

Differences in the climatic debts of birds and butterflies at a continental scale

Vincent Devictor^{1*}, Chris van Swaay², Tom Brereton³, Lluís Brotons^{4,5}, Dan Chamberlain⁶, Janne Heliölä⁷, Sergi Herrando⁴, Romain Julliard⁸, Mikko Kuussaari⁷, Åke Lindström⁹, Jiří Reif¹⁰, David B. Roy¹¹, Oliver Schweiger¹², Josef Settele¹², Constantí Stefanescu¹³, Arco Van Strien¹⁴, Chris Van Turnhout^{15,16}, Zdeněk Vermouzek¹⁷, Michiel WallisDeVries^{2,18}, Irma Wynhoff² and Frédéric Jiguet⁸

Climate changes have profound effects on the distribution of numerous plant and animal species^{1–3}. However, whether and how different taxonomic groups are able to track climate changes at large spatial scales is still unclear. Here, we measure and compare the climatic debt accumulated by bird and butterfly communities at a European scale over two decades (1990–2008). We quantified the yearly change in community composition in response to climate change for 9,490 bird and 2,130 butterfly communities distributed across Europe⁴. We show that changes in community composition are rapid but different between birds and butterflies and equivalent to a 37 and 114 km northward shift in bird and butterfly communities, respectively. We further found that, during the same period, the northward shift in temperature in Europe was even faster, so that the climatic debts of birds and butterflies correspond to a 212 and 135 km lag behind climate. Our results indicate both that birds and butterflies do not keep up with temperature increase and the accumulation of different climatic debts for these groups at national and continental scales.

Species are not equally at risk when facing climate change. Several species-specific attributes have been identified as increasing species' vulnerability to climate change, including diets, migratory strategy, main habitat types and ecological specialization^{5–7}. Moreover, although phenotypic plasticity may enable some species to respond rapidly and effectively to climate change^{8,9}, others may suffer from the induced spatial mismatch and temporal mistiming with their resources^{10,11}. For instance, species such as great tits and flycatchers have been shown to become desynchronized with their main food supply during the nesting season¹².

However, beyond individual species' fates, climate change should also affect species interactions and the structure of species assemblages within and across different taxonomic groups over large spatial scales^{13–15}. For instance, ectotherms should be more

directly affected by climate warming and taxonomic groups with short generation time should favour faster evolutionary responses to selective pressures induced by climate changes¹³. Yet, whether different taxonomic groups are tracking climate change at the same rate over large areas is still unclear, and methods to routinely assess the mismatch between temperature increases and biodiversity responses at different spatial scales are still missing¹⁶.

Here, we used extensive monitoring data of birds and butterflies distributed across Europe to assess whether, regardless of their species-specific characteristics, organisms belonging to a given group are responding more quickly or more slowly than organisms belonging to another group over large areas. We characterized bird and butterfly communities in 9,490 and 2,130 sample sites respectively by their community temperature index (CTI) for each year from 1990 to 2008 (Supplementary Fig. S1). The CTI is a simple means to measure the rate of change in community composition in response to temperature change⁴. It was recently adopted as an indicator of climate change impact on biodiversity by the pan-European framework supporting the Convention on Biological Diversity (Streamlining European 2010 Biodiversity Indicators).

The CTI reflects the relative composition of high- versus low-temperature dwellers in local communities. High- versus low-temperature dwellers are first differentiated according to their species temperature index (STI). The STI of a given species is simply the average temperature of the species range and is taken as a proxy for species' dependence on temperature. CTI is then calculated, for a given monitored site, as the average of species' STI weighted by species abundances (CTI is thus expressed in degrees celsius). A temporal increase in CTI directly reflects that the species assemblage of the site is increasingly composed of individuals belonging to species dependent on higher temperature (that is with high STI). This approach enables a comparison of the velocity of changes in communities of a given taxonomic group and of temperature.

