.3 m above ground) such that changes through time are affected by tree growth in addition to
246 individual mortality and recruitment. This second metric considers tree size as being ecologically
247 important; for instance, the death of a large tree will affect ecosystem function more than the
248 death of a small tree.

249

250 Because the central aim of our study was to understand changes in species composition due to
251 climatic drivers, we excluded trees that likely died from major disturbances caused by landslides
252 or fires, as these non-climatic mortality events can potentially obfuscate thermophilization.

253 Accordingly, we excluded from our analyses of CTI any trees that died in landslides that
254 occurred over the census period in the SPD-01, TRU-02, and TRU-06 plots and that died in fires
255 in the CUZ-01 plot (the affected trees were removed from all censuses pre- and post-
256 disturbance). For each forest plot, we then calculated the thermophilization rate as the annual
257 changes in CTI over all possible consecutive census intervals. The overall thermophilization rate
258 of each plot ($TR; ^\circ C yr^{-1}$) was also calculated as the slope of the linear least-square regression
259 between CTI and the census year (CTI calculated via the individual- and basal area-weighted

260 approaches). A positive thermophilization rate indicates an increase through time in the relative
261 abundance or basal area of species from warmer climates.

262

263 *Contribution of demographic processes to community thermophilization*

264 To assess the contributions of demographic processes to observed thermophilization patterns, we
265 partitioned the observed thermophilization rates into three components attributable solely to tree
266 basal area growth (TR_{growth}), tree basal area recruitment ($TR_{\text{recruitment}}$), and tree basal area
267 mortality ($TR_{\text{mortality}}$) for each plot over each census interval. The TR_{growth} of a plot is the
268 difference between the plot's CTI calculated using the initial and final basal areas of just the
269 stems surviving through the census period. The $TR_{\text{recruitment}}$ of a plot is the difference between the
270 CTI calculated using basal areas of all stems recorded at the end of the census interval and the
271 CTI calculated using just the basal areas of stems that survived through the census interval.
272 Finally, $TR_{\text{mortality}}$ is the difference between the CTI calculated using the initial basal areas of all
273 stems recorded in the first census and the CTI calculated using the initial basal areas of just the
274 stems that survived through the census interval (31). Positive TR_{growth} indicates that individuals of
275 species from warmer climates have grown faster (i.e., increased faster in basal area) than species
276 from colder climates during the census interval. A positive $TR_{\text{recruitment}}$ indicates faster basal area
277 recruitment rates of species from warmer climates. A positive $TR_{\text{mortality}}$ indicates higher basal
278 area mortality rates of species from colder climates.

279

280 *Statistical tests*

281 We calculated the overall mean TR with 95% confidence intervals across all forest plots. We
282 used a binomial probability test to determine whether the proportion of plots with positive TR

283 differed significantly from the null expectations of 50%. We used linear least squares regression
284 of TR vs. plot elevation to test how TR varies with elevation. We also used the smoothing
285 function of a generalized additive model (GAM) to fit response curves and to test the
286 relationship between TR and elevation. To test whether TR differs between Amazonian and
287 Andean forests, we first classified Amazonian forests as those below 500 m of elevation and
288 Andean forests as those above 500 m (50). Then, we compared mean TR between the Amazonian
289 and the Andean forests using a Mann-Whitney and two-tailed t-test. We also compared the levels
290 of variability in TR between the Andes and the Amazon using Levene's test. To determine the
291 contributions of tree mortality, recruitment, and growth to overall TR, we used the tree
292 demographic components ($TR_{\text{mortality}}$, TR_{growth} , and $TR_{\text{recruitment}}$) in a multiple linear regression
293 model to explain variation in TR.

294

295 **Results**

296

297 *Community temperature index (CTI)*

298 The average CTI of the plots ranged from 13 to 25 °C and was strongly negatively correlated
299 with plot elevation (Individual-weighted CTI: $r = -0.97$, $p < 0.0001$; basal area-weighted CTI: $r =$
300 -0.96 , $p < 0.0001$; Supporting Information Fig. S2). The strength of the CTI vs. elevation
301 relationship demonstrates the efficacy of the method and the importance of the thermal niche in
302 controlling the geographic distributions of species and community composition across
303 elevational gradients.

304

305 *Thermophilization rates across the elevational gradient*

306 CTI varied over time within the plots and along the gradient; however, some plots showed
307 consistently positive (e.g., CUZ-04) or negative (e.g., TAM-02) changes in CTI since 1979 (Fig.
308 2a, b; Supporting Information, Fig. S3a, S3b). Annualized rates of thermophilization varied
309 widely along the Amazonian-Andean elevational gradient, ranging from -0.019 to $+0.023$ $^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$
310 when using CTI based on the number of individuals and from -0.019 to $+0.025$ $^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$ when
311 using CTI based on basal areas (Fig. 3a, b; Supporting Information, Table S2). The overall
312 annual community TR across all forest plots was 0.0025 $^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$ (95% CI = 0.0004 - 0.0045 $^{\circ}\text{C}$
313 yr^{-1}) for the individual-weighted metric and 0.0022 $^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$ (95% CI = -0.0001 - $+0.0043$ $^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$)
314 for the basal area-weighted metric. Thermophilization rates were not significantly correlated with
315 either the number of censuses or the number of years between censuses (Individuals-weighted: r
316 = -0.05 , $p = 0.78$; basal area-weighted: $r = -0.02$, $p = 0.89$; Supporting Information, Fig. S4).

