



Supplementary Materials for
**Climate change contributes to widespread declines among bumble bees
across continents**

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23 **Materials and Methods**

24 Bumble bee observations, observed distribution, and species richness

25 We used a dataset comprising 557,622 observations of 66 bumble bee (*Bombus*) species from
26 1901-2015, from across North America and Europe. The dataset has been previously used in (1),
27 and contains data assembled from a variety of sources including (22–25), and other sources
28 acknowledged in the Supplementary Acknowledgements. To produce this database from the
29 assembled set of records, potentially unreliable records (including incomplete species, locality,
30 and sampling year information, or disagreement between record georeferencing and stated
31 country of origin) were flagged and removed. We assumed that records in the ocean less than
32 2500m from a high-resolution coastline were coastal observations with spatially-imprecise
33 georeferences and reassigned these to the nearest point on land. Approximately 6% of the
34 records obtained from GBIF lacked latitude-longitude coordinates for collection localities. For
35 these records, we obtained georeferencing data from a digital gazetteer, GeoNames
36 (<http://geonames.org>; Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 License). Among these records, we
37 retained those located near populated places for which reliable geographic coordinates were
38 available.

39 Of the 119 species present in the originally assembled data within our study area, we retained
40 66, which had at least 100 spatially unique records in the baseline period (1901-1974;
41 inclusively) and at least 30 in the recent period (2000-2014; inclusively). These 66 species
42 appeared well sampled across their ranges, including at range margins. The dataset included
43 264,494 observations of 36 North American species and 293,128 observations of 36 European species,
44 spread across 116,254 unique location-years (i.e. spatiotemporally unique observations; Figure S1). The
45 mean and median species-period sample size was 1887 and 848 unique location-year observations,

46 respectively (Table S1). While the baseline period was longer, there were comparable numbers of unique
47 location-year observations in each period (54,446 in the baseline and 61,809 in the recent). We
48 examined the georeferencing for every observation and removed all instances of bee
49 observations that could not be reconciled with lists of countries they inhabit and comparison with
50 range maps from IUCN Red List reports (<http://www.iucnredlist.org/>; accessed Nov 16, 2017). We
51 merged observations of *Bombus moderatus* with *B. cryptarum*, per IUCN Red List documentation and
52 (24), which considers these species to be synonymous. All records included georeferencing and date
53 information. Duplicate collection records of a species for a given location-year were removed to reflect
54 species occurrence rather than sampling or population density.

55 We mapped presence and absence for each species within 100km by 100km equal-area quadrats across
56 the study area in the baseline and recent periods. We inferred absence when there was no observation
57 of the focal species in the cell in a period but at least one other species recorded. We tested the
58 robustness of our results to this definition of absence by repeating all analyses after defining absence as
59 no observation of the focal species but at least i) three and ii) five other species. For each species, we
60 estimated the observed distribution as the number of cells in the study area where each species was
61 present, and we compared recent and baseline maps of observed distribution to determine extirpation and
62 colonization. We determined mean rates of extirpation or colonization for a species as the proportion of
63 regional extinction or colonization events relative to the total number of cells a species occupied in the
64 baseline. We measured the change in observed distribution for each species. In baseline and recent
65 periods, respectively, species occupied ranges of 17 to 561 and 12 to 338 cells (mean = 195.3 and 117.2),
66 respectively. We measured observed distribution uniquely by continent for species that are present in both
67 Europe and North America and did not calculate North American observed distributional change for one
68 species which was only recorded there in the current period (*B. distinguendus*). Differences in sampling
69 effort between periods of different lengths can bias detection of presence and subsequent estimates of
70 change and occupancy, so we accounted for sampling effort in all our subsequent analyses. While the

71 baseline period was substantially longer, the recent period had 49% more records, and 13% more unique
72 location-year-species observations (Figure S2, Table S1). Extirpation and colonization likelihoods
73 showed significant negative relationships with sampling effort, while sampling effort was not
74 significantly related to observed species richness change. This was not surprising as non-detection-
75 corrected richness analyses were restricted to a subset of well-sampled cells.

76 We combined the presence maps of the 66 species to build a map of regional species richness for each
77 period (Figure S10). Variation in sampling effort can bias the estimation of observed biodiversity trends
78 (26, 27), so we excluded quadrats without a minimum of 50 unique location-year observations in the
79 baseline and most recent period. This resulted in 40 North American and 124 European sites, within
80 which we calculated the percent change in species richness from the baseline to the most recent period.
81 While the strict selection protocol limits the number of quadrats in our species richness analysis, a less
82 strict selection (e.g. including quadrats without a minimum of 50 unique location-years observations) fails
83 to account for sampling bias and removes our ability to attribute changes in richness to any climatic
84 variables. All data were organized in R 3.4.1 (28) using packages *tidyverse* (29) and *raster* (30).

85 The scale of analysis (100km by 100km) is relatively coarse compared to local ecological
86 studies, but these quadrats are large enough to enable reasonable sampling intensity across North
87 America and Europe in both periods without sacrificing relevance for conservation and policy
88 planning. To test the effect of spatial scale on our results, we repeated analyses at a i) 50km by 50km
89 scale and ii) 200km by 200km scale.

90 Occupancy models

91 To correct for imperfect detection in our dataset of bumble bee observations, we used single-species
92 occupancy models to estimate occupancy for the 66 species in each period. These models account for the
93 possibility of false-absences within detection/non-detection data by explicitly estimating detection
94 probability (p) separately from probability of occurrence (31–35). Estimating detection probability for a

95 species during a period requires multiple “survey units” or “visits” to sites within that period. We split
96 each of our time periods into three “survey units” (baseline: 1901-1924, 1925-1949, and 1950-1974;
97 recent: 2000-2004, 2005-2009, and 2010-2014). We used observations of a species during a survey unit to
98 inform detection, and marked absence of a species when others were seen as a non-detection. It is
99 possible that there are biases in the species sampled within our dataset. Bumble bees are a charismatic
100 insect species that have been collected by researchers and independent naturalists for hundreds of years,
101 but, as with any taxon, it is possible that agriculturally important species (e.g. *B. terrestris* and *B.*
102 *impatiens*), common species, and larger or more recognizable species have greater likelihoods of
103 detection. We used total number of records to help inform species-specific detection probabilities in our
104 occupancy models to account for sampling bias. Unfortunately, reliable inter- and intra-specific data on
105 other traits that may influence detection probability, such as body size, are not available for all species to
106 include in our models. A necessary assumption of occupancy modelling is that there is no change in
107 occupancy (or species turnover) within a survey period or between survey units within the same period:
108 the closure assumption (36). Estimates of site occupancy rely on this assumption to calculate a probability
109 of detection from the pattern of detection/non-detections during a period (32). Aggregation of occurrence
110 data into periods to estimate species’ presence or absence makes a similar assumption that
111 presence/absence remains static within those periods. Violations of the closure assumption during
112 occupancy modelling are likely to be frequent throughout the literature and within-period colonization or
113 extinction tends to result in overestimates of occupancy probabilities (32, 36). Since this study focuses on
114 relative change in occupancy probabilities instead of the absolute values themselves, potential violations
115 of the closure assumption are not likely to alter our results or conclusions. Probability of occupancy for a
116 species was only calculated across the continent(s) it is known to inhabit. Detection-corrected species
117 richness, calculated as the summed probability of species occurrence in a region, was estimated across the
118 study area for each period (this measure is similar to detection-corrected estimates of taxonomic diversity
119 used in (37)). Using estimates of species-specific site occupancy and detection-corrected species richness

120 for each period, we calculated the percent change in these values between the baseline and recent periods.

121 All data were organized and transformed in R v3.4.1 (28) using packages *raster* (30) and *rgdal* (38).

122 Occupancy models were fit using the Bayesian general-purpose modelling software JAGS (39), with R
123 v3.4.1 (28) and package *R2jags* (40). Each species- and season-specific model computed season- and site-
124 specific occupancy, using season-specific sampling effort (i.e. the total number of unique location-year
125 observations of any species in a cell) as a covariate for the underlying detection process. We used
126 noninformative Bayesian priors for all parameters and each model ran three Markov chains for 100k
127 iterations, discarding the first 50k as a burn-in and thinning by 10, resulting in 5000 samples from the
128 joint posterior distribution. We ran models until values of the Brooks-Gelman-Rubin statistic suggested
129 convergence had been reached (<1.1) for all parameters (41). The JAGS code specifying our model,
130 including the priors used, is available with the rest of the data and materials (21).

131 Climatic position variables

132 For each of the 66 bumble bee species, we extracted the average of the five highest monthly maximum
133 and five lowest monthly minimum temperatures from among the values for all location and year
134 combinations within the species' geographic range in the baseline period (1901-1975). These maximum
135 and minimum temperatures were assumed to represent the thermal limits for the species, and previous
136 studies have found that this measure is robust to both variation in the number of records used to calculate
137 it and variation in species sampling effort (1). Maximum and minimum precipitation limits were extracted
138 from the five highest and five lowest monthly total precipitation values from among all location and year
139 combinations within the species' geographic range in the baseline period. Climatic limits were rescaled
140 for each species to equal 0 for the lower climatic (i.e. cold/dry) limit and 1 for the upper climatic (i.e.
141 warm/wet) limit. While these derived environmental limits may not represent the actual critical limits
142 that a species can tolerate, they offer an indication of the species' environmental tolerances and measuring
143 the change in the environment relative to these derived limits enables tests of our main hypotheses.

144 For each species, in each cell of the study area in both periods, we rescaled the local maximum and
145 minimum monthly temperatures and precipitations onto the same scale as the climatic limits. These
146 rescaled values were averaged across months to estimate the thermal position index and precipitation
147 position index: values of 1 indicate that temperatures or precipitation across the whole year equals the
148 warm or wet tolerance limits, and values of 0 indicate that temperatures or precipitation across the year
149 approach or meet the cold or dry tolerance limits for the species (values greater than 1 and less than 0
150 are possible where climate change has caused temperatures or precipitation to exceed species'
151 upper thermal or precipitation limits or to fall below lower thermal or precipitation limits). The
152 change in thermal and precipitation position was calculated by subtracting position in the baseline period
153 from position in the recent.

154 To calculate the community-averaged estimates of climatic position, we clipped each species' thermal
155 and precipitation position maps to their observed distribution in the baseline period, and then overlapped
156 all the position maps, averaging all index values in a given cell. This shows the mean thermal or
157 precipitation position for the entire estimated assemblage of species in that region (Figure S5). We did
158 this for both periods, and then measured the change from the baseline to recent (Figure 1).

159 In addition to these species-specific and community-averaged climatic position variables, we
160 calculated average annual mean, maximum, and minimum temperature and mean annual precipitation
161 across the study area. These annual climate variables are commonly used to attempt to predict climate
162 change-related effects on biodiversity, and act as a reference model against which we compare predictions
163 of the climate position indices we developed here. As with climatic position variables, we measured
164 mean/max/min temperature and annual precipitation in each period and then measured the change from
165 baseline to recent (Figure 1).

166 Climate data were obtained from the Climate Research Unit (42) at a resolution of 0.5 X 0.5 degrees.
167 After the calculation of the climatic position index, data were projected and resampled to Cylindrical

168 Equal Area projection at 100 km X 100km resolution to match the bumble bee data, using R 3.4.1 (28)
169 and packages *raster* (30) and *rgdal* (38).

170 Statistical analyses

171 *Change in local occupancy.* We tested the relationship between climatic position and change in
172 probability of local site occupancy by constructing a series of linear mixed models (LMM). Change in
173 occupancy probability was the difference in occupancy probability between the baseline and recent
174 periods and could range continuously from -100% to 100%, with negative values indicating a decrease in
175 probability of occupancy and positive values indicating an increase in probability of occupancy. Models
176 included the thermal position variables (baseline period, change since the baseline, and the interaction
177 between these), the precipitation position variables (baseline period, change since the baseline, and the
178 interaction between these), the interaction between baseline thermal position and precipitation position,
179 and the interaction between change in thermal position and change in precipitation position.

180 North America and Europe have substantially different histories of land use, human development, and
181 population trends, and different approaches to species conservation, all of which may contribute to
182 differences in rates of species and assemblage change. We included continent as a categorical variable to
183 account for hypothesized differences in rates of change between North America and Europe (1). Species
184 was included as a random effect in the model to account for differences in species' responses to climate.
185 We ran identical models with separate random intercepts for site and for species and noted qualitatively
186 consistent results between these models and models without site. In cases where models did not clearly
187 converge, we re-ran models using several different optimizers with $>10^7$ evaluations and found consistent
188 results. We calculated conditional and marginal R^2 using the method proposed by (43).

189 *Observed extirpation/colonization.* We ran another series of models separately testing the relationship
190 between local colonization and extinction, and climatic position variables. We used binomial generalized
191 linear mixed models (GLMM), again including species as a random effect. The model structure was

192 identical to change in occupancy models (see previous section) although we included sampling effort,
193 calculated as the total number of observations in each cell in a period (sampling effort was not included in
194 change in occupancy models because it was already used to estimate occupancy). We calculated
195 conditional and marginal R^2 in the same way as in the change in occupancy models. Colonization and
196 extinction models with site included as a separate random effect produced consistent results.