¹Institut des Sciences de l'Evolution, UMR CNRS-UM2 5554, Montpellier 34095, France, ²Dutch Butterfly Conservation, PO Box 506, 6700 AM Wageningen, The Netherlands, ³Butterfly Conservation, Wareham BH20 5QP, UK, ⁴Catalan Ornithological Institute, 08003 Barcelona, Spain, ⁵Centre Tecnològic Forestal de Catalunya, 25280 Solsona, Spain, ⁶British Trust for Ornithology, Thetford IP24 2PU, UK, ⁷Finnish Environment Institute, PO Box 140, Helsinki FIN-00251, Finland, ⁸Conservation des Espèces Restauration et Suivi des Populations-MNHN, Paris 75005, France, ⁹Department of Biology, Lund University, Lund SE-223 62, Sweden, ¹⁰Institute for Environmental Studies, Charles University in Prague, 128 01, Praha 2, Czech Republic, ¹¹Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford OX10 8BB, UK, ¹²UFZ, Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research, Department of Community Ecology, Halle D-06120, Germany, ¹³Museu de Granollers Ciències Naturals, E-08400 Granollers, Spain, ¹⁴Statistics Netherlands, PO Box 24500, 2490HA The Hague, The Netherlands, ¹⁵SOVON Dutch Centre for Field Ornithology, 6573 DG Beek-Ubbergen, The Netherlands, ¹⁶Department of Environmental Science and Department of Animal Ecology, Institute for Water and Wetland Research, Radboud University Nijmegen, PO Box 9010, 6500 GL Nijmegen, The Netherlands, ¹⁷Czech Society for Ornithology, 150 00, Praha 5, Czech Republic, ¹⁸Laboratory of Entomology, Wageningen University, PO Box 8031, 6700 EH Wageningen, The Netherlands. *e-mail: vincent.devictor@univ-montp2.fr.

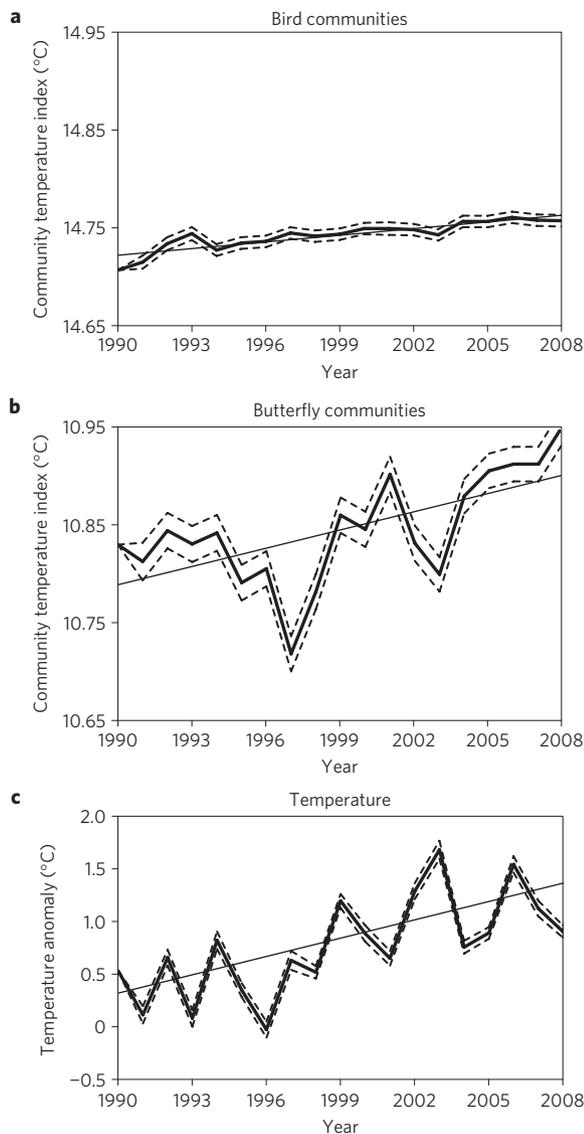


Figure 1 | Temporal trend of CTI and temperature in Europe from 1990 to 2008 (\pm standard error of the mean in dashed lines). a, b, CTI for the bird (a) and butterfly (b) communities monitored in Europe from 1990 to 2008. c, March–September temperature for the same period. Temperature anomalies are calculated as the departure from the average of the base period 1961–1990.