317

318 Given the measured adiabatic lapse rate of 5.5 $^{\circ}\text{C km}^{-1}$ (2), the thermophilization rates reported
319 here correspond to a plot-level mean upward elevational migration rate of 0.45 m yr^{-1} (95% CI =
320 0.04 – 0.85 m yr^{-1}) using the individual-weighted metric; and 0.40 m yr^{-1} (95% CI = -0.04 -
321 $+0.75$ m yr^{-1}) using the basal area-weighted metric (Supporting Information, Table S2). Of the 66
322 plots, 62% and 59% had positive thermophilization rates using the individual-weighted ($n = 41$)
323 and basal area-weighted ($n = 39$) metrics, respectively. However, the overall number of plots
324 with positive thermophilization rates along the gradient was not more than expected under the
325 null expectation (binomial probability; $p = 0.06$ and $p = 0.18$ for individual and basal-area
326 metrics, respectively).

327

328 *Differences in thermophilization rates between Amazonian and Andean forests*

329 Along the elevational gradient, thermophilization rates were fastest and consistently positive at
330 mid-elevations around the cloud base between 1200 m - 2000 m asl (Fig. 3, Supporting
331 Information, Fig. S5). In contrast, the plots with negative TR were mainly located in the lowland
332 Amazonian (< 500 m) and at higher elevations in upper montane forests (> 2500 m) (Fig. 3a, b
333 Supporting Information, Table S2, Fig. S5). Because of the fast thermophilization at middle
334 elevations, there was a non-linear relationship between thermophilization rates and elevation
335 (Individuals-weighted: $r = -0.01$, $p = 0.75$; basal area-weighted: $r = -0.006$, $p = 0.44$; Fig. 3a, b).
336
337 Mean thermophilization rates in lowland Amazonian plots (elevation < 500 m; $n = 17$ plots) were
338 significantly slower than their Andean counterparts (elevation > 500 m; $n = 49$ plots) for the
339 basal area-weighted metric (Two-tailed t-test, $p = 0.04$; Fig. 4) but showed a non-significant
340 difference for the individual-weighted metric (Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test; $p = 0.26$; Fig. 4).
341 This suggests that the Amazonian tree communities are not changing directionally with regards
342 to species' thermal niches [Amazon TR = $0.0007 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$ (95% CI = $-0.0008 - +0.0023 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$)
343 for individuals, and $-0.0007 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$ (95% CI = $-0.0027 - +0.0013 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$) for basal area-
344 weighted], while Andean tree communities had very slow and heterogeneous rates of
345 thermophilization [Andean TR = $0.0031 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$ (95% CI = $-0.0001 - +0.0060 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$) for the
346 individual-weighted metric and $0.0032 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$ (95% CI = $0.0001 - 0.00005 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$) for the basal
347 area-weighted metric]. Finally, TR was much more variable in the Andes than in the Amazon
348 (Levene test; $p < 0.001$ for both individual and basal area metrics; Fig. 4).

349

350 ***Mortality, growth, and recruitment effects on community thermophilization***

351 Across all plots along the Amazon-to-Andes elevational gradient, changes in plot-level TR were
352 driven primarily by differential tree mortality ($TR_{\text{mortality}}$) as opposed to differential growth
353 (TR_{growth}) or tree recruitment ($TR_{\text{recruitment}}$) (Fig. 5). In 61% of the forest plots, $TR_{\text{mortality}}$
354 accounted for the largest proportion of observed thermophilization. In contrast to TR_{growth} and
355 $TR_{\text{recruitment}}$ were dominant drivers in just 26% and 13% of the plots, respectively. $TR_{\text{mortality}}$
356 showed strong positive correlations in plot-level thermophilization. TR_{growth} was also positively
357 correlated with overall TR, whereas the $TR_{\text{recruitment}}$ showed no relationship with TR (Supporting
358 Information, Table S3, Fig. S6). When analyzing Amazonian and Andean plots separately, we
359 did not observe significant correlations between TR and $TR_{\text{mortality}}$, TR_{growth} or $TR_{\text{recruitment}}$ in the
360 lowland Amazonian plots. In the Andean plots, in contrast, $TR_{\text{mortality}}$ had a strong positive
361 correlation with TR. TR_{growth} had a significant positive correlation with TR, and $TR_{\text{recruitment}}$ had a
362 significant negative correlation with TR (Supporting Information, Table S4, S5; Fig. S7).