197 *Phylogenetic analyses.* To account for phylogeny in our analyses, we repeated the occupancy,
198 extinction, and colonization modelling using a phylogenetic generalized linear mixed model framework,
199 with a comprehensive molecular and nuclear phylogeny (44). We programmed models using the
200 *MCMCglmm* (45) and *ape* (46) packages in R, following the framework from (47). All models used
201 uninformative univariate priors for random effects corresponding to an inverse-Gamma with shape and
202 scale parameters equal to 0.01. Models were run with a minimum of 105k iterations with a thinning factor
203 of 20 and while discarding the first 5k, resulting in a minimum of 5000 samples from the joint posterior
204 distribution. Model parameters were visually assessed for convergence, and if all parameters did not
205 appear to converge then were re-ran for more iterations and a longer burn-in. We estimated marginal and
206 conditional R^2 , and phylogenetic signal (Pagel's λ) using code from (47). As is common with Bayesian
207 models, we compared them using the Deviance Information Criterion (DIC). *B. magnus* was not present
208 in the phylogeny and so was excluded from these analyses. The structure of fixed model effects tested
209 was identical to the descriptions provided above, and we found that model parameter values using the
210 PGLMMs were very consistent with those from models in *lme4*. We present results from the PGLMMs
211 here as previous work has shown significant phylogenetic signal in patterns of bumble bee declines and in
212 their response to climate change (1, 48).

213 *Observed species richness.* We constructed an analysis of covariance model (ANCOVA) to test the
214 relationship between change in species richness and climatic position. The model included the thermal
215 position variables (baseline period, change since the baseline, and the interaction between these), the
216 precipitation position variables (baseline period, change since the baseline, and the interaction between

217 these), and continent and sampling effort as controlling variables. We used quadratic polynomials for the
218 baseline thermal and precipitation position. To avoid overfitting due to the low sample size in this test (n
219 = 164 sites) and because they were neither significant in the occupancy models nor necessary for our
220 hypothesis testing, we did not include the interaction between baseline thermal position and precipitation
221 position, nor the interaction between change in thermal and precipitation position. We also removed
222 sampling effort and the 2nd order polynomial of baseline precipitation position as covariates after seeing
223 that they were not significant and that the model was not improved by their addition ($\Delta AIC < 2$). We did
224 not expect sampling to be significant since this analysis was restricted to well-sampled cells with at least
225 50 unique location-year observations in each period. Results from the model were robust to the presence
226 of outliers, and aside from violations of spatial autocorrelation in the residuals, appeared to satisfy all
227 other assumptions.

228 We checked for spatial autocorrelation in the residuals by visually inspecting a correlogram of
229 Moran's I (Figure S11A) and found some evidence of spatial autocorrelation. We proceeded by
230 constructing a simultaneous autoregressive (SAR) spatial error model to correct for residual
231 autocorrelation, as suggested by (49) and (50). This reduced much of the variability in Moran's I (Figure
232 S11B). Model results with the SAR model were qualitatively similar to the ANCOVA results that we
233 report here (Tables S2 and S3). We calculated the Nagelkerke Pseudo- R^2 of the model as a measure of the
234 variance explained.

235 Given the number of sites where we could measure species richness change with confidence was
236 relatively low (124 in Europe and 40 in North America), we compared the mean community-averaged
237 climatic position of the species richness sites to the mean community-averaged climatic position of the
238 entire continent to check that the species richness sites were representative. We used a series of Welch's
239 two-sample t-tests to compare the means of the community-averaged thermal position variables (in the
240 baseline and the change between periods) and the community-averaged precipitation position variables (in

241 the baseline and the change between periods) of the species richness cells to their respective continental
242 averages.

243 *Detection-corrected species richness.* We built an ANCOVA model to test the relationship between
244 climatic positioning and detection-corrected species richness. The model structure here was identical to
245 the occupancy PGLMMs but used community-averaged measures of climatic positioning and did not
246 include the random effects of species. As with the observed species richness models, we checked for
247 spatial autocorrelation and used the same procedure to correct for this with SAR models (Figure S12).
248 Spatial autocorrelation was significant in the original model, but results were qualitatively similar
249 between SAR and ANCOVA models (Tables S2 and S3).

250 The explained variance of the detection-corrected species richness model was substantially lower than
251 the observed species richness model (8% vs 38%). This is likely to be a result of the occupancy modelling
252 process. The occupancy modelling took the binary measures of species detection/non-detection and used a
253 derived detection probability to estimate continuous probabilities of occupancy from these from 1s and
254 0s, across the entire continent it occupies. In each period, the occupancy models estimate a probability of
255 1 (or very close) for cells where the species was detected in any one of the survey units, and they estimate
256 some probability between 0 and 1 for cells where a species was never detected. This latter occupancy
257 probability depends on the species-period-specific detection probability and the total sampling effort in
258 that cell. For most species the occupancy probability of cells where they were not detected is between 0
259 and 0.4. As detection probability and sampling effort vary by period, the same cell can have a different
260 occupancy estimate in the baseline and recent period, even when the species was never observed there or
261 when it has persisted through both periods. This between-period variation reflects the uncertainty within
262 estimates of occupancy probability during a period, and likely drives the lower adjusted R^2 values we see
263 when comparing the detection-corrected and observed species richness models. A similar reasoning likely
264 explains the differences between marginal R^2 of change in occupancy models (0.11) compared to
265 extinction and colonization models (0.87 and 0.53, respectively).

266 *Comparison with mean climate variables.* For all our models, we created a model identical in structure
267 but with mean climate variables (i.e. mean baseline annual temperature, mean baseline total annual
268 precipitation, and the change in these to the recent period) instead of climatic position variables. We also
269 compared using average annual maximum and minimum temperature variables. All continuous variables
270 in both sets of models were centered and rescaled before modelling, and we used Information Criterion
271 and R^2 to compare between climatic position and mean climate models. We tested models where baseline
272 thermal and precipitation variables were fit as either linear, or quadratic polynomial terms, since we
273 predicted that species would be more likely to decline in occupancy where sites were already closer to an
274 upper or lower limit in the baseline. With the exception of PGLMMs, all models were constructed in R
275 v3.5.1 (28), using packages *lme4* (51) and *spdep* (52) for simultaneous autoregressive models.

276 Spatial projection across recent period

277 Using the detection-corrected species richness model (adjusted $R^2 = 0.14$) and 0.5-degree resolution
278 climate data (42), we spatially projected the predicted change in species richness since the baseline across
279 the entire study area (Figure 4). We also projected change using the non-detection-corrected species
280 richness model (adjusted $R^2 = 0.44$; Figure S9). We used rescaled climatic position and climatic position
281 change layers at 0.5×0.5 degree grid resolution and used the respective model coefficients to predict
282 what percent climate-change-induced change in assemblage richness occurred from the baseline period
283 (1901-1974) to the recent period (2000-2014).

284 Effects of land-use change

285 Using high-resolution data on historic land-use from the Global Harmonized Land-use dataset (53), we
286 calculated the mean proportion of cropland, pasture, and urban land cover (hereafter human-dominated
287 land-use) in each period for cells across the study area. We then measured the mean change in human-
288 dominated land-use between periods. We built PGLMM's of change in probability of occupancy,
289 extinction and colonization, as well as spatial autoregressive error models of detection-corrected species

290 richness, which included the best fitting variables from previous steps of analysis and human-dominated
291 land-use change. We compared these models with land-use to pure climate change models using
292 information criterion values and R^2 and compared the values and estimated significance of fixed effects.

293 Agricultural species might be declining through increased use of certain pesticides, which could
294 modify relative rates of decline between species. We calculated the proportion of cropland across species'
295 geographic ranges in the baseline period, and used linear regressions to separately test the association
296 between this and i) the number of unique location-year observations of a species, ii) the mean change in
297 probability of occupancy of a species, and iii) the mean change in observed (non-detection-corrected)
298 distribution of a species.

299

300 **Supplemental Text**

301 Non-detection corrected declines

302 *Occupancy, extirpation, and colonization.* Consistent with measured declines in occupancy (Figure 2),
303 observed distributions declined on average by 54% ($\pm 3.4\%$ SE) in North America and 18%
304 ($\pm 7.2\%$ SE) in Europe relative to the baseline period (Figure S6A).

305 Rates of observed extirpation and colonization were calculated for each species as the proportion of
306 extirpation or colonization events relative to the total number of cells occupied historically. Across all
307 species in North America and Europe there was a 72% ($\pm 2.2\%$ SE) and 49% ($\pm 2.8\%$ SE) chance,
308 respectively, that a given bumble bee species was lost from a quadrat it occupied historically. Globally,
309 extirpation events were 8 times (± 1.7 SE) more likely than colonization events, with ratios being higher in
310 North America (Figure S7). Imperfect species detection and patchy sampling mean that extirpation can be
311 overestimated in opportunistic datasets, so observed extirpation rates likely represent the upper bound of
312 true extinction probability.

313 *Non-detection corrected species richness*. Since the baseline period, local (non-detection corrected)
314 species richness has declined by about 18.6% ($\pm 3.2\%$ SE) in North America, while richness in Europe has
315 stayed relatively constant (2.2% increase since the baseline $\pm 2.6\%$ SE; Figure S6B). Species richness
316 declines do not reflect differences in sampling intensity in this subset of well-sampled cells and was not
317 informative or significant in statistical models.

318 Response of change in occupancy to precipitation position

319 While the relationship between change in occupancy and proximity to thermal limits was statistically
320 detectable and followed our expectations, relationships with precipitation showed more mixed results.
321 Declines in occupancy were stronger in sites that became drier since the baseline but other effects were
322 inconsistent, and we did not see an interaction between baseline precipitation and change in precipitation
323 as we expected if exposure to precipitation limits from climate change was a driver of declines (Figure 3,
324 Figure S8, Table S2). While direct effects of precipitation are undoubtedly important for bumble bees at a
325 local scale, especially in terms of moisture availability, we are unable to detect these effects with this
326 analysis. Conflicting indirect effects of precipitation (through changes in floral resources or vegetation
327 structure), may make these effects more difficult to measure and detect than direct effects of temperature.

328 Response of extirpation and colonization to climatic position

329 Patterns in extirpation across the 66 bumble bee species display a strong signal of climate
330 change, especially increasing temperature. We used a phylogenetic generalized linear mixed
331 model (PGLMM) with a similar fixed and random effect structure as the site occupancy-climate
332 change model, but here including sampling effort as a covariate. As expected, extirpation
333 probability related to thermal position in the baseline period, change since then, and their
334 interaction (Table S2). Increasing thermal position was linked to greater probability of extirpation
335 for species in regions that were already near their upper thermal limit, and lower probability of
336 extirpation for species in regions historically closer to their cold limits (Figure S13A). As with

337 occupancy, precipitation position showed more ambiguous associations. While sites that became
338 drier had higher probability of extirpation, the effect of baseline precipitation was not significant
339 and there was no significant interaction between these two effects (Figure S13C). Our model
340 explained most of the variation in the response of extirpation to climatic position (marginal $R^2 =$
341 0.87). The strong relationship between temperature warming and extirpation risk among bumble
342 bee species is consistent with previous work demonstrating that extinction risk depends on shifts
343 in the spatial distributions of thermal niches in other taxa (54, 55) and is of particular importance
344 since bumble bee species are being pushed towards their upper thermal limits across most of
345 North America and Europe (Figure 1A).

346 Trends in local colonization also showed a strong association with climate change, providing
347 independent support for a separate prediction of our hypothesis. A PGLMM with similar fixed
348 and random effects to the extirpation models shows that the three thermal position variables
349 appear to significantly drive colonization, with precipitation position showing inconsistent
350 effects (Table S2). Species were more likely to colonize regions which were historically near the
351 cold limit and had warmed, and historically hot regions that cooled were more likely to be
352 colonized than historically cool or moderate regions that became colder (Figure S13B). Regions
353 that moved towards species' wet limits were more likely to be colonized (Figure S13D). Regions
354 that were simultaneously hot and dry historically had higher rates of colonization, as did regions
355 that got simultaneously hotter and drier. Models explained a large part of the variation in local
356 colonization (marginal $R^2 = 0.53$). The difference in explained variance between the extirpation
357 and colonization models (marginal R^2 0.87 vs 0.53) could suggest that the process of
358 colonization is less tied to physiological climate limits than extirpation. In regions that were
359 historically moderate or near species' hot limits, rates of extirpation greatly exceeded rates of

360 colonization following warming. Given that species and communities appear to have been
361 moderately situated with respect to their climatic limits in many northern regions across North
362 America and Europe that warmed (Figures 1A and S5A), this finding may help explain why most
363 bumble bees are not generally expanding their ranges at poleward limits of their distributions to
364 track climate change (1, 14).

365 The models revealed a significantly detectable phylogenetic signal in the response to both
366 extirpation and colonization to climatic position, with the signal for extirpation (Pagel's $\lambda= 0.88$)
367 being stronger than the signal for colonization (Pagel's $\lambda= 0.70$). Previous work has also detected
368 significant phylogenetic signal in patterns of declines across bumble bees (48) and found that
369 traits can influence the sensitivity of bumble bees to land-use and agricultural pressures (56).
370 More data on inter- and intra-specific variation on traits should be gathered to test questions
371 about how traits and evolutionary change may mediate responses to climate change at this scale.