Indeed, the temporal slope of the change in CTI gives the rate of change in community composition in response to climate change through time ($^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$). The south–north gradient in CTI ($^{\circ}\text{C km}^{-1}$) then provides an estimate of the rate of change in CTI in kilometres. Providing that this gradient is linear, the temporal change in CTI can be considered as equivalent to a northward shift in CTI using the ratio between the temporal trend and the spatial gradient in CTI ($^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}/^{\circ}\text{C km}^{-1} = \text{km yr}^{-1}$). The same can be done independently for temperature to estimate the velocity of its northward shift (km yr^{-1} ; ref. 17). The comparison between the velocity of CTI and the velocity of temperature then provides an estimate of the lag between the spatial shift in temperature and community response.

Using this approach, we found that from 1990 to 2008 the CTI of European birds (bird CTI) has increased steadily ($+2.6 \pm 0.19 \times 10^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; $F_{1,17} = 92.12$; $r^2 = 0.84$; $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 1a). Moreover, the CTI spatial gradient is equivalent to a loss of $1.26 \pm 0.01 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ of bird CTI each kilometre from south to north ($F_{1,5099} = 4,776$; $r^2 = 0.78$, $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 2a). The temporal

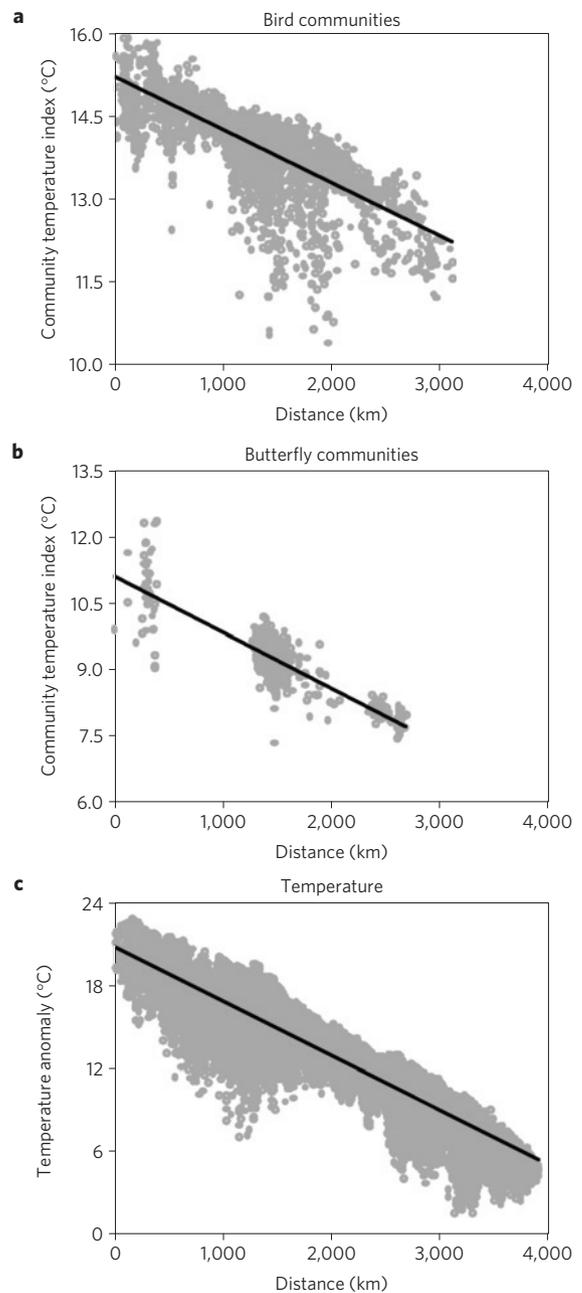


Figure 2 | Spatial trend of CTI and temperature in Europe. a, b, Change in CTI for the bird (a) and butterfly (b) communities from south to north. c, Change in March–September temperature along the same gradient. For birds and butterflies, each point represents the CTI for a given sample monitored in 2005. Temperature is the average of March–September temperature to match the breeding season of birds and butterflies. Distance (x axis) is calculated from the southern border of the studied region.

increase in bird CTI is thus equivalent to a $37 \pm 3 \text{ km}$ northward shift in the composition of bird communities over the period considered ($(2.6 \times 10^{-3}/1.26 \times 10^{-3}) \times 18 \text{ years}$).