363

364 **Discussion**

365

366 *Thermophilization rates are slower than warming rates*

367 Using comprehensive long-term monitoring datasets from 66 forest plots spanning 3 degrees of
368 latitude, 3500 m in elevation, and ~ 19 °C of temperature, we found little or no evidence of
369 thermophilization of tree communities in both the lowland Amazonian or the high Andes, but a
370 strong signal of thermophilization in mid-elevation forests ($\sim 1200 - 2000$ m). We find that
371 observed thermophilization rates were more than an order of magnitude slower than regional
372 warming rates, indicating that changes in community composition are not keeping pace with
373 temperature increases, at least in the life-stages examined in this study. The overall rates of

374 thermophilization averaged $0.0025\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$ (individual-weighted) to $0.0022\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$ (basal area-
375 weighted). When viewed in the context of predicted climate change, our results suggest that by
376 ~2100 the community temperature index (CTI) of Amazonian and Andean tree communities will
377 have only changed by less than a quarter degree Celsius ($0.19 - 0.17\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, based on our current
378 migration rates), while the ambient temperatures in this region are predicted to increase by 2 - 7
379 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (4), depending on the location along the elevational gradient. Slow thermophilization will
380 increase the “climatic debt” of forest communities, potentially reducing the ecosystem services
381 they can provide and putting them at greater risk of collapse (51, 52), especially as compositional
382 changes are driven by increased mortality of species along the lower portions of their ranges (i.e.,
383 range contractions).

384

385 *Thermophilization is largely absent in the Amazon and highly variable in the Andes*

386 Thermophilization rates in Andean forests were, on average, higher and more variable than in
387 lowland Amazonian forests (Fig. 3, 4). These results indicate that tree community responses to
388 climate warming are absent (in terms of thermophilization) in the Amazon, but slow and highly
389 variable among plots in the Andes. Indeed, the signal appears to reflect more of a climatic
390 disruption (via increased mortality rates) than a climatic migration (via increased recruitment
391 rates). Although our study is one of the first to compare thermophilization between Amazonian
392 and Andean tree communities based on plot census data, the findings broadly mirror those of a
393 large-scale study using herbarium collection records (15). In their study, Feeley et al. (2020)
394 found slower thermophilization rates in the lowland tropics compared to higher latitudes and
395 elevations.

396 Several factors may explain the lack of thermophilization in Amazonian tree communities
397 compared to Andean forests. First, compensatory changes in tree demographic rates (53) in the
398 Amazonian forest may buffer population dynamics against temperature warming. Higher growth
399 of individual trees can compensate for lower survival and recruitment rates, allowing for the
400 persistence of Amazonian populations, though this depends critically on tree fecundity, whose
401 response to climate change remains unknown in the tropics. For example, plots located in
402 *floodplain* forests often showed negative thermophilization rates mainly driven by differential
403 stem growth (Fig. 5, Supporting Information Table S2). Second, lowland Amazonian tree species
404 may have greater tolerance to climate warming through local historical adaptation with
405 persistence over time (20, 54). Also, it is possible that our characterization of thermal optima in
406 Amazonian trees is inaccurate for species with truncated thermal niches (19). Finally, lowland
407 species may be able to persist longer than predicted under increasing temperatures due to the
408 lack of immigration from hotter areas and an absence of competition with species that are better
409 adapted to the new conditions.

410

411 Positive rates of thermophilization in some lowland habitat types may also be counterbalanced
412 by negative rates of thermophilization in other local habitat types. In Amazonian forests,
413 physiographic differences between *floodplain* and *terra firme* forests may explain contrasting
414 relationships between demographic processes and thermophilization. We found that
415 thermophilization was positively correlated with tree mortality in 73 % of the *terra firme* plots.
416 In contrast, thermophilization was negatively associated with growth in 50 % of the *floodplain*
417 plots (Supporting Information, Fig. S8). This can be explained by the increase in tree mortality of
418 wet-affiliated taxa (24) in *terra firme* forests. In addition, flooded areas could buffer the negative

419 effects of droughts, decreasing tree mortality and increasing tree growth. Finally, multiple
420 droughts in the last three decades are driving slow but directional shifts in species composition
421 toward more drought-tolerant species across the Amazon (24). The lack of thermophilization in
422 the Amazon suggests weak relationships between drought-tolerance traits and thermal-tolerance
423 traits. Alternatively, these drought events could also promote longer periods of tree growth in
424 *floodplain* forests because the roots will potentially be closer to the water table, extending the
425 growing season. This current inertia of Amazonian tree communities in response to climate
426 warming could lead to future lowland biotic attrition (55) if the thermal niches of the lowland
427 species modeled here reflect likely climatic tolerances of species.