372 Comparing climatic position models to mean climate variables

373 While measures of climate like mean annual temperature or mean annual precipitation are
374 easy to gather, inter-specific variation in physiological tolerances mean that how these conditions
375 influence species depends on proximity to species physiological limits. A regional measure of
376 climatic position directly measures whether climatic conditions are near or outside species'
377 tolerances to test whether changing exposure to such conditions drives persistence and
378 colonization. Predictions from this hypothesis are consistent with recent trends in North
379 American and European bumble bees (Figures 3 and S13) and using thermal and precipitation
380 position variables instead of mean climate variables produces models that better predict
381 extinction, colonization, and change in occupancy (marginal R^2 7% lower to 12.5% higher) and
382 are more informative (Δ DIC ~ 202.4, Δ DIC ~ 102.8 and Δ DIC ~ 164.9 respectively). This

383 increase in explanatory power was consistent when comparing to models using average annual
384 maximum (marginal R^2 1.6% to 23% higher; Δ DIC = 98.7-157.5) or minimum temperatures
385 (marginal R^2 2.6% lower to 21.3% higher; Δ DIC = 128.2-241.9). We show that accounting for
386 inter-specific variation significantly improves detection of relatively local-scale climate impacts
387 on bumble bees. Regardless of technique used, there is a biologically meaningful signal of
388 climate change within patterns of bumble bee decline.

389 Climatic sampling across continents

390 We tested whether the most well-sampled quadrats in our analysis (which were used for the
391 non-detection-corrected species richness analysis) presented a representative sample of historic
392 climate and climatic patterns across North America and Europe, and found that well-sampled
393 regions in Europe tended to be cooler in the baseline and experience less warming between
394 periods (Welch's two-sample t-test results: t-statistics = 2.72 and 4.16, p-values = 7.0×10^{-3} and
395 4.8×10^{-5} , df = 227 and 206, respectively). Previous estimates of European bumble bee richness
396 change extrapolating from well-sampled areas may have systematically underestimated recent
397 richness declines. Well-sampled quadrats in North America appeared representative of the
398 general temperature trends experienced over the continent as a whole, but tended to be
399 historically wetter and have gotten wetter than the continental average (Welch's two-sample t-
400 test results: t-statistics = 2.95 and 2.30, p-values = 5.1×10^{-3} and 0.03, df = 41.5 and 40.2,
401 respectively).

402 Land-use change

403 Human land-use has also been associated with pollinator declines (8). We find that while
404 human-dominated land-use change appears to have strong negative effects on probability of

405 occupancy and detection-corrected species richness, this effect is distinct from those presented
406 by climate change. Including LU in the models showed a significant negative effect of land-use
407 but produced virtually identical results for climatic position variables, suggesting that direct
408 effects of climate change on bumble bees are distinct from effects of land-use (Table S4).

409 We did not find any statistically significant relationship between percent of species'
410 geographical range covered by cropland and unique location-year observations (t-value= -0.79,
411 p-value= 0.43, d.f.= 64), mean change in probability of occupancy (t-value= 0.07, p-value= 0.94,
412 d.f.= 64), or mean change in observed distribution (t-value= 1.24, p-value= 0.22, d.f.= 64). It
413 appears that rates of species decline do not appear to strongly differ between species more
414 associated with agricultural areas, although we note that our subset of well-sampled species is
415 likely already biased toward species more associated with agricultural and urban areas. This is
416 consistent with previous work that concluded latitudinal range shifts in bumble bees appeared
417 strongly sensitive to climate change but not especially sensitive to agriculture (1).

418 Additional tests of modelling robustness

419 *Spatial scale.* Spatial scale of analysis is an important factor to consider for any study
420 involving extirpation/colonization and range change. Where possible, spatial scale of a study
421 should be chosen with consideration to the biologically relevant area encompassing population
422 dynamics of the study species (57, 58), but reasonably chosen spatial scales can still reveal
423 valuable macroecological patterns (59). Here, we selected 100km by 100km cells as the spatial
424 scale of our analysis, which represented a balance between having adequate sampling density
425 across our study area and a high resolution to detect “local” effects of climate and climate
426 change. Repeating analyses in 50km by 50km cells and 200km by 200km cells produced results

427 that were qualitatively similar (Tables S5 and S6), suggesting our analyses were robust to the
428 scale used.

429 *Absence threshold.* When converting our occurrence records into presence absence data, we
430 inferred absence of a species when the focal species was not seen but at least one other species
431 was (absence threshold of one). A liberal absence threshold could result in overestimating
432 absences (and ultimately detection ability), which could lead to overestimates of extirpation and
433 local colonization. We tested the sensitivity of our results to our definition of absence by
434 repeating analyses using an absence threshold of three and five, and found that all results were
435 qualitatively similar (Tables S7 and S8).

436

437

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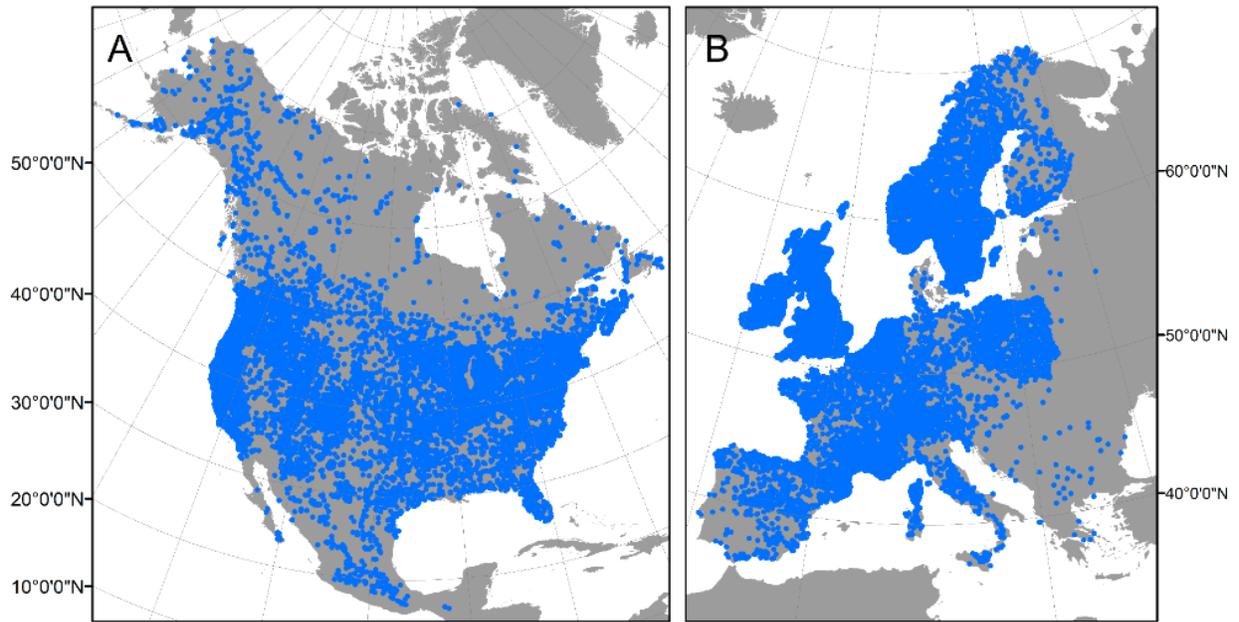
439 **Supplementary Acknowledgements**

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459

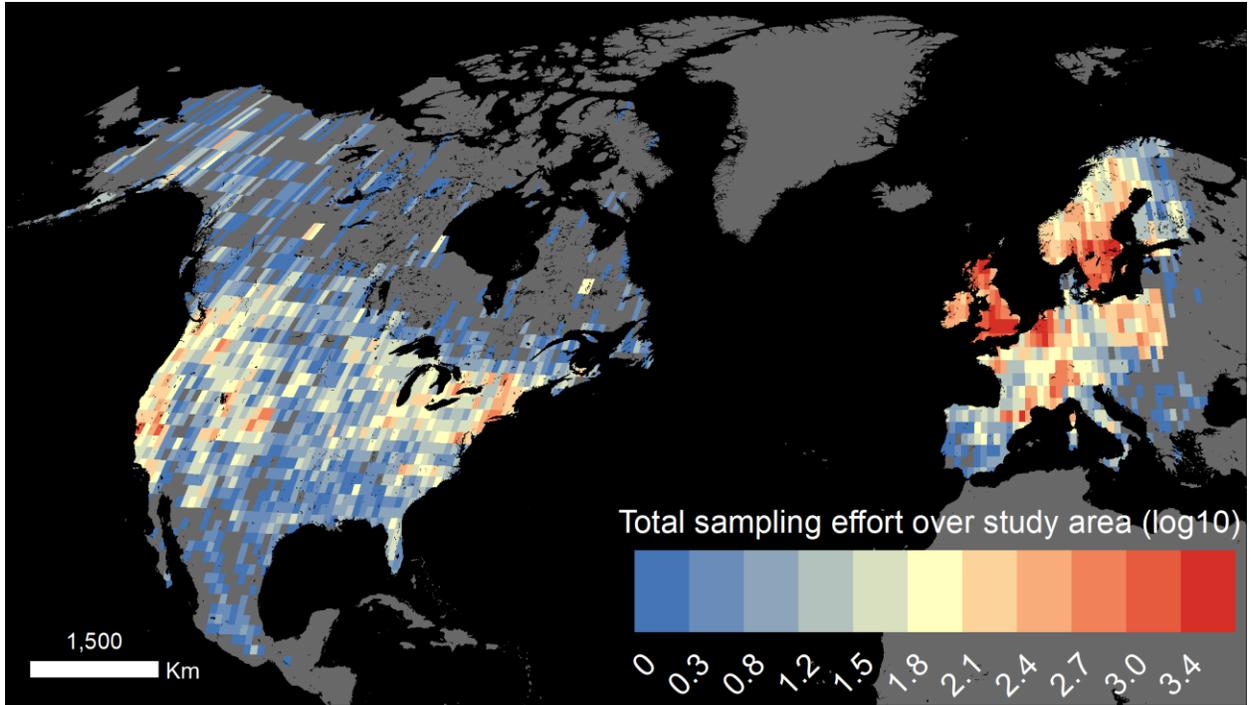
460 **Supplemental Figures**

461



463 **Figure S1. Distribution of unique species-location-year sampling locations from North**
464 **America (A) and Europe (B).**

465



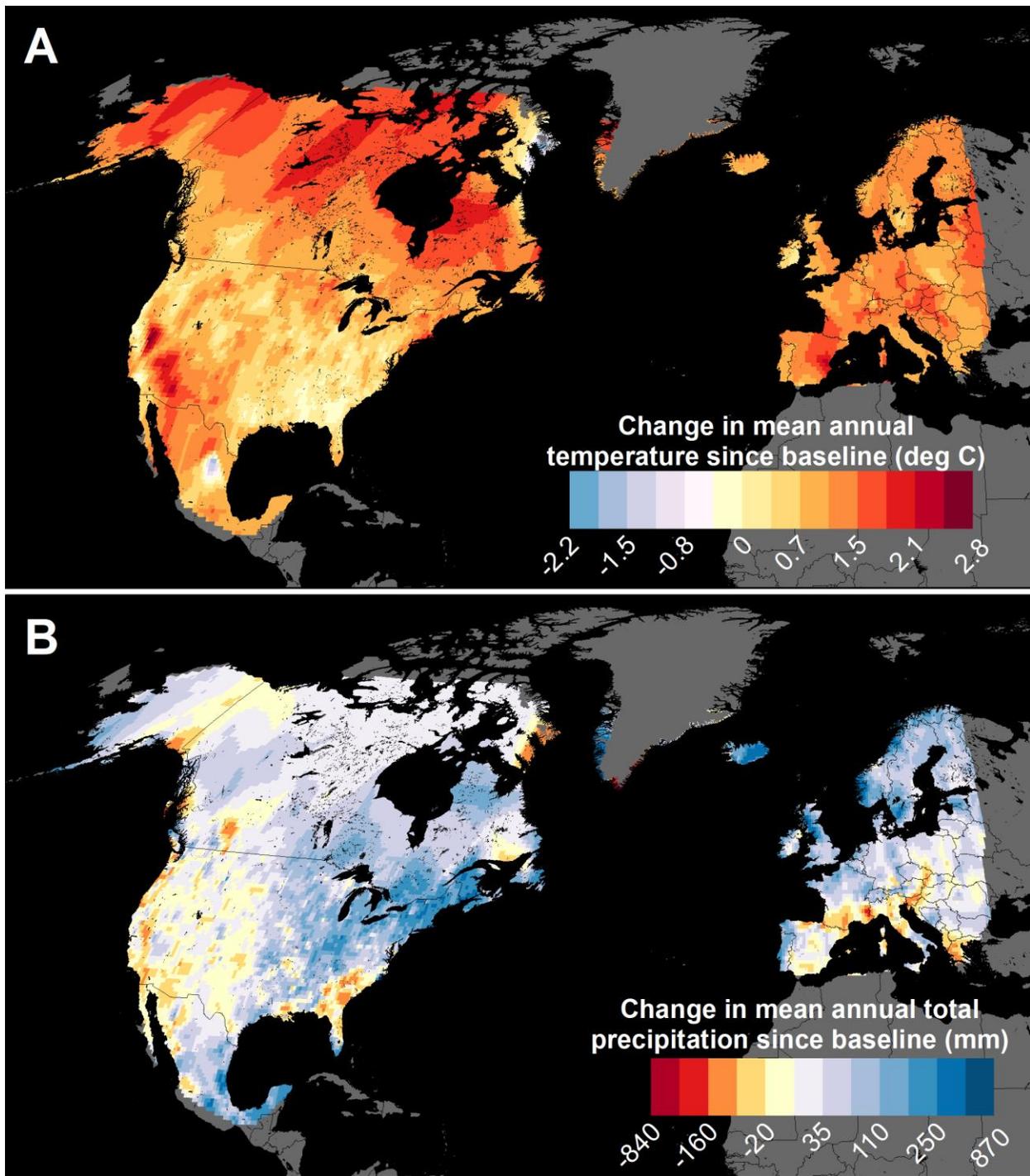
466

467 **Figure S2. Density of unique location-year observations per 100km by 100km grid cell**