Using the same approach, we also found that European butterfly communities are increasingly composed of individuals belonging to high-temperature-dwelling species (trend in butterfly CTI: $+9.3 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; $F_{1,17} = 12.6$; $r^2 = 0.42$; $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 1b). The temporal trend in butterfly CTI is much steeper than the trend in bird CTI (difference between slopes: $6.74 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{-3}$; $P < 0.01$, analysis of covariance). The spatial gradient in butterfly CTI of $1.47 \pm 0.08 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C km}^{-1}$ loss of CTI km^{-1} ($F_{1,797} = 1,748$;

$r^2 = 0.89$; $P < 0.0001$, Fig. 2b) reveals that the composition of butterfly communities has shifted 114 ± 9 km northward during 1990–2008 ($(9.3 \times 10^{-3} / 1.47 \times 10^{-3}) \times 18$ yr).

During 1990–2008, the temperature also increased steeply ($+5.50 \pm 0.61 \times 10^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$, $F_{1,17} = 79.6$; $r^2 = 0.81$; $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 1c). This temporal trend in temperature can be translated in space using the spatial variation of temperature in Europe¹⁷. This gradient is equivalent to a loss of $3.98 \pm 0.01 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^\circ\text{C km}^{-1}$ from south to north ($F_{1,30674} = 1.7 \times 10^5$; $r^2 = 0.84$; $P < 0.00001$, Fig. 2c). The temperature increase during 1990–2008 thus corresponds to a northward shift of 249 ± 27 km in temperature.

These results indicate that birds and butterflies do not adjust their abundance according to the northward shift of their suitable climates and have accumulated a climatic debt of 212 km and 135 km respectively (differences between spatial shift in temperature and in bird CTI and butterfly CTI respectively).

The change in CTI does not tell which and how particular species are affected by climate change but integrates the actual decline of cold species, increase of warm species and the combination of both. Therefore, changes in CTI could mostly result from variations in the dominance structure of species occurring locally rather than from real spatial shifts. However, using presence–absence data rather than abundance, we found similar qualitative results (Supplementary Fig. S2). Therefore, the increase in bird and butterfly CTI also results from changes in the identity of species occurring in local sites rather than only from abundance variations.

Change in CTI could also reflect the strong positive or negative trend of only a few species rather than mirroring profound changes in community composition. To assess whether our conclusions are robust to the identity of the species considered, we used a systematic re-sampling approach in which the trends in the bird and butterfly CTI were estimated after the random removal of 20% of the species monitored in each country. This analysis further confirms the robustness of the findings to the change in the species pool considered (Supplementary Fig. S3).

Climatic debt can be defined as an accumulated delay in species' response to change in temperatures attributable to its inability to track climate change. Our results indicate not only that birds and butterflies are not tracking climate change fast enough at large spatial scale, but also that a lag is expanding between the two groups. Climate change has become a strong selective pressure, and response to this pressure is species and context dependent¹⁸. What are the consequences of these increasing climatic debts for each group and between groups at large spatial scale remains to be studied. Genetic variability, population size and generation time, but also dispersal or behavioural plasticity, all contribute to shape species' responses to climate change. In this respect, evolutionary responses to changing climate have already been documented and are particularly expected for short-time generation groups such as butterflies¹⁹. Therefore, significant evolutionary response can, at least to some extent, contribute to the observed trends in CTI.

Although the data we have do not enable us to disentangle the real lag accumulated by birds and butterflies from possible local adaptation to temperature increase, we believe that the rapid adaptations of particular species, if any, are unlikely to produce our results, which are based on many species with likely high variability in their evolutionary response. However, a close inspection of how changes in CTI vary in space or for particular groups of species (defined according to their localization, dispersal ability, genetic diversity, or any trait of interest suspected to induce differential climatic responses between species and/or groups) could possibly help to disentangle evolutionary from demographic processes in the responses. The delay in the climatic debt of bird and butterfly communities may disrupt multiple interactions between species. For example, many bird species depend on caterpillars and could therefore suffer from possible modifications of this direct