428

429 ***Thermophilization is driven primarily by differential tree mortality***

430 Among the three demographic processes examined in our study (growth, mortality, recruitment),
431 rates of thermophilization were most strongly determined by patterns of tree mortality and
432 growth. There are several possible explanations for this. First, mortality and recruitment could be
433 decoupled in time, especially since we only considered trees with diameters ≥ 10 cm. Trees
434 reaching the minimum measurable size of 10 cm d.b.h. can be decades to centuries old, having
435 recruited in cooler than current temperatures. In this case, thermophilization resulting from
436 growth may be a good indicator of future plant performance, particularly as mortality is a fast
437 demographic process, while recruitment is inherently slower. If this is true, an examination of
438 juvenile size classes (seedling and small saplings) should show accelerated thermophilization
439 rates, with changes concentrated in recruitment as opposed to mortality. Second, our results
440 suggest that warming may be driving elevated mortality of cold-adapted less-thermophilic
441 species compared to warm-adapted thermophilic species, consistent with findings from

442 Colombia and Costa Rica (30, 31). High tree mortality, particularly in the Andes, can be
443 explained by the incapability of species to persist in areas where temperature increase exceeds
444 species' thermal tolerance, causing dieback along the lower hotter portions of species' ranges.
445 Finally, the observed positive effect of tree growth on thermophilization may be due to the high
446 growth of warm-adapted species rather than the cold-adapted species along the gradient.

447

448 Drought-induced tree mortality could also be causing shifts in species composition and function
449 in Andean forests by killing trees preferentially in the warmer (lower) portions of their ranges.
450 This is supported by the fact that there have been three major drought events in the Amazon
451 basin in the last two decades, increasing tree mortality and reshuffling species composition (24,
452 56, 57). In our study, the highest thermophilization rates were found around the cloud base
453 (~1200-2000 m, Fig. 3a, b), where high tree mortality was reported (17). These results contrast
454 with those of Fadrique *et al.* 2018, who reported negative thermophilization at elevations
455 corresponding to the cloud base and suggested that the cloud base may be a barrier to species
456 migrations. Our results suggest that the cloud base zone is shifting in species composition to
457 higher abundances of more heat-tolerant species, potentially due to the interplay of drought
458 events and heat stress leading to a future forest die-off in response to climate change (58) and,
459 therefore to a high risk for biotic attrition.

460

461 In conclusion, slow thermophilization rates for Andean forests and the absence of
462 thermophilization from lowland Amazonian forests indicate that they are likely to fall out of
463 equilibrium with climate over the coming decades, if not already. As warming continues in
464 tropical forests, long-term monitoring of growth, mortality, recruitment, and fecundity will be

465 imperative for understanding the future population and community dynamics of Amazonian and
466 Andean forests.