468 **across North America and Europe.**

469

470



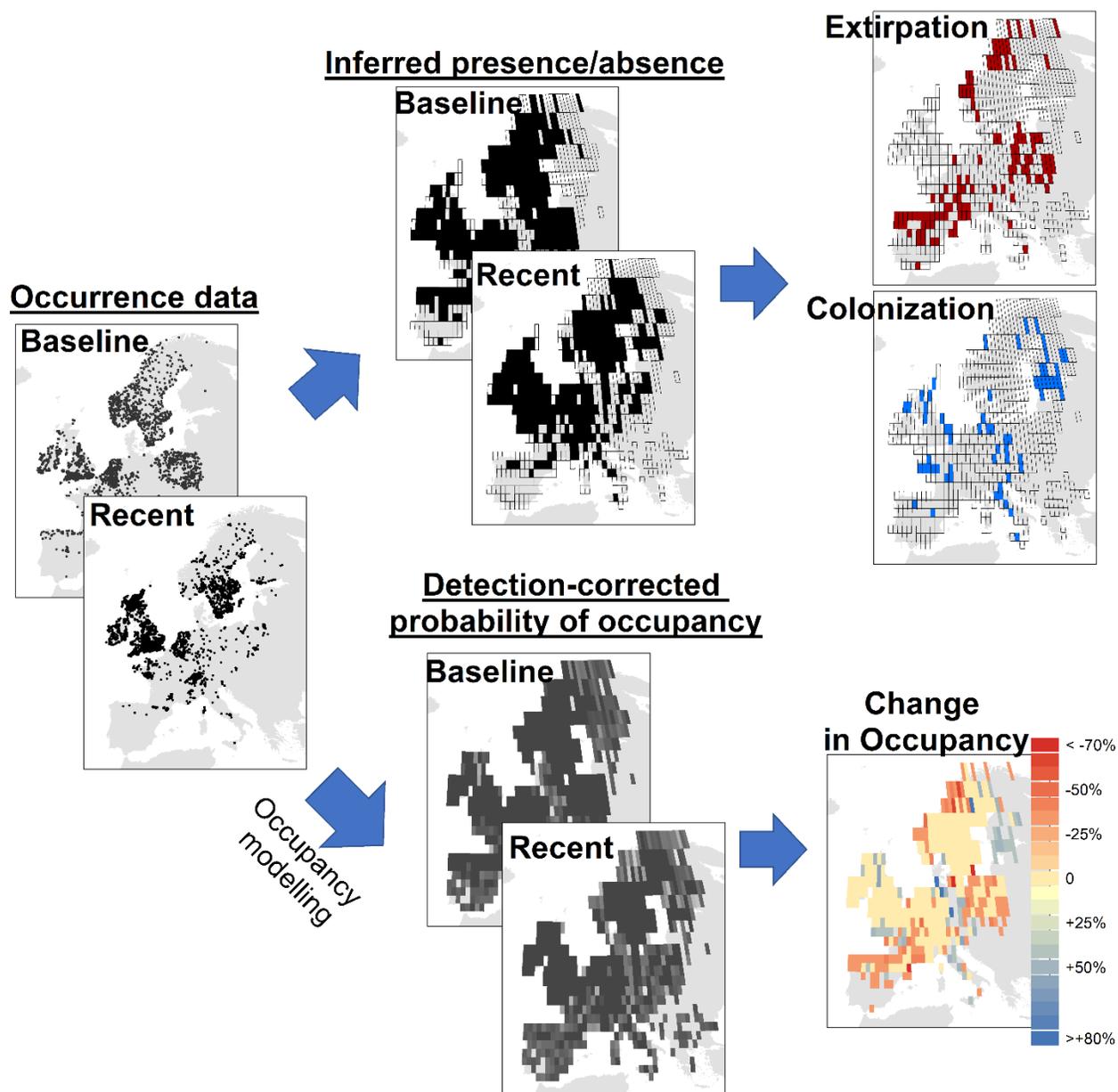
471

472 **Figure S3. Change in mean annual mean temperature (A) and mean total precipitation (B)**

473 **from the baseline (1901-1974) to the recent period (2000-2015) across North America and**

474 **Europe.**

475

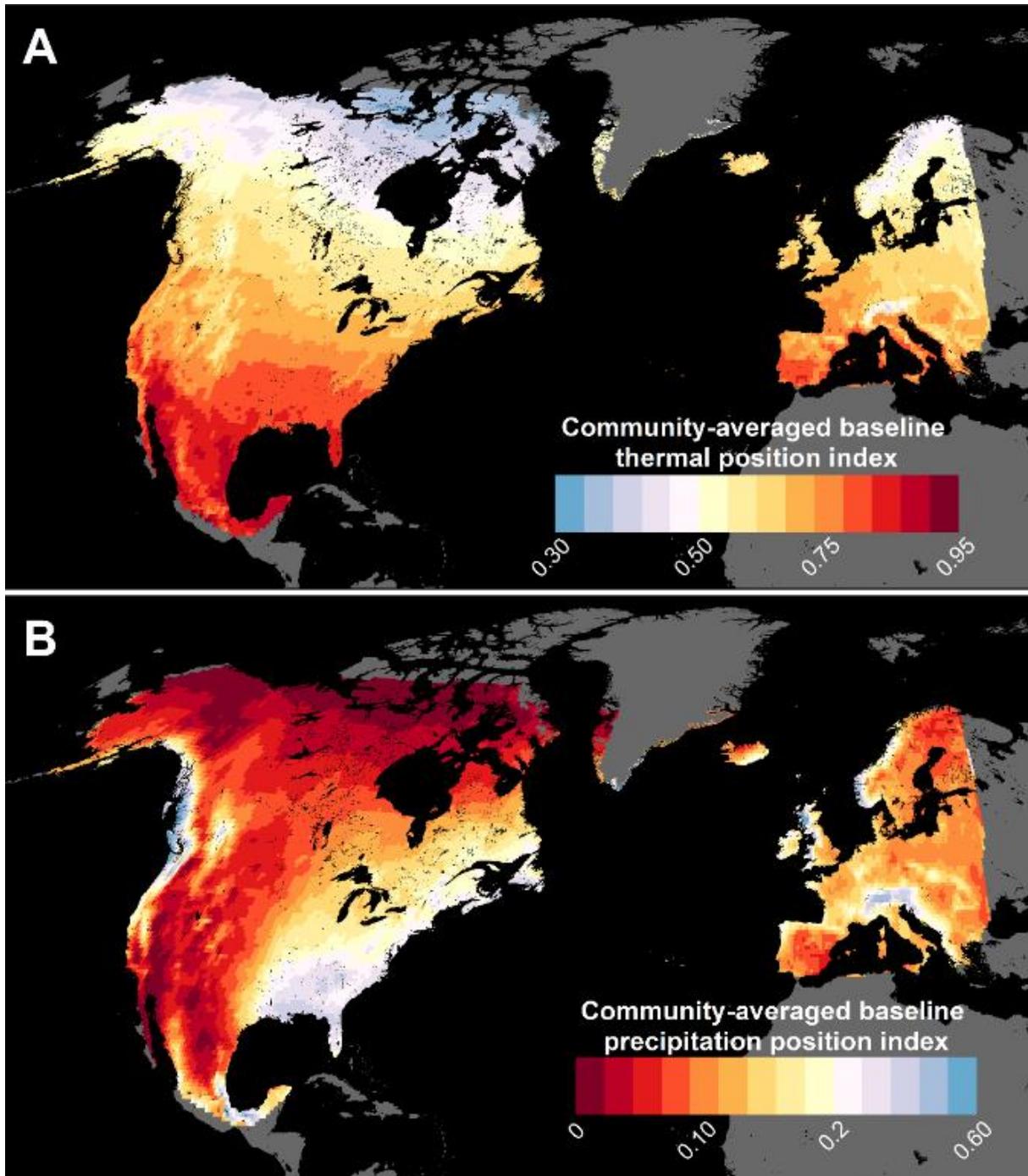


477

478 **Figure S4. Graphical description of methods visualizing relation between occurrence**
 479 **records and eventual measures of detection-corrected change in occupancy, extirpation,**
 480 **and colonization for *Bombus hortorum*.**

481

482



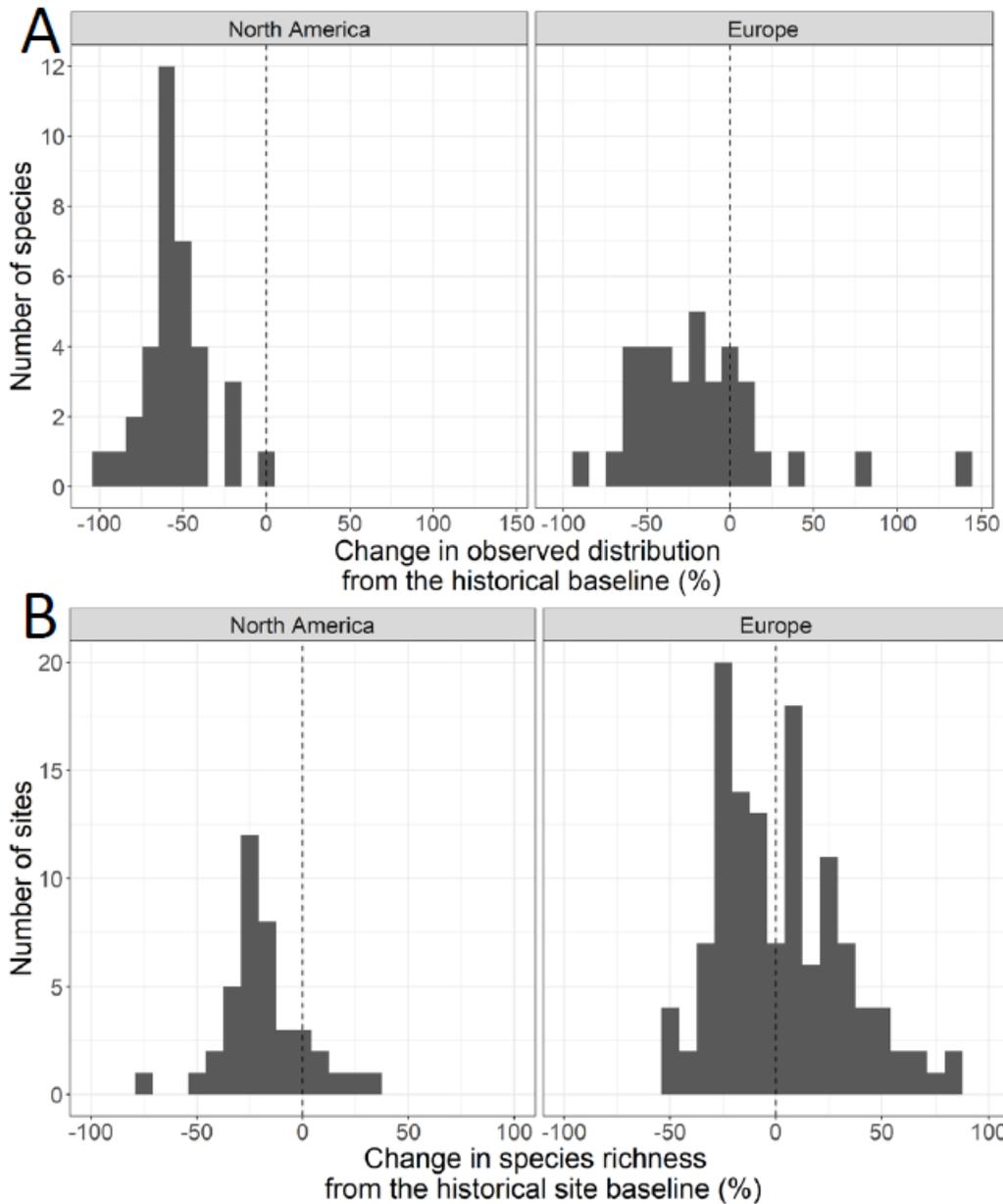
483

484 **Figure S5. Community-averaged thermal (A) and precipitation position (B) in the baseline**
 485 **period (1901-1974) across North America and Europe. Both thermal and precipitation**
 486 **position indices have a potential range of 0 to 1. Zero indicates that species in the assemblage are**
 487 **on average at their cold/dry tolerance limit for the entirety of the year in the period. One**

488 indicates that species in the assemblage are on average at their hot/wet tolerance limit for the
489 entirety of the year in the period.