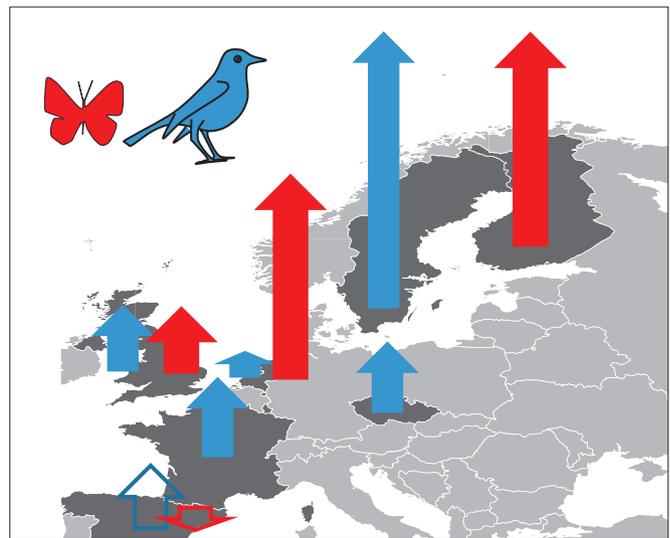


Figure 3 | European variations in the temporal trend of bird and butterfly CTI. The map shows the temporal trend of bird and butterfly CTI for each country. The height of a given arrow is proportional to the temporal trend and its direction corresponds to the sign of the slope (from south to north for positive slopes). The arrow is opaque if the trend is significant.

interaction^{9–12}. It is also likely that other groups of terrestrial insects on which many insectivorous vertebrates rely are experiencing important northward shifts and changes in community composition. Moreover, birds and butterflies are among the most dispersive species so they should be able to track climate change more easily than other taxonomic groups. Therefore, other multigroup interactions are also probably facing delayed responses to climate change at large scale with unknown consequences for biodiversity and ecosystem functioning^{1,14,20}. Finally, the negative consequences of such delays are probably enhanced by interacting and self-reinforcing processes between climate and land-use changes^{7,21}.

More rapid responses in butterflies than in birds on average (that is, calculated at the European level) may be due to butterflies having relatively short life cycles and being ectothermic, enabling them to track changes in temperature regimes very closely. These differences may induce higher turnover rates in butterfly communities in response to climate changes^{22,23}, which probably contributes to explain the stronger variation in butterfly CTI (Fig. 1b). Therefore, although birds, as a group, are more dispersive than butterflies, our results suggest that they may accumulate higher climatic debt in the long run.

The ability of each taxonomic group to cope with temperature increase (and hence the potential mismatch between groups) should also depend on the biogeographic, socio-economic and conservation context. When calculated at the country level, we found that the temporal trend in CTI was positive and highly significant within nearly every country (Supplementary Table S1). This intra-European analysis also revealed that, for a given taxonomic group, the temporal change in CTI was much faster in some countries than in others (Fig. 3). For countries with data available simultaneously for birds and butterflies, we found either a much higher trend in CTI for butterflies or no difference among groups. Overall, these results confirm that the compositions of bird and butterfly communities are currently strongly affected by climate change, but also reveal that the differences between groups are dependent on the area considered.

Interestingly, although the magnitude of the CTI is dependent on the number and identity of the species considered, we showed that the detection of a temporal trend in CTI is very robust to changes in the species considered (Supplementary Fig. S3). Indeed,

a given change in CTI only reflects the population adjustments of species according to each species-specific thermal distribution, so, in principle, the trend in CTI should remain sensitive to temperature increase whatever the species considered. However, to be meaningful, the CTI must be based on species representing a gradient in STI values. Moreover, the temporal trend in CTI must be calculated on enough sites (and/or years) to avoid confounding factors. Indeed, if the trend in CTI is estimated in a restricted area in which land-use changes have affected a biased sample of species with respect to STIs, the trend could be erroneously interpreted as a community response to climate changes²⁴.

Understanding the major ongoing changes in structure and composition of communities within and between trophic levels is necessary to prefigure forecasted changes in ecosystem integrity. Future assessments could quantify whether and how potential delays in the response of different taxonomic groups to climate change vary in different habitats and interact with current trends in land-use changes. We therefore suggest that the approach proposed here can help to improve the traceability of climate change impacts on biodiversity in mapping whether, how and where different taxonomic groups are affected by climate changes, using either abundance or presence-absence data, and for national- or international-level assessment.