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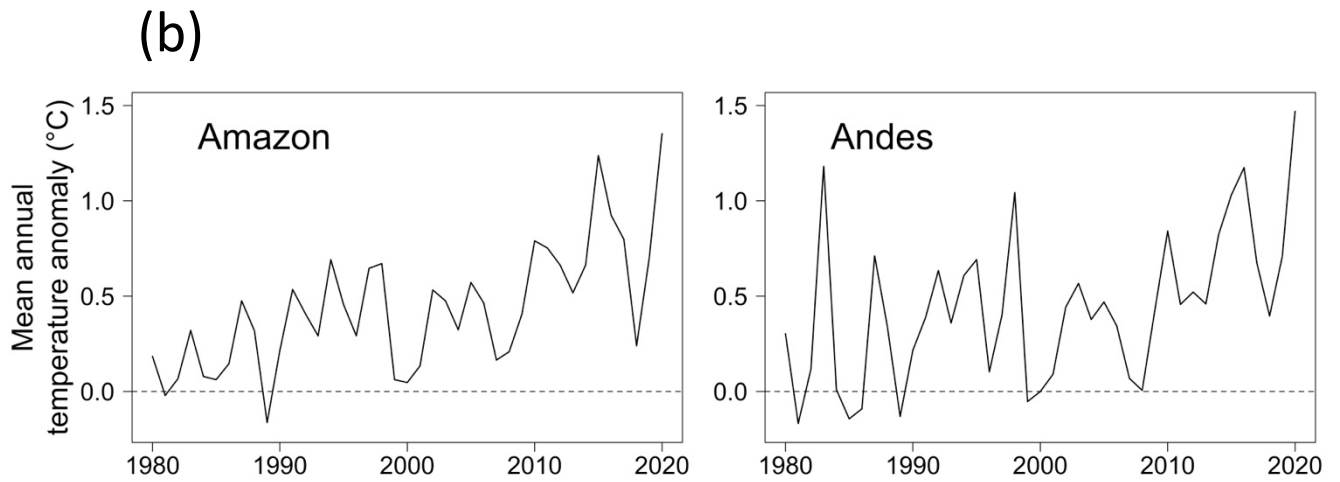
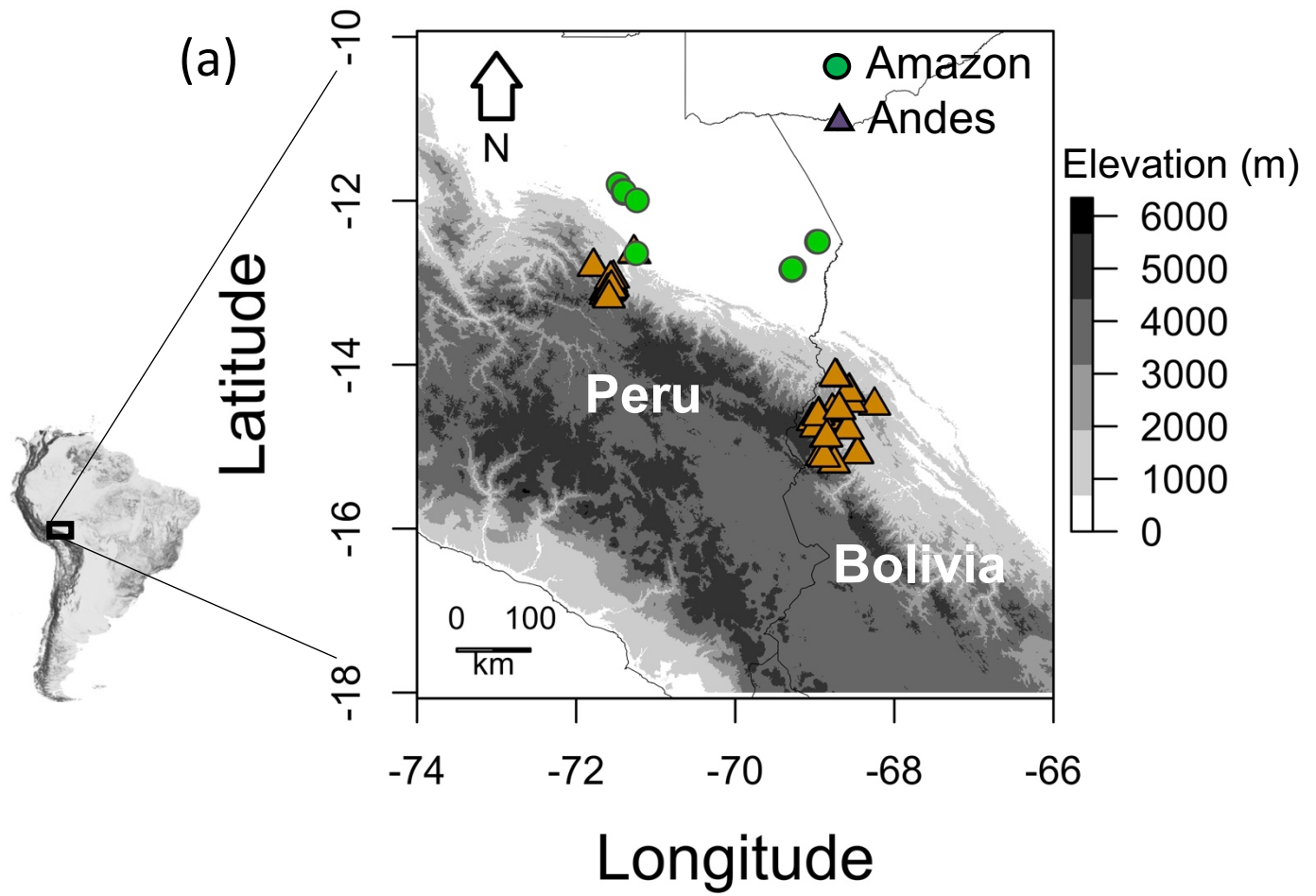
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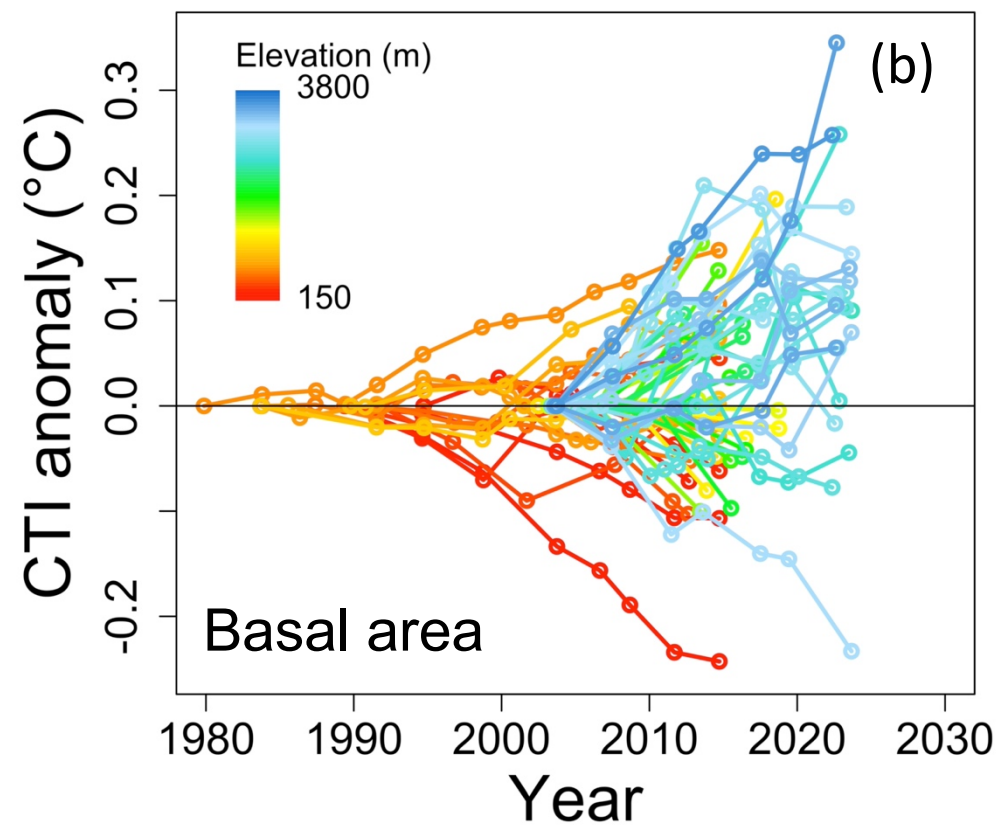
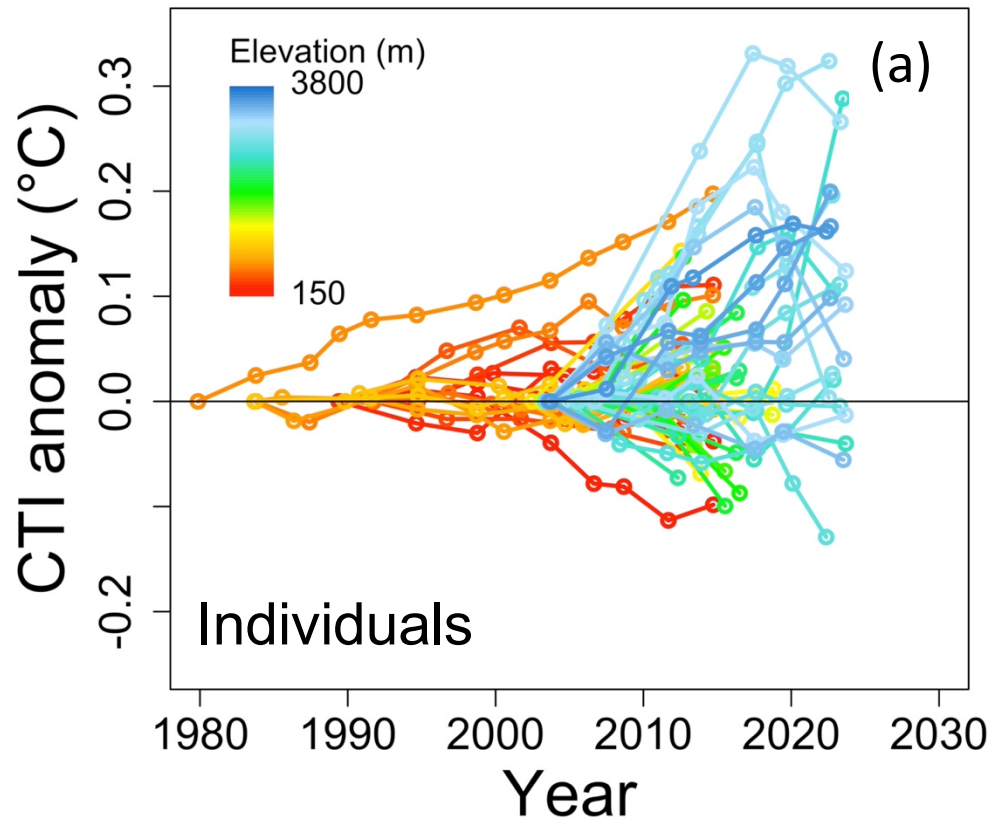
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627 Figure 1. (a) A map of the 66 permanent forest plots along the Amazon-to-Andes elevational
628 gradient in Bolivia and Peru. The green circles represent the Amazonian forest plots (<500 m
629 asl), and the orange triangles represent the Andean plots (≥ 500 m asl). (b) Temperature
630 anomalies compared to 1980 in the Amazon (climate stations in Puerto Maldonado) and in the
631 Andes (climate stations in Cusco) downloaded via Berkeley Earth Surface Temperature
632 (<http://berkeleyearth.org>). Temperatures increased by ~ 1.17 (~ 0.0292 °C y^{-1}) in Puerto
633 Maldonado and by ~ 1.17 °C (~ 0.0291 °C y^{-1}) in Cusco since 1980.