490

491



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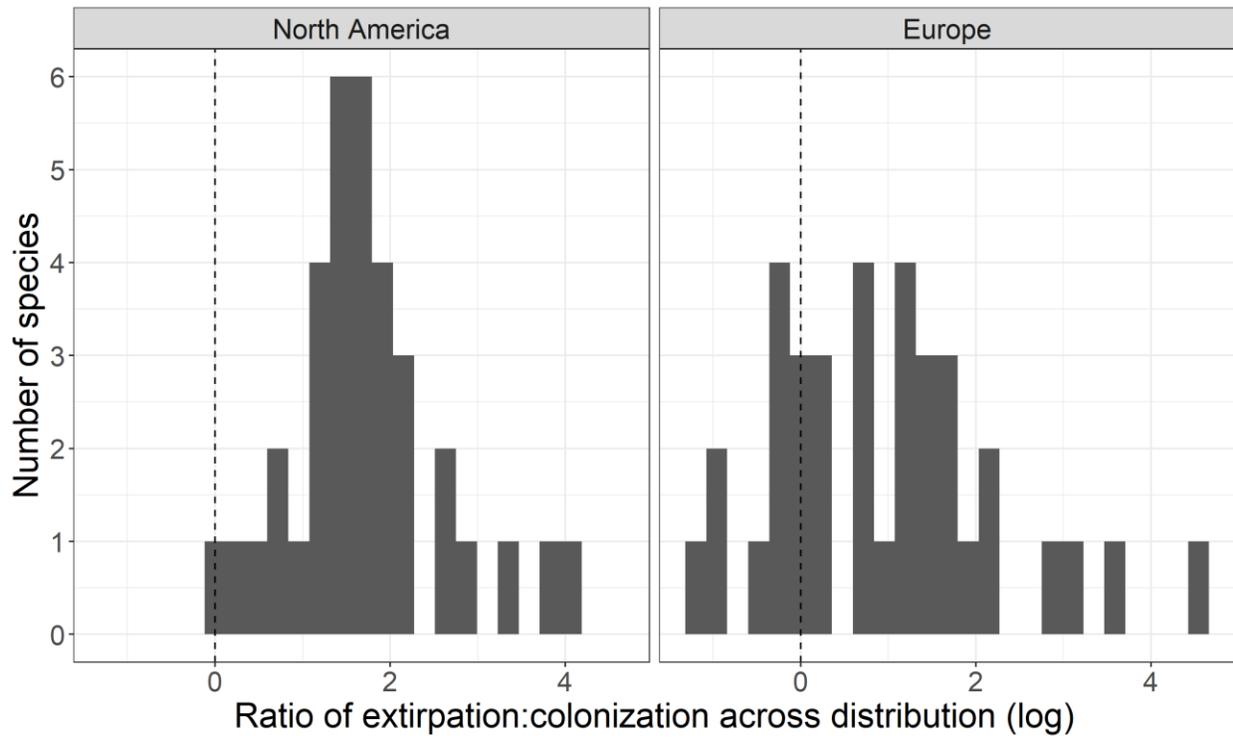
493 **Figure S6. Change in species' observed distribution (A) and observed species richness (B)**

494 **from the baseline (1901-1974) to recent period (2000-2014) in sites across the study area.**

495 Observed species richness was only measured in sites with a minimum of 50 unique location-
496 year-species observations in the baseline and most recent period. N= 164.

497

498



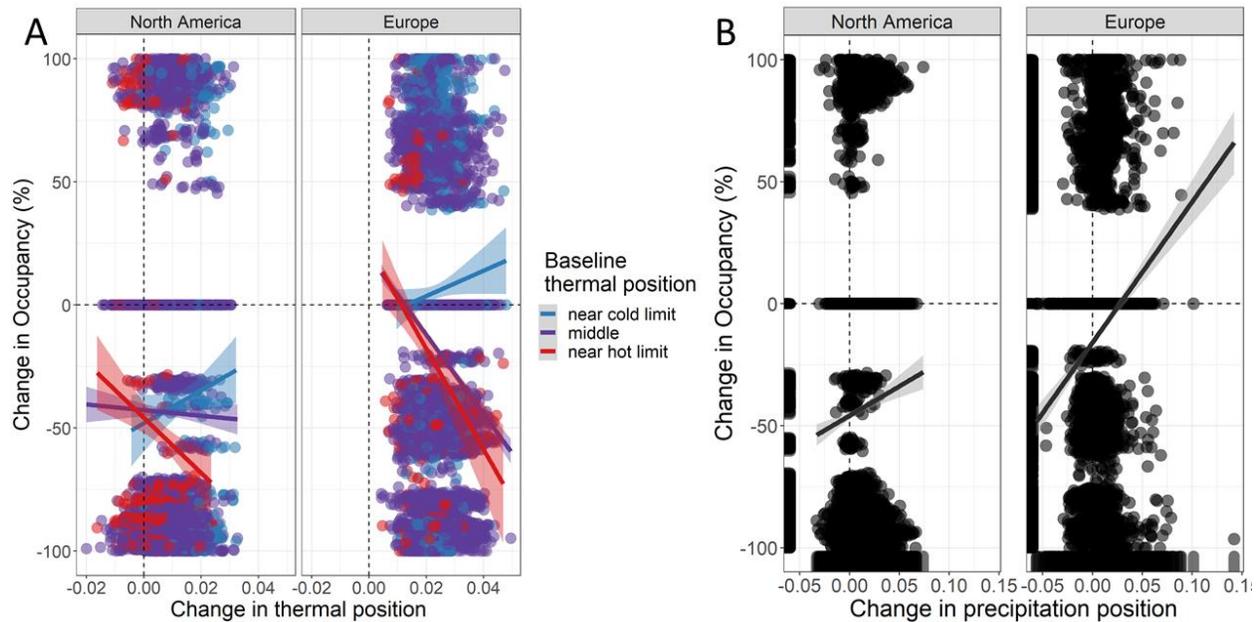
499

500 **Figure S7. Ratio of local extirpation:colonization across species' observed distributions**
501 **between the baseline (1900-1975) and recent period (2000-2015).**

502

503

504



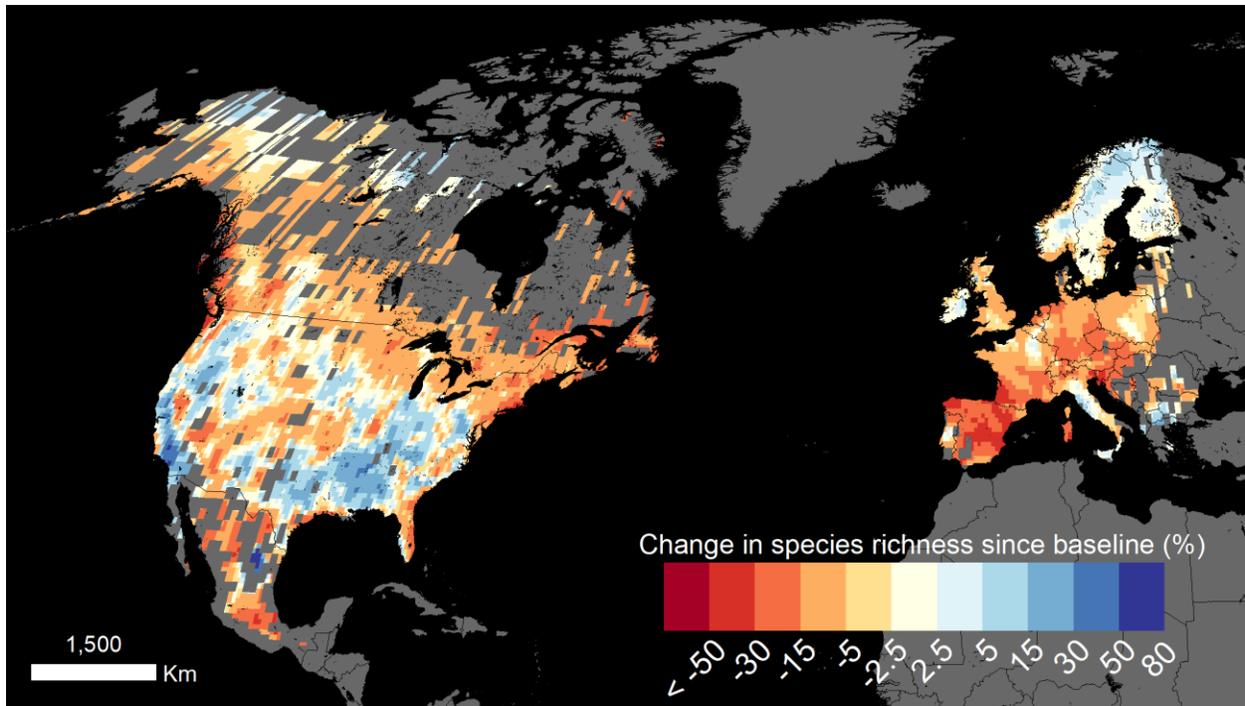
505

506 **Figure S8. Change in probability of occupancy in response to change in thermal (A) and**
507 **precipitation (B) position from the baseline (1901-1974) to recent period (2000-2014). Note**

508 that this figure is identical to Figure 3 in the main text but shows raw data points. Thermal and
509 precipitation position ranges from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating conditions at a species'
510 hot or wet limit for the entire year, and zero meaning conditions are at a species' cold or dry limit
511 for the entire year during the historic period. For ease of visualizing the significant interaction
512 between baseline thermal position and change in thermal position, the continuous baseline
513 thermal position variable has been split at the 1st and 3rd quantile to show sites that were
514 historically close to species' hot limits (red; n=969), cold limits (blue; n=2,244), and middle of
515 their observed climatic limits (purple; n=11,793). Rug plot shows the distribution of
516 observations. Confidence intervals ($\pm 95\%$) are shown around linear trendlines.

517

518

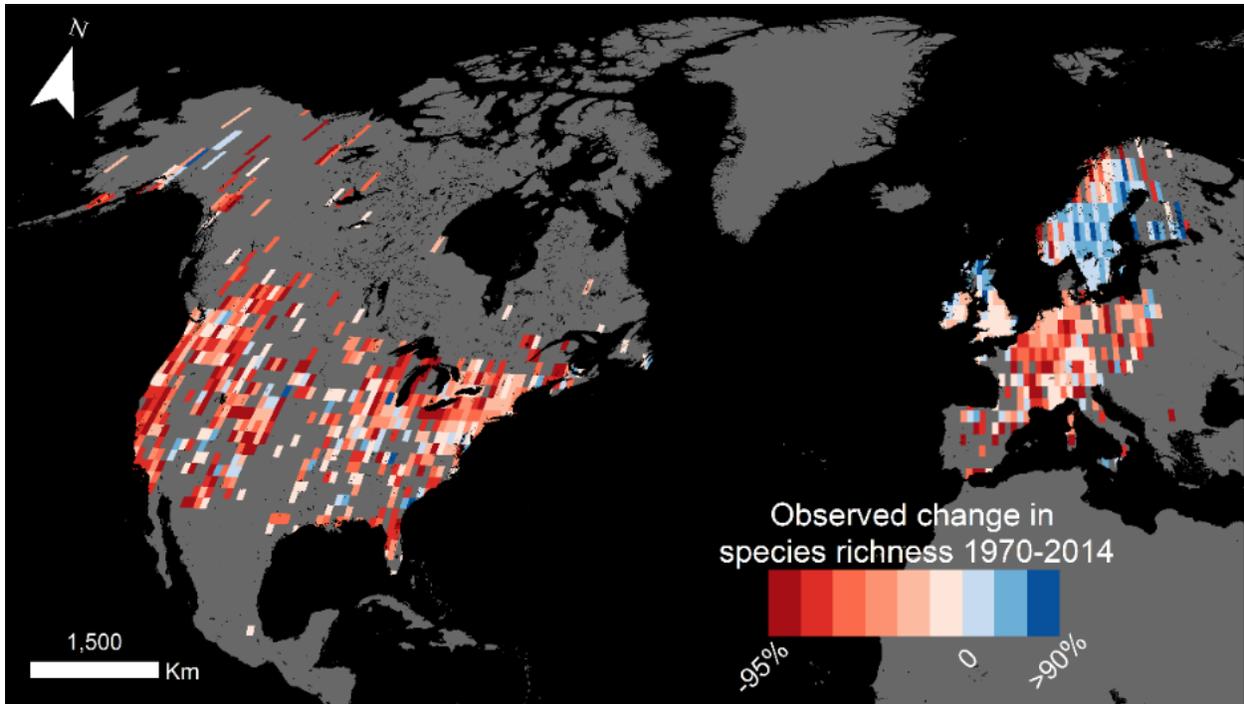


519

520 **Figure S9. Spatial projections of climate change-related change in non-detection-corrected bumble**
 521 **bee species richness from a baseline period (1901-1974) to a recent period (2000-2014).** Made using a
 522 model predicting percent change in non-detection-corrected bumble bee species richness as a function of
 523 mean community thermal and precipitation position ($R^2= 0.44$; see Materials and Methods for model
 524 details).