Methods

We used a method already described to estimate the northward shift in composition of a given taxonomic group⁴ and explained in details in Supplementary Information. In brief, the velocity of bird and butterfly communities and of temperature is obtained in two steps. First, for each taxonomic group, we calculated the annual change in the CTI reflecting the relative composition of high- versus low-temperature dwellers. The CTI is a simple means to measure the rate of change in community composition in response to temperature change. It is calculated, for a given site, as the average of each STI occurring in this site, weighted by the species abundances in this site. The STI of a given species is the long-term average temperature over the species range (CTI is therefore expressed in degrees celsius). A temporal increase in CTI in a given site directly reflects that the relative abundance of individuals belonging to species dependent on higher temperatures (that is with a high STI) is increasing in this site. We then estimated the overall temporal slope of the change in the pan-European CTI through time separately for birds and butterflies. This trend was estimated using the change in yearly CTI from 1990 to 2008, calculated in 9,490 and 2,130 sample sites (located across Europe from Spain to Finland, Supplementary Fig. S1) respectively for birds and butterflies. These schemes were shown to provide high quality data for building pan-European indicators based on trends in population abundance, and the dataset used in this study represents the largest dataset ever collated documenting temporal changes in the composition of butterfly and bird communities. The slope of this trend gives an estimate of the rate of change in community composition in response to climate change through time ($^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1}$) for each group⁴.

Second, we estimated the south-north gradient in bird and butterfly CTI ($^{\circ}\text{C km}^{-1}$). Because the CTI is linearly decreasing along a south-north gradient, the temporal change in CTI can be considered as equivalent to a northward shift in CTI using the ratio between the temporal trend and the spatial gradient in CTI ($^{\circ}\text{C yr}^{-1} / ^{\circ}\text{C km}^{-1} = \text{km yr}^{-1}$). The same was done independently for temperature to estimate the velocity of northward shift in temperature (km yr^{-1}).

Received 24 February 2011; accepted 29 November 2011;
published online 8 January 2012

References

1. Parmesan, C. Ecological and evolutionary responses to recent climate change. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* **37**, 637–669 (2006).
2. Thomas, C. D., Franco, A. M. A. & Hill, J. K. Range retractions and extinction in the face of climate warming. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **21**, 415–416 (2006).
3. Lenoir, J., Gégout, J. C., Marquet, P. A., de Ruffray, P. & Brisse, H. A. Significant upward shift in plant species optimum elevation during the 20th century. *Science* **320**, 1768–1771 (2008).
4. Devicor, V., Julliard, R., Jiguet, F. & Couvet, D. Birds are tracking climate warming, but not fast enough. *Proc. R. Soc. B* **275**, 2743–2748 (2008).
5. Jiguet, F. *et al.* Climate envelope, life history traits and the resilience of birds facing global change. *Glob. Change Biol.* **13**, 1672–1684 (2007).
6. Heikkinen, R. K. *et al.* Assessing the vulnerability of European butterflies to climate change using multiple criteria. *Biodivers. Conserv.* **3**, 695–703 (2010).
7. Warren, M. S. *et al.* Rapid responses of British butterflies to opposing forces of climate and habitat change. *Nature* **414**, 65–69 (2001).
8. Visser, M. E. Keeping up with a warming world; Assessing the rate of adaptation to climate change. *Proc. R. Soc. B* **275**, 649–659 (2008).
9. Charmantier, A. *et al.* Adaptive phenotypic plasticity in response to climate change in a wild bird population. *Science* **320**, 800–803 (2008).
10. Parmesan, C. Influences of species, latitudes and methodologies on estimates of phenological response to global warming. *Glob. Change Biol.* **13**, 1860–1872 (2007).
11. Sherry, R. A. *et al.* Divergence of reproductive phenology under climate warming. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **104**, 198–202 (2007).
12. Visser, M. E., Vannoordwijk, A. J., Tinbergen, J. M. & Lessells, C. M. Warmer springs lead to mistimed reproduction in great tits (*Parus major*). *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B* **265**, 1867–1870 (1998).
13. Schweiger, O., Settele, J., Kudrna, O., Klotz, S. & Kühn, I. Climate change can cause spatial mismatch of trophically interacting species. *Ecology* **89**, 3472–3479 (2008).
14. Harrington, R., Woiwod, I. & Sparks, T. Climate change and trophic interactions. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **14**, 146–150 (1999).
15. Pounds, J. A. *et al.* Widespread amphibian extinctions from epidemic disease driven by global warming. *Nature* **439**, 161–167 (2006).
16. Root, T. L., Price, J. T. & Hall, K. R. Fingerprints of global warming on wild animals and plants. *Nature* **421**, 57–60 (2003).
17. Loarie, S. R. *et al.* The velocity of climate change. *Nature* **462**, 24–31 (2009).
18. Hoffmann, A. A. & Sgrò, C. M. Climate change and evolutionary adaptation. *Nature* **470**, 479–485 (2011).
19. Skelly, D. K. *et al.* Evolutionary responses to climate change. *Conserv. Biol.* **21**, 1353–1355 (2007).
20. Memmott, J., Craze, P. G., Waser, N. M. & Price, M. V. Global warming and the disruption of plant-pollinator interactions. *Ecol. Lett.* **10**, 710–717 (2007).
21. Brook, B. W., Sodhi, N. S. & Bradshaw, C. J. A. Synergies among extinction drivers under global change. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **23**, 453–460 (2008).
22. Kuussaari, M. *et al.* Extinction debt: A challenge for biodiversity conservation. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **24**, 564–571 (2009).
23. Thomas, C. D. *et al.* Extinction risk from climate change. *Nature* **427**, 145–148 (2004).
24. Clavero, M., Villero, D. & Brotons, L. Climate change or landuse dynamics: Do we know what climate change indicators indicate? *PLoS ONE* **6**, e18581 (2011).