634

635



636 Figure 2. The estimated community temperature index (CTI) anomaly for the 66 permanent
637 forest plots. The CTI anomaly was calculated as the difference between a plot's CTI in year i and
638 the plots' initial CTI along the Andes-to-Amazon elevational transects in Bolivia and Peru over
639 44 years (range of time intervals = 2 to 10 years per plot). Increases in CTI (i.e., positive CTI
640 anomaly) indicate an increase in the relative abundance or basal area of more-thermophilic
641 species from warmer climates over time-based on the (a) individual-weight CTI and (b) basal
642 area-weighted CTI. The black horizontal line represents no change in CTI. Colored lines
643 correspond to each plot at different time intervals along the elevational gradient.

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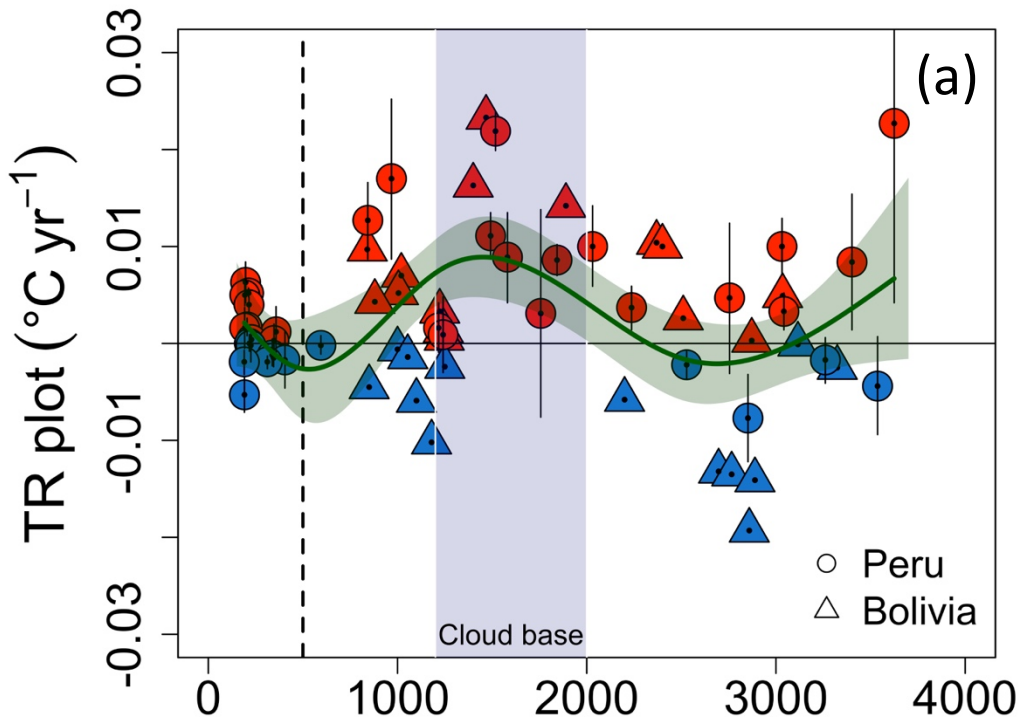
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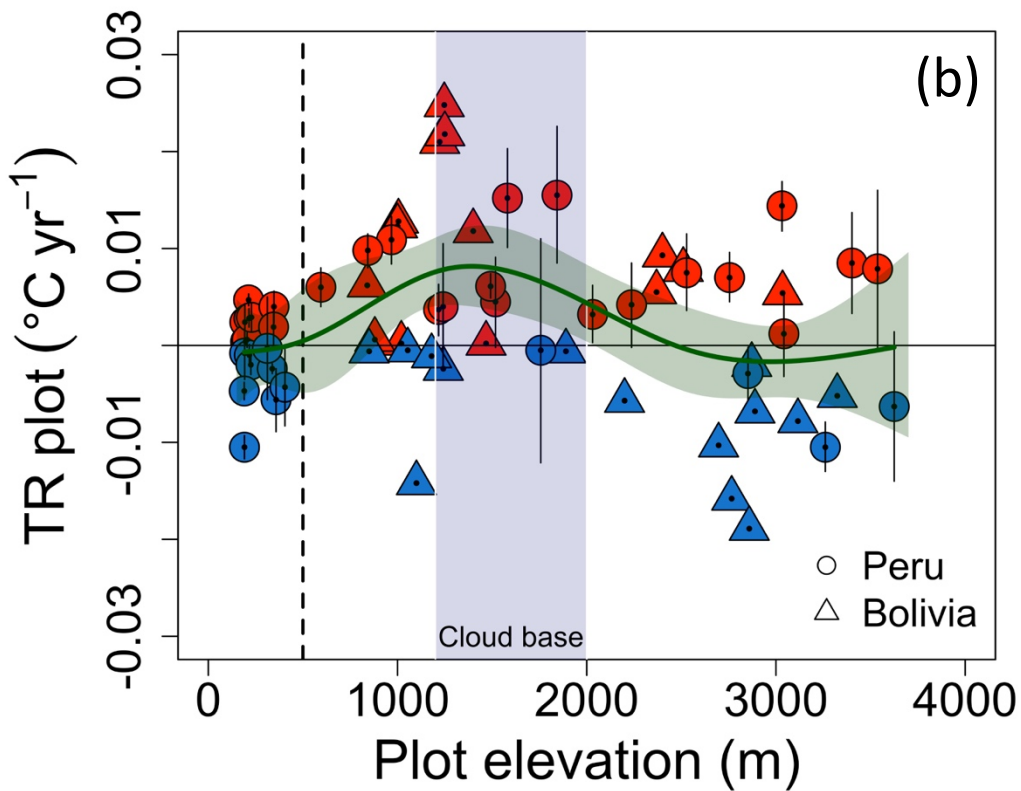
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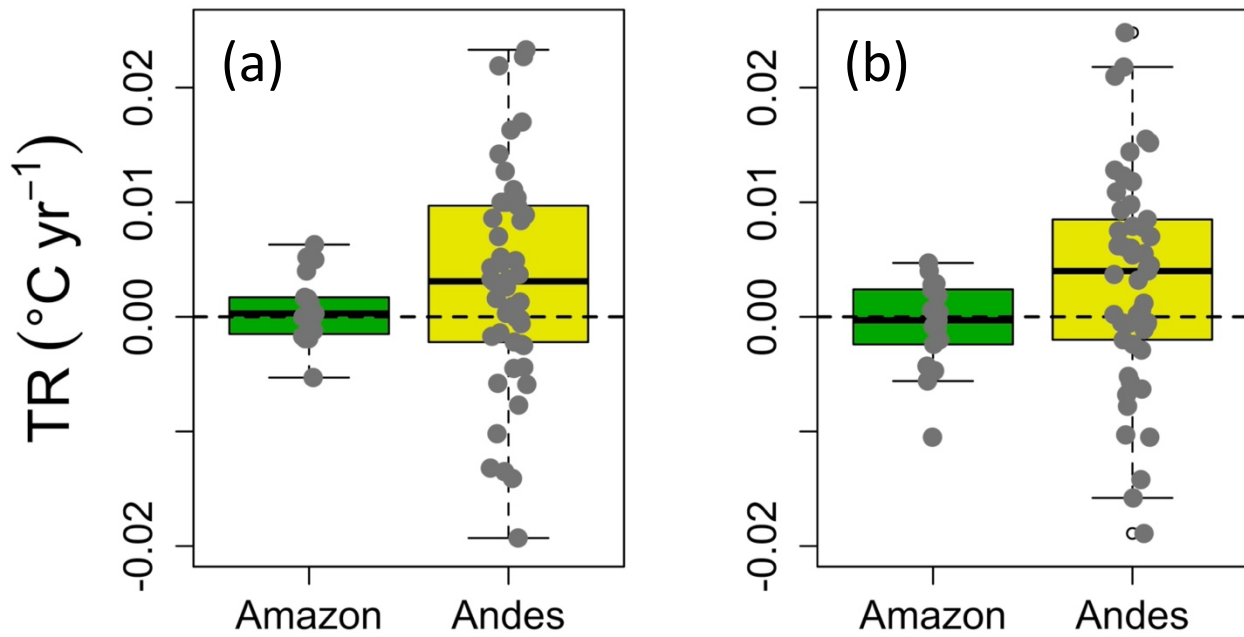
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662 Figure 3. The estimated plot-level thermophilization rates (TR) for the 66 Amazonian and
663 Andean forests plots with multiple censuses based on the (a) individual-weighted community
664 temperature index (CTI) and (b) basal area-weighted CTI. TR was calculated as the slope of the
665 linear least-square regression between CTI and census year. Each circle (Peru) or triangle