525

526

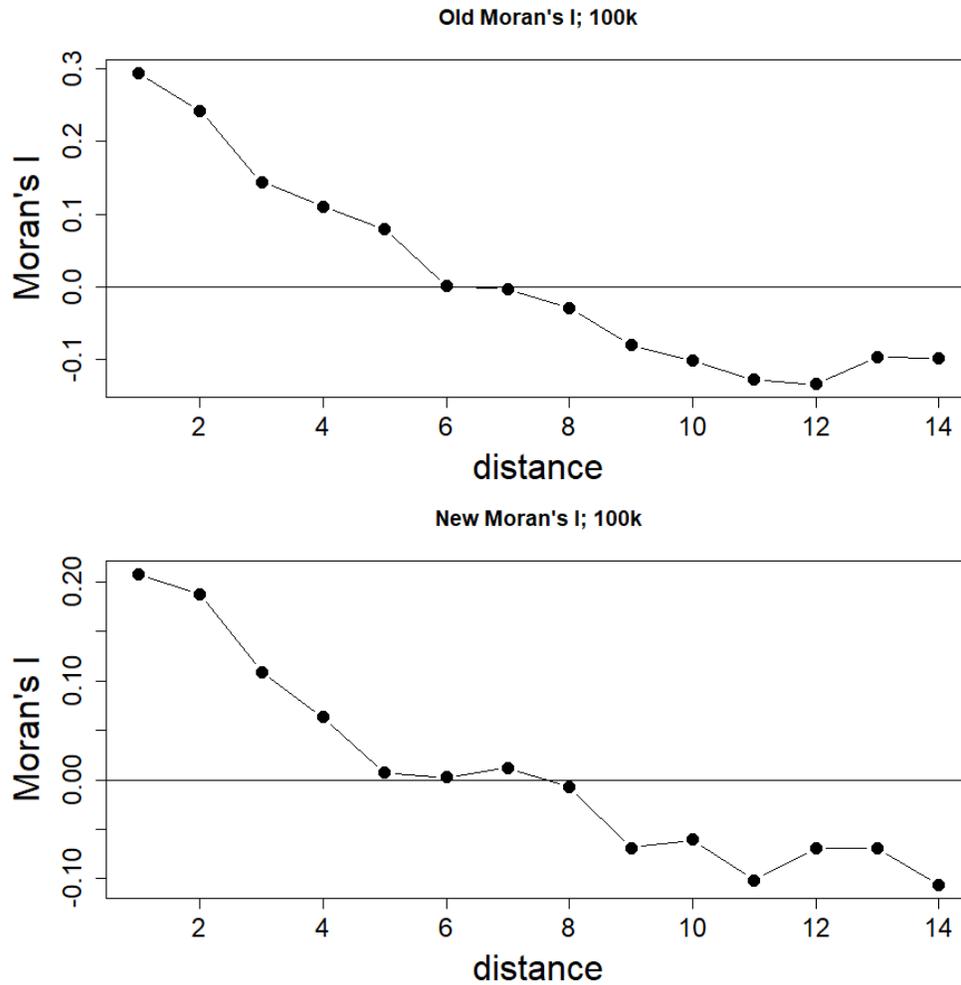


527

528 **Figure S10. Percent change in observed bumble bee species richness across North America from the**
529 **baseline (1901-1974) to recent period (2000-2014).** Grid cells shown are 100 km by 100 km, in an equal
530 area projection. No sampling-based selection (see methods) applied here.

531

532



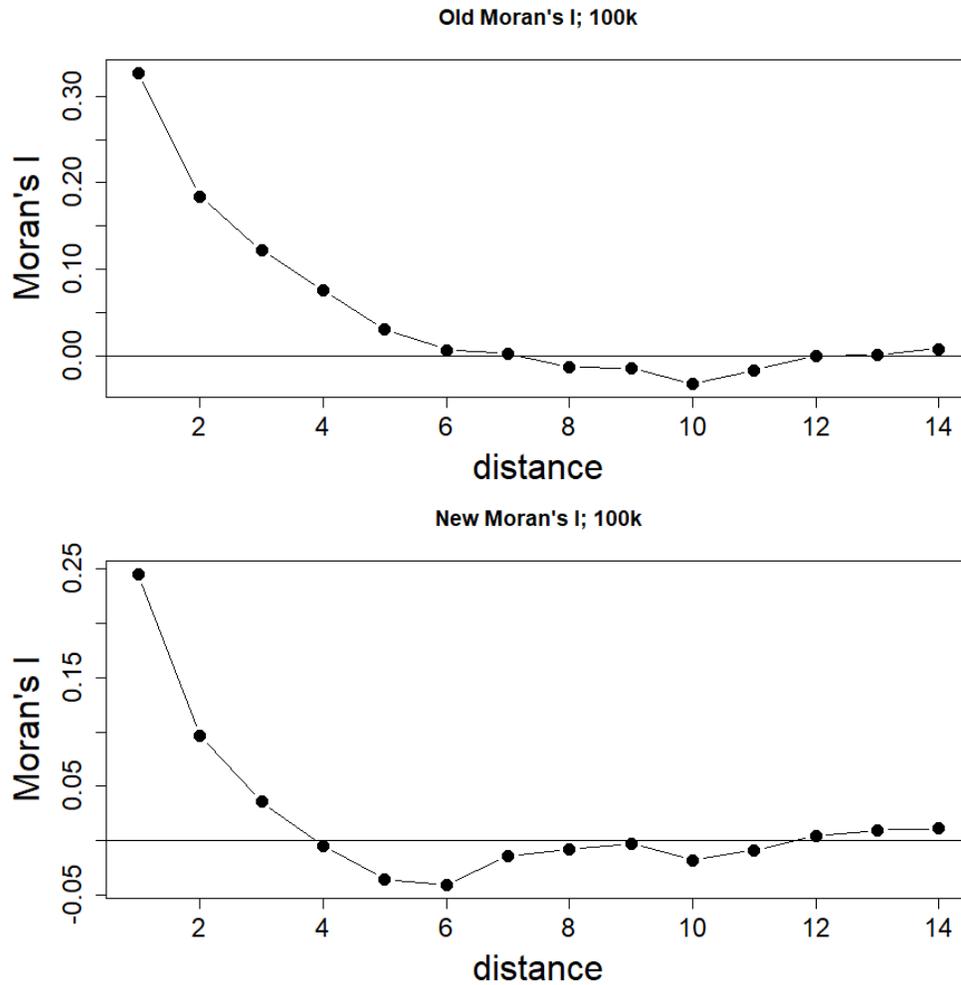
533

534 **Figure S11. Correlogram of Moran's I for non-detection corrected species richness model.**

535 Moran's I calculated from a) ordinary least squares regression model and b) simultaneous
 536 autoregressive (SAR) error model. SAR model was a significantly better fit (according to log
 537 likelihood). Model coefficients were qualitatively similar between both models.

538

539

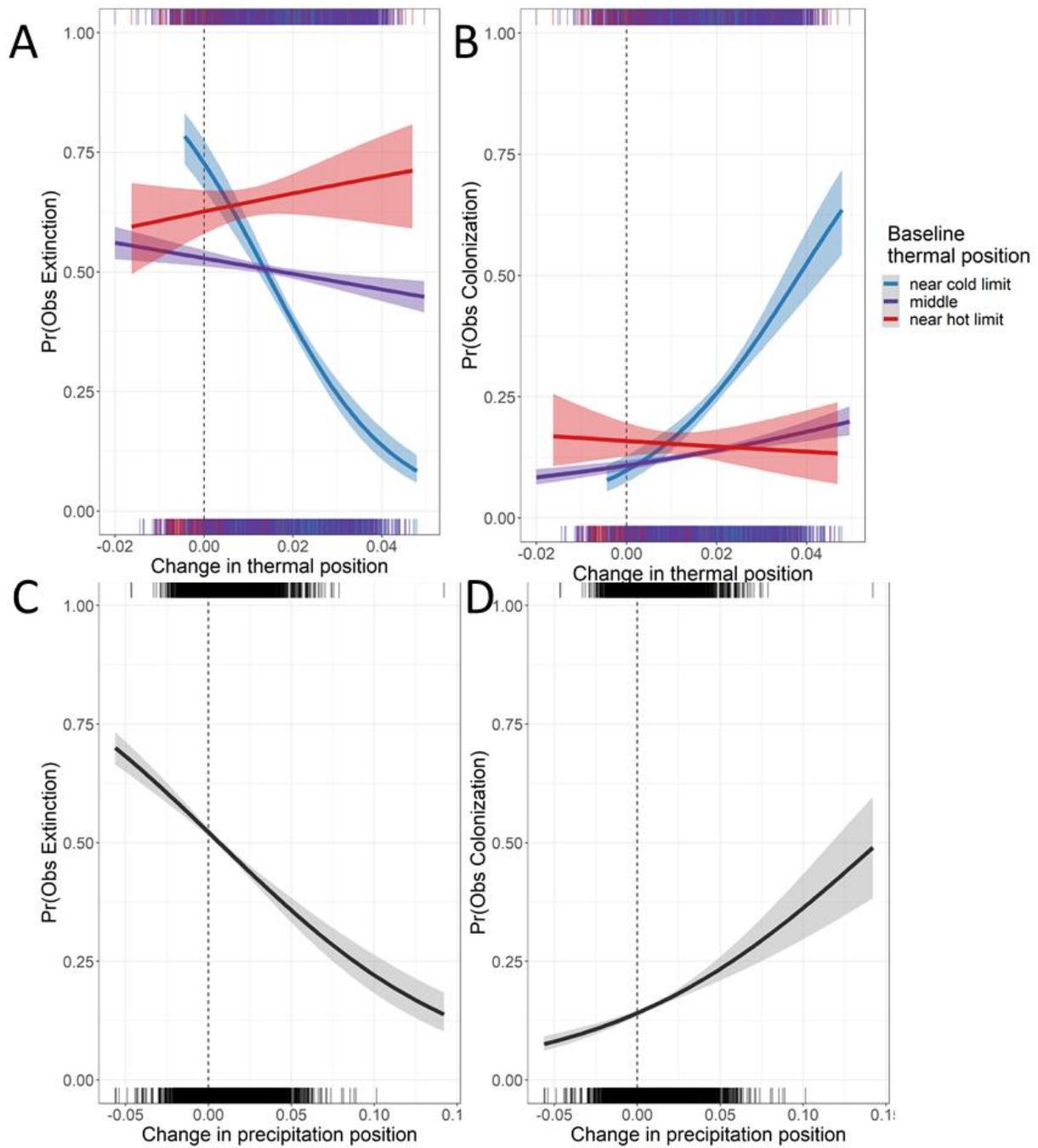


540

541 **Figure S12. Correlogram of Moran's I for detection-corrected species richness response**
 542 **model.** Moran's I calculated from a) ordinary least squares regression model and b) simultaneous
 543 autoregressive (SAR) error model. SAR model was a significantly better fit (according to log
 544 likelihood). Model coefficients were qualitatively similar between both models.

545

546



547

548 **Figure S13. Probability of local extinction (A, C) and colonization (B, D) in response to**
 549 **change in thermal (A, B) and precipitation (C, D) position from the baseline (1901-1974) to**
 550 **recent period (2000-2014). Thermal and precipitation position ranges from 0 to 1, with 1**
 551 **indicating conditions at a site are at a species' hot or wet limit for the entire year, and zero**
 552 **meaning conditions are at a species' cold or dry limit for the entire year during the historic**

553 period. For ease of visualizing the significant interaction between baseline thermal position and
554 change in thermal position, the continuous baseline thermal position variable has been split at the
555 1st and 3rd quantile to show sites that were historically close to species' hot limits (red; n=969),
556 cold limits (blue; n=2,244), and middle of their observed climatic limits (purple; n=11,793). Rug
557 plot shows the distribution of observations. Confidence intervals ($\pm 95\%$) are shown around
558 linear trendlines.

559

560

Table S1. Summary of unique location-year observations per period for the 66 bumble bee (*Bombus*) species in the analysis dataset.