Acknowledgements

We thank all skilled volunteer bird- and butterfly-watchers involved in national monitoring programmes: altogether, we estimate that more than 1,500,000 man-hours have been spent to conduct the bird and butterfly monitoring surveys (this estimate only corresponds to field work) necessary to this study. We thank C. D. Thomas for his comments on the manuscript. We thank the following partnerships and sources of funding from national and international organizations that have supported this project. V.D. received funding from the Fondation pour la Recherche sur la Biodiversité (FRB, research projects FABIO and PHYBIO) and CNRS. French BBS is hosted by the CERSP funded by MNHN-CNRS-UPMC and the French Ministry in charge of Ecology (MEEDDTL). J.S. and O.S. received funding from the European projects ALARM (contract GOCE-CT-2003-506675), MACIS (contract 044399) and STEP (contract 244090-STEP-CP-FFP), and from the project CLIMIT (funded by DLR-BMBF (Germany), NERC and DEFRA (UK), ANR (France), Formas (Sweden) and Swedish EPA (Sweden) through the FP6 BiodiversA Eranet. J.R. and Z.V. were supported by the academic grant KJB601110919. L.B., S.H. and C.S. received financial support from projects CSD 2008-00040 and CGL-BOS-2009-08798 from the Spanish Ministry of Education and from the Science European SCALES project (FP7-226852). The Swedish BBS was supported by the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency, the County Administrative Boards, and the BECC and CANMove research initiatives at Lund University. The UK BBS is funded by a partnership between BTO, RSPB and JNCC. Funding of the Dutch bird and butterfly monitoring schemes was provided by grants from the Ministry of Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Innovation of the Netherlands and the Dutch National Data Authority for Nature. C.V.T. thanks SOVON colleagues, in particular A. J. van Dijk, for processing the Dutch bird data. The UKBMS is funded by a multi-agency consortium led by Defra, and including the Countryside Council for Wales, the Joint Nature Conservation Committee, the Forestry Commission, Natural England, the Natural Environment Research Council, the Northern Ireland Environment Agency and Scottish Natural Heritage. The butterfly monitoring scheme in Finnish agricultural landscapes is funded by The Finnish Environment Institute and the Ministry of the Environment. The Catalan bird and butterfly monitoring schemes are supported by the Environmental Department of the Catalan Government.

Author contributions

V.D. carried out all statistical analyses and wrote the paper. V.D., C.v.S. and F.J. designed the general study. All other authors contributed equally to data collection, formulations of theoretical expectations, writing and revision of the paper.

Additional information

The authors declare no competing financial interests. Supplementary information accompanies this paper on www.nature.com/natureclimatechange. Reprints and permissions information is available online at <http://www.nature.com/reprints>. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to V.D.