666 (Bolivia) represents one forest plot; red and blue colors represent positive and negative TR,
667 respectively. Error bars represent the 95% confidence intervals based on the linear least-square
668 regressions of the CTI versus the census year of each plot. Circles and triangles with no error
669 bars represent plots with one census interval. The dashed vertical line indicates the approximate
670 transition from Amazonian to Andean forests at 500 m. The solid green line is the generalized
671 additive model (GAM) fit using the smoothing function with 95% confidence limits. Vertical
672 rectangles represent the position of the cloud base along the gradient.



673 Figure 4. Boxplots showing variation in estimated plot-level thermophilization rates (TR) for the
 674 Amazonian (n = 17) and Andean (n = 49) forests plots based on the (a) individual-weighted
 675 community temperature index (CTI) and (b) basal area-weighted CTI.

677 Figure 5. Estimated changes in plot-level thermophilization rates (TR_{plot}) due to tree mortality
678 ($TR_{\text{mortality}}$), tree recruitment ($TR_{\text{recruitment}}$), and stem growth (TR_{growth}) along the Amazon-to-Andes
679 elevational gradient. Forest plots are ordered from the low to high elevation. The dashed vertical
680 lines indicate the approximate transition from Amazonian and Andean forests at 500 m. Positive
681 changes (red bars) indicate increased abundances of taxa from relatively warmer climates.