Bumble bee species	Baseline (1900-1975)	Recent (2000-2015)
<i>affinis</i>	1386	76
<i>appositus</i>	622	178
<i>auricomus</i>	407	224
<i>barbutellus</i>	1053	494
<i>bifarius</i>	2921	644
<i>bimaculatus</i>	981	794
<i>bohemicus</i>	1957	4171
<i>borealis</i>	542	142
<i>campestris</i>	1495	1847
<i>centralis</i>	1038	344
<i>citrinus</i>	344	334
<i>cryptarum</i>	336	717
<i>distinguendus</i>	1409	1735
<i>fervidus</i>	2798	856
<i>flavifrons</i>	1078	421
<i>fraternus</i>	323	80
<i>frigidus</i>	350	195
<i>griseocollis</i>	1070	1089
<i>hortorum</i>	3856	9238
<i>humilis</i>	2006	2055
<i>huntii</i>	1252	449
<i>hypnorum</i>	2333	6214
<i>impatiens</i>	2914	1632
<i>insularis</i>	840	332
<i>jonellus</i>	1753	4162
<i>lapidarius</i>	4124	14547
<i>lucorum</i>	4646	15076
<i>magnus</i>	348	587
<i>melanopygus</i>	1242	454
<i>mendax</i>	166	111
<i>mesomelas</i>	351	447
<i>mixtus</i>	860	452
<i>monticola</i>	410	2125
<i>morrisoni</i>	858	257
<i>mucidus</i>	194	147
<i>muscorum</i>	1974	2012
<i>nevadensis</i>	517	207

<i>norvegicus</i>	165	578
<i>occidentalis</i>	3217	398
<i>pascuorum</i>	7883	22236
<i>pensylvanicus</i>	3953	443
<i>perplexus</i>	581	442
<i>pomorum</i>	483	38
<i>pratorum</i>	3928	11142
<i>pyrenaeus</i>	271	308
<i>quadricolor</i>	106	356
<i>runderarius</i>	2565	2355
<i>runderatus</i>	1731	398
<i>rufocinctus</i>	1097	435
<i>rupestris</i>	1011	2117
<i>sicheli</i>	223	332
<i>soroensis</i>	1725	4028
<i>sporadicus</i>	188	411
<i>subterraneus</i>	1355	1522
<i>sylvarum</i>	2492	3235
<i>sylvestris</i>	1252	2598
<i>sylvicola</i>	471	310
<i>ternarius</i>	677	459
<i>terrestris</i>	4027	15206
<i>terricola</i>	1886	337
<i>vagans</i>	1191	564
<i>vandykei</i>	182	150
<i>vestalis</i>	936	2874
<i>veteranus</i>	1221	145
<i>vosnesenskii</i>	3249	410
<i>wurflenii</i>	1042	426

562

563

Table S2. Estimated model coefficients for the five main models. Posterior means and 95% Bayesian credible intervals are shown for PGLMM models. t-values (for analysis of covariance models, ANCOVA) are included as a measure of significance. Generally, coefficients with t-values < -2 and > 2 are considered significant, these and coefficients where the 95% CI does not overlap zero are in bold text in the table. Variance explained is expressed in terms of marginal R² (for PGLMM) and adjusted-R² (for ANCOVA models).

	Occupancy (PGLMM)		Extinction (PGLMM)		Colonization (PGLMM)		Species richness (ancova)		Detection-corrected species richness (ancova)	
	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Estimate (SE)	t value	Estimate (SE)	t value
Intercept	-46.29	-100.93 - 6.96	0.87	-1.53 - 3.21	-2.55	-4.75 - -0.32	-10.94 (4.26)	-2.57	-15.41 (0.52)	- 29.38
<u>Thermal position variables</u>										
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-8.46	-10.39 - -6.33	27.38	22.31 - 32.65	-12.91	-19.85 - -6.16	-161.33 (34.39)	-4.69	-0.49 (0.43)	-1.14
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	17.44	12.43 - 22.16	13.27	6.77 - 19.46	(26.68)	-2.34	--	--
Change since baseline	-4.54	-6.08 - -3.01	0.29	0.23 - 0.36	-0.09	-0.17 - -0.01	-4.86 (2.92)	-1.67	-2.16 (0.55)	-3.91
Baseline:Change interaction	-10.76	-12.82 - -8.76	0.53	0.43 - 0.63	-0.43	-0.55 - -0.29	-9.74 (4.31)	-2.34	-2.77 (0.44)	0
<u>Precipitation position variables</u>										
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-1.63	-3.04 - -0.25	-0.89	-7.39 - 6.14	-30.56	-39.56 - -21.29	-5.57 (2.09)	-2.67	-0.73 (0.44)	-1.64

Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	-2.56	-8.56 - 2.96	13.56	6.53 - 20.55	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	3.9	2.55 - 5.13	-0.14	-0.21 - -0.09	0.21	0.13 - 0.29	-1.27 (2.47)	-0.51	0.26 (0.5)	0.53
Baseline:Change interaction	-0.11	-0.81 - 0.69	0.02	-0.02 - 0.05	-0.03	-0.08 - 0.02	-9.74 (4.31)	-2.26	0.47 (0.34)	1.38

Climatic position interactions

Baseline thermal:Baseline precipitation interaction	-0.05	-1.82 - 1.69	0.02	-0.05 - 0.1	0.12	0.03 - 0.21	--	--	-0.39 (0.39)	-1.01
Change in thermal:Change in precipitation interaction	-0.15	-1.17 - 0.85	0.02	-0.02 - 0.06	0.06	0 - 0.12	--	--	2.04 (0.39)	5.26

Covariates

Continent (Europe)	39.35	32.95 - 45.45	-1.98	-2.22 - -1.71	1.27	0.96 - 1.56	12.2 (5.13)	2.38	7.87 (1.13)	6.95
Sampling Effort	--	--	-0.59	-0.65 - -0.55	-0.17	-0.21 - -0.13	--	--	--	--

Random effects

Species	181.4	117 - 256.2	0.3	0.19 - 0.44	0.26	0.15 - 0.39	--	--	--	--
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Model summary

Number observations (n)	4617-5264	30.8-1035.5	118.5-1730.1	164	1849
Variation explained (R2)	0.11	0.87	0.53	0.38	0.07

Table S3. Model coefficients (and standard error) for the simultaneous autoregressive (SAR) error species richness models correcting for spatial autocorrelation. Z values are included as a measure of significance. Generally, coefficients with z values < -2 and > 2 are considered significant, these are in bold text in the table. Variance explained is expressed in terms of Nagelkerke pseudo-R².

	Species richness SAR		Detection-corrected species richness SAR	
	Estimate	z value	Estimate	z value
Intercept	-12.64 (11.27)	-1.12	-14.19 (1.98)	-7.16
<u>Thermal position variables</u>				
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-107.69 (38.08)	-2.83	-0.26 (0.84)	-0.31
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	-13.86 (25)	-0.55	--	--
Change since baseline	0.63 (3.08)	0.21	-1.95 (0.64)	-3.06
Baseline:Change interaction	1.5 (4.46)	0.34	-1.18 (0.56)	-2.11
<u>Precipitation position variables</u>				
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	0.94 (2.59)	0.36	0.12 (0.62)	0.19
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	-3.33 (2.66)	-1.25	0.32 (0.64)	0.5
Baseline:Change interaction	1.15 (1.87)	0.62	-0.04 (0.38)	-0.1
<u>Climatic position interactions</u>				
Baseline thermal:Baseline precipitation interaction	--	--	0.36 (0.55)	0.65
Change in thermal:Change in precipitation interaction	--	--	0.7 (0.43)	1.63
<u>Covariates</u>				
Continent (Europe)	14.47 (12.99)	1.11	7.1 (3.72)	1.91
<u>Model summary</u>				
Number observations (n)	164		1849	
Variation explained (R ²)	0.44		0.14	

Table S4. Estimated model coefficients for the change in occupancy, extirpation, colonization, and detection-corrected species richness models including land-use. Posterior means and 95% Bayesian credible intervals presented for PGLMM models, model coefficients (and standard error) presented for analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and spatial autoregressive (SAR) error models. t-values (for analysis of covariance models) and z-values (for SAR error models) are included as a measure of significance. Generally, coefficients with t-values < -2 and > 2 are considered significant, these and coefficients where the 95% CI does not overlap zero are in bold text in the table. Variance explained is expressed in terms of marginal R² (for PGLMM), adjusted-R² (for ANCOVA models), and Nagelkerke pseudo-R².

	Occupancy (PGLMM)		Extinction (PGLMM)		Colonization (PGLMM)		Species richness (ANCOVA)		Detection-corrected species richness (SAR error model)	
	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Estimate (SE)	t value	Estimate (SE)	z value
Intercept	-46.47	-102.49 - 10.76	0.91	-1.28 - 3.33	-2.96	-5.38 - -0.29	-15.62 (0.56)	- 27.73	-14.2 (2)	-7.11
<u>Thermal position variables</u>										
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-8.18	-10.29 - -6.18	26.77	21.01 - 31.65	-14.9	-24 - -6.14	-0.67 (0.47)	-1.43	-0.26 (0.85)	-0.31
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	15.56	10.31 - 20.7	16.08	7.69 - 25.05	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	-4.22	-5.75 - -2.68	0.29	0.22 - 0.34	-0.09	-0.19 - 0.01	-2.24 (0.56)	-4.01	-1.95 (0.64)	-3.06
Baseline:Change interaction	-11.06	-13.09 - -8.93	0.52	0.43 - 0.61	-0.5	-0.68 - -0.34	-2.7 (0.45)	-6	-1.18 (0.56)	-2.1
<u>Precipitation position variables</u>										

Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-2	-3.44 - -0.58	1.9	-4.63 - 7.57	-35.49	-47.78 - -23.32	-0.59 (0.46)	-1.28	0.12 (0.62)	0.19
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	-4.05	-10.46 - 2.35	15.95	6.79 - 25.15	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	3.78	2.46 - 5.03	-0.14	-0.2 - -0.09	0.24	0.14 - 0.34	0.25 (0.5)	0.5	0.32 (0.64)	0.5
Baseline:Change interaction	-0.02	-0.76 - 0.74	0.02	-0.02 - 0.05	-0.03	-0.08 - 0.02	0.48 (0.34)	1.4	-0.04 (0.38)	-0.1
<u>Climatic position interactions</u>										
Baseline thermal:Baseline precipitation interaction	-0.3	-2.02 - 1.4	0.04	-0.04 - 0.11	0.13	0.03 - 0.25	-0.32 (0.4)	-0.81	0.36 (0.55)	0.65
Change in thermal:Change in precipitation interaction	-0.1	-1.08 - 0.95	0.02	-0.02 - 0.06	0.07	0 - 0.14	2.01 (0.39)	5.14	0.7 (0.43)	1.63
<u>Human dominated land-use</u>										
Land-use change	-16.4	-27.33 - -6.46	0.92	0.44 - 1.39	-0.61	-1.3 - 0.15	3.72 (3.73)	1	0.11 (4.35)	0.03
<u>Covariates</u>										
Continent (Europe)	38.78	33.03 - 45.31	-1.96	-2.25 - -1.67	1.43	1 - 1.91	8.21 (1.18)	6.94	7.11 (3.74)	1.9
Sampling Effort	--	--	-0.57	-0.64 - -0.53	-0.19	-0.25 - -0.14	--	--	--	--
<u>Random effects</u>										
Species	181.6	118.1 - 256.8	0.31	0.19 - 0.43	1.32	0.14 - 3.66	--	--	--	--
<u>Model summary</u>										
Number observations (n)	7235-7500		18.4-1464.9		57.9-1551.6		1849		1849	
Variation explained (R2)	0.11		0.87		0.27		0.07		0.14	

Table S5. Estimated model coefficients for the change in occupancy, extirpation, colonization, and detection-corrected species richness

models at a 50km by 50km scale. Posterior means and 95% Bayesian credible intervals presented for PGLMM models, model coefficients (and standard error) presented for analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and spatial autoregressive (SAR) error models. t-values (for analysis of covariance models) and z-values (for SAR error models) are included as a measure of significance. Generally, coefficients with t-values < -2 and > 2 are considered significant, these and coefficients where the 95% CI does not overlap zero are in bold text in the table. Variance explained is expressed in terms of marginal R² (for PGLMM), adjusted-R² (for ANCOVA models), and Nagelkerke pseudo-R².

	Occupancy (PGLMM)		Extinction (PGLMM)		Colonization (PGLMM)		Species richness (ANCOVA)		Detection-corrected species richness (SAR error model)	
	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Estimate (SE)	t value	Estimate (SE)	z value
Intercept	-53.03	-115.76 - 10.83	1.54	-1.04 - 4.04	-2.27	-4.41 - -0.2	-21.59 (0.28)	-78.3	-21.02 (1.13)	-18.6
<u>Thermal position variables</u>										
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-6.17	-7.65 - -4.76	32.56	27.47 - 37.66	-16.86	-23.25 - -11.77	-0.05 (0.21)	-0.23	0.5 (0.4)	1.27
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	28.47	23.31 - 33.69	2.02	-3.6 - 7.4	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	-3.45	-4.56 - -2.36	0.24	0.2 - 0.29	-0.21	-0.26 - -0.16	-0.83 (0.29)	-2.87	-0.63 (0.33)	-1.9
Baseline:Change interaction	-7.12	-8.45 - -5.58	0.47	0.4 - 0.53	-0.32	-0.39 - -0.24	-1.41 (0.22)	-6.29	-0.68 (0.28)	-2.38
<u>Precipitation position variables</u>										

Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-0.88	-2.02 - 0.19	0.73	-5.91 - 7.46	-23.4	-30.61 - -15.15	-0.26 (0.21)	-1.23	0.13 (0.31)	0.44
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	-10.36	-15.67 - -5.18	13.49	6.85 - 20.92	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	4.99	4.01 - 6.04	-0.26	-0.3 - -0.22	0.22	0.17 - 0.27	0.25 (0.24)	1.03	0.25 (0.33)	0.76
Baseline:Change interaction	-0.31	-0.97 - 0.38	0.08	0.05 - 0.11	-0.02	-0.05 - 0.02	0.3 (0.17)	1.81	-0.01 (0.19)	-0.04
<u>Climatic position interactions</u>										
Baseline thermal:Baseline precipitation interaction	0.71	-0.62 - 1.9	-0.06	-0.11 - 0	0.12	0.07 - 0.18	-0.21 (0.18)	-1.2	0.01 (0.25)	0.05
Change in thermal:Change in precipitation interaction	-0.3	-1.09 - 0.46	-0.05	-0.09 - -0.02	0.01	-0.03 - 0.05	1.04 (0.2)	5.25	0.4 (0.23)	1.79
<u>Covariates</u>										
Continent (Europe)	37.1	31.46 - 42.32	-1.87	-2.09 - -1.65	1.46	1.23 - 1.69	3.96 (0.57)	6.95	3.06 (1.97)	1.55
Sampling Effort	--	--	-0.53	-0.56 - -0.5	-0.09	-0.11 - -0.07	--	--	--	--
<u>Random effects</u>										
Species	<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u> 238.8 160.1 - 334		<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u> 0.37 0.23 - 0.52		<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u> 0.25 0.16 - 0.36		--	--	--	--
<u>Model summary</u>										
Number observations (n)	5000-5490		40.3-5608		58.8-2410.7		4856	4856	4856	4856
Variation explained (R2)	0.1		0.84		0.61		0.03	0.06	0.06	0.06

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Table S6. Estimated model coefficients for the change in occupancy, extirpation, colonization, and detection-corrected species richness

models at a 200km by 200km scale. Posterior means and 95% Bayesian credible intervals presented for PGLMM models, model coefficients (and standard error) presented for analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and spatial autoregressive (SAR) error models. t-values (for analysis of covariance models) and z-values (for SAR error models) are included as a measure of significance. Generally, coefficients with t-values < -2 and > 2 are considered significant, these and coefficients where the 95% CI does not overlap zero are in bold text in the table. Variance explained is expressed in terms of marginal R2 (for PGLMM), adjusted-R2 (for ANCOVA models), and Nagelkerke pseudo-R2.

	Occupancy (PGLMM)		Extinction (PGLMM)		Colonization (PGLMM)		Species richness (ANCOVA)		Detection-corrected species richness (SAR error model)	
	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Estimate (SE)	t value	Estimate (SE)	z value
Intercept	-36.36	-85.99 - 13.45	0.07	-2.85 - 2.79	-4.64	-12.08 - -0.63	5.23 (1.16)	4.52	6.75 (2.88)	2.35
<u>Thermal position variables</u>										
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-6.14	-9.06 - -3.06	13.46	6.36 - 21.36	-11.78	-33.65 - 1.39	1.46 (0.99)	1.47	-0.9 (1.66)	-0.54
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	12.3	5.42 - 19.56	35.46	15.18 - 81.11	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	-3.08	-5.23 - -1.06	0.22	0.09 - 0.37	0.1	-0.13 - 0.42	-0.69 (1.18)	-0.58	-1.88 (1.26)	-1.5
Baseline:Change interaction	-9.96	-12.87 - -6.94	0.54	0.33 - 0.81	-0.47	-1.16 - -0.08	-5.5 (0.99)	-5.55	-2.97 (1.11)	-2.69

Precipitation position variables

Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-2.89	-4.89 - -0.91	0.07	-7.03 - 7.34	-37.24	-83.9 - -14.07	-1.04 (1.05)	-0.99	0.31 (1.26)	0.24
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	3.68	-4.3 - 11.65	11.72	-6.28 - 38.02	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	4.33	2.59 - 6.08	-0.13	-0.25 - -0.02	0.49	0.17 - 1.15	0.26 (1.16)	0.23	0.48 (1.33)	0.36
Baseline:Change interaction	0.26	-0.72 - 1.16	-0.05	-0.12 - 0.02	-0.12	-0.34 - 0.03	0.77 (0.94)	0.83	0.48 (0.99)	0.49
<u>Climatic position interactions</u>										
Baseline thermal:Baseline precipitation interaction	1.07	-1.54 - 3.83	0.05	-0.07 - 0.2	0.28	-0.01 - 0.74	1.1 (0.89)	1.23	1.28 (1.09)	1.18
Change in thermal:Change in precipitation interaction	0.57	-0.88 - 1.92	0.02	-0.06 - 0.09	0.25	0.05 - 0.59	2.42 (0.9)	2.68	1.2 (0.93)	1.29
<u>Covariates</u>										
Continent (Europe)	38.47	31 - 45.34	-2.13	-3.18 - -1.46	1.55	0.55 - 3.55	-1.5 (2.52)	-0.6	-0.52 (5.76)	-0.09
Sampling Effort	--	--	-0.72	-0.93 - -0.54	-0.34	-0.79 - -0.14	--	--	--	--
<u>Random effects</u>										
Species	<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u>		<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u>		<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u>		--	--	--	--
	133.8	75.62 - 193.4	0.41	0.16 - 0.82	0.66	0.09 - 2.47	--	--	--	--
<u>Model summary</u>										
Number observations (n)	4181-5284		10.5-1428.2		6.5-382.6		584	584	584	584
Variation explained (R2)	0.1		0.71		0.14		0.08	0.19	0.19	0.19

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Table S7. Estimated model coefficients for the change in occupancy, extirpation, colonization, and detection-corrected species richness

models using an absence threshold of three. Posterior means and 95% Bayesian credible intervals presented for PGLMM models, model coefficients (and standard error) presented for analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and spatial autoregressive (SAR) error models. t-values (for analysis of covariance models) and z-values (for SAR error models) are included as a measure of significance. Generally, coefficients with t-values < -2 and > 2 are considered significant, these and coefficients where the 95% CI does not overlap zero are in bold text in the table. Variance explained is expressed in terms of marginal R² (for PGLMM), adjusted-R² (for ANCOVA models), and Nagelkerke pseudo-R².

	Occupancy (PGLMM)		Extinction (PGLMM)		Colonization (PGLMM)		Species richness (ANCOVA)		Detection-corrected species richness (SAR error model)	
	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Estimate (SE)	t value	Estimate (SE)	z value
Intercept	-45.15	-102.49 - 11.21	0.89	-1.41 - 3.21	-2.52	-4.73 - -0.33	-15.36 (0.74)	- 20.69	-14.85 (1.47)	- 10.09
<u>Thermal position variables</u>										
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-5.4	-7.18 - -3.58	20.67	15.2 - 25.93	-7.69	-14.72 - -0.65	-0.08 (0.56)	-0.15	0.52 (0.72)	0.72
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	13.85	9.03 - 19.04	14.45	8.32 - 20.34	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	-3.69	-5.23 - -2.17	0.27	0.21 - 0.34	-0.05	-0.14 - 0.03	-2.85 (0.78)	-3.66	-3.12 (0.8)	-3.88
Baseline:Change interaction	-9.51	-11.24 - -7.75	0.44	0.35 - 0.52	-0.36	-0.47 - -0.26	-3.97 (0.59)	-6.71	-2.94 (0.66)	-4.46
<u>Precipitation position variables</u>										

Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-1.93	-3.34 - -0.5	0.63	-6 - 6.94	-33.81	-42.7 - -25.37	-1 (0.58)	-1.74	-0.61 (0.67)	-0.91
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	-5.52	-11.5 - 0.4	15.51	8.38 - 22.84	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	4.63	3.21 - 6.01	-0.19	-0.25 - -0.13	0.25	0.16 - 0.33	0.4 (0.65)	0.61	1.11 (0.76)	1.46
Baseline:Change interaction	-0.25	-1.05 - 0.55	0.04	0 - 0.08	-0.04	-0.08 - 0.01	0.39 (0.44)	0.9	0.06 (0.46)	0.13

Climatic position interactions

Baseline thermal:Baseline precipitation interaction	0.13	-1.41 - 1.58	0.01	-0.06 - 0.08	0.11	0.03 - 0.18	-0.36 (0.46)	-0.78	-0.19 (0.54)	-0.35
Change in thermal:Change in precipitation interaction	-0.24	-1.29 - 0.84	0.02	-0.02 - 0.07	0.05	-0.01 - 0.11	2.29 (0.52)	4.42	1.63 (0.54)	3.04

Covariates

Continent (Europe)	38.03	31.62 - 44.05	-1.99	-2.29 - -1.7	1.26	0.93 - 1.59	9.48 (1.51)	6.29	10.17 (2.63)	3.87
Sampling Effort	--	--	-0.56	-0.62 - -0.51	-0.17	-0.21 - -0.13	--	--	--	--

Random effects

Species	<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u>	<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u>	<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u>	<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u>						
	185.1	115.6 - 256	0.3	0.18 - 0.43	0.27	0.16 - 0.4	--	--	--	--

Model summary

Number observations (n)	4596-5481	69.4-2453.7	201.6-4627.8	1374	1374
Variation explained (R2)	0.1	0.85	0.56	0.09	0.1

Table S8. Estimated model coefficients for the change in occupancy, extirpation, colonization, and detection-corrected species richness

models using an absence threshold of five. Posterior means and 95% Bayesian credible intervals presented for PGLMM models, model coefficients (and standard error) presented for analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and spatial autoregressive (SAR) error models. t-values (for analysis of covariance models) and z-values (for SAR error models) are included as a measure of significance. Generally, coefficients with t-values < -2 and > 2 are considered significant, these and coefficients where the 95% CI does not overlap zero are in bold text in the table. Variance explained is expressed in terms of marginal R² (for PGLMM), adjusted-R² (for ANCOVA models), and Nagelkerke pseudo-R².

	Occupancy (PGLMM)		Extinction (PGLMM)		Colonization (PGLMM)		Species richness (ANCOVA)		Detection-corrected species richness (SAR error model)	
	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Posterior mean	95% CI	Estimate (SE)	t value	Estimate (SE)	z value
Intercept	-43.16	-96.07 - 13.89	0.8	-1.56 - 2.98	-2.56	-4.88 - -0.25	-14.76 (0.91)	- 16.27	-13.73 (2.16)	-6.34
<u>Thermal position variables</u>										
Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-3.81	-5.57 - -2.12	17	11.13 - 22.42	-4.41	-11.67 - 2.67	0.37 (0.65)	0.58	1.4 (1.01)	1.39
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	12.82	6.57 - 17.84	14.83	8.72 - 21.08	--	--	--	--
Change since baseline	-3.47	-5.05 - -1.9	0.25	0.19 - 0.31	-0.07	-0.15 - 0.02	-2.96 (0.92)	-3.21	-2.37 (1.06)	-2.24
Baseline:Change interaction	-9.07	-10.73 - -7.5	0.42	0.34 - 0.5	-0.32	-0.42 - -0.22	-4.66 (0.66)	-7.05	-2.43 (0.83)	-2.92
<u>Precipitation position variables</u>										

Baseline (1st order polynomial)	-1.99	-3.47 - -0.59	-0.14	-6.21 - 6.16	-36.96	-45.96 - -28.29	-0.94 (0.65)	-1.45	-0.04 (0.87)	-0.05
Baseline (2nd order polynomial)	--	--	-7.41	-12.94 - -1.84	16.85	9.68 - 23.69	-- 0.62 (0.76)	--	-- 0.73 (0.98)	-- 0.74
Change since baseline	4.7	3.39 - 6.19	-0.19	-0.26 - -0.11	0.26	0.18 - 0.35	0.37 (0.49)	0.82	-0.38 (0.53)	0.74 -0.72
Baseline:Change interaction	-0.16	-1.03 - 0.65	0.03	-0.01 - 0.07	-0.03	-0.08 - 0.02		0.75		
<u>Climatic position interactions</u>										
Baseline thermal:Baseline precipitation interaction	0.31	-1.11 - 1.65	-0.02	-0.07 - 0.04	0.08	0.02 - 0.16	-0.17 (0.51)	-0.34	0.17 (0.69)	0.25
Change in thermal:Change in precipitation interaction	-0.66	-1.75 - 0.38	0.05	-0.01 - 0.1	0.04	-0.02 - 0.11	2.16 (0.61)	3.56	0.74 (0.69)	1.07
<u>Covariates</u>										
Continent (Europe)	38.09	31.68 - 44.28	-1.97	-2.27 - -1.67	1.34	0.99 - 1.67	9.44 (1.74)	5.42	8.44 (3.63)	2.32
Sampling Effort	--	--	-0.54	-0.6 - -0.48	-0.17	-0.21 - -0.13	--	--	--	--
<u>Random effects</u>										
Species	<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u> 185.9 120.9 - 265.9		<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u> 0.3 0.18 - 0.43		<u>Variance (Std.dev.)</u> 0.31 0.17 - 0.46		--	--	--	--
<u>Model summary</u>										
Number observations (n)	5000-5324		25.3-2121.9		175.4-3736.8		1133	1133	1133	1133
Variation explained (R2)	0.1		0.86		0.53		0.1	0.1	0.18	0.18

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