

1 **Warming summer temperatures are rapidly**
2 **restructuring North American bumble bee**
3 **communities**

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18 **Abstract**

19 A rapidly warming climate is a primary force driving changes in biodiversity worldwide.
20 The impact of warming temperatures on insect communities is of particular interest given
21 their importance for ecosystem function and service provision and the uncertainty around
22 whether insect communities can keep pace with the rate of increasing temperatures. We
23 use a long-term dataset on bumble bee species occurrence along with summer maximum
24 temperature trends across North America to characterize community-level responses to
25 recent climate warming. We examined responses using the community temperature index
26 (CTI) – a measure of the balance of cool- and warm-adapted species within local
27 communities. Starting in 2010, bumble bee average CTI across North America has rapidly
28 increased after a period of slight increase from 1989 to the late 2000s. This increase is
29 strongly associated with recent increases in maximum summer temperatures. The increase
30 in CTI is spatially extensive, but the areas exhibiting the largest increase include mid to
31 high latitudes as well as low and high elevations - areas relatively shielded from other
32 intensive global changes (e.g., land-use). On average, bumble bee CTI has increased 0.99°C
33 from 1989 to 2018, a change of similar magnitude to the increase in maximum summer
34 temperatures. This shift has been driven by the rapid loss of cold-adapted species and an
35 increase in warm-adapted species within bumble bee communities across North American
36 ecosystems. Despite evidence that the spatial velocity of community change is keeping pace
37 with temperatures, this is a direct result of the decline of cool-adapted species. Our results
38 provide strong evidence of the pervasive impacts posed to insect communities by
39 temperature increases in the last 30 years.

40 Introduction

41 Climate change is driving profound changes in animal occurrence and community
42 composition worldwide. Long-term increases in average temperature as well as increases
43 in acute, extreme weather events (e.g., heat waves) have been linked to both positive
44 (Kammerer et al., 2021; Crossley et al., 2021) and negative outcomes for biodiversity
45 (Kammerer et al., 2021; Oliver et al., 2016; Outhwaite et al., 2022; Sirois-Delisle & Kerr,
46 2018). Regardless of the direction of such outcomes, a rapidly changing climate has the
47 potential to fundamentally alter biological processes, including ecosystem services that
48 maintain biodiversity and support global agricultural production (Johnson et al., 2023;
49 Settele et al., 2016).

50 Insect responses to climate change are of specific interest given the growing
51 documentation of declines in a variety of taxa and regions (Halsch et al., 2021; Raven &
52 Wagner, 2021). Although several anthropogenic drivers of global change are at play
53 (Goulson et al., 2015; Hemberger et al., 2021), a changing climate is particularly menacing
54 given the number of potential direct and indirect impacts it has on insects and its capacity
55 to be a force-multiplier, interacting with other factors to exacerbate changes in insect
56 populations (Hoover et al., 2012; Forrest et al., 2018; Kenna et al., 2023). Like many global
57 change drivers, rapidly increasing temperatures may favor some species while leading to
58 local extirpations of others. Though temperatures above the critical limits of species (e.g.,
59 CT_{max} ; Oyen et al., 2018) are unlikely, the extent to which climate warming has contributed
60 to local shifts in insect abundance and community structure remains mostly unknown. This
61 knowledge gap places our understanding of a host of ecological processes and services in
62 limbo.

63 Even among the most studied insect taxa there is debate about the extent, severity, and
64 direction of effects associated with climate change. Bumble bees are a prime example with
65 some studies revealing extensive declines (Soroye et al., 2020; but see Guzman et al., 2021)
66 and others suggesting resilience and relative stability (Guzman et al., 2021; Maebe et al.,
67 2021) or mixed patterns of decline and increases over time (Jackson et al., 2022). Most
68 current approaches examining the long-term influence of climate on bumble bees use
69 occupancy models to relate changes in species occurrence to trends in climate, such as
70 increases in temperature and changes in precipitation (Janousek et al., 2023). Although this
71 method yields valuable insights, it can be challenging to align the framework with the
72 incidental and imperfect occurrence data that abounds in large-scale insect databases,
73 making model outcomes sensitive to occupancy assumptions (Guzman et al., 2021).
74 Moreover, the occupancy approach framework does not explicitly capture any
75 physiological mechanisms driving species responses to warming temperatures. As such, a
76 more thorough understanding of where/when insects are most impacted by climate change
77 requires exploring alternative analytical methods that better tie climatic changes to
78 estimates of insect physiological temperature preferences and limits.

79 We characterize bumble bee community responses to recent climate warming at the
80 continental scale by examining changes in the community temperature index (CTI), a
81 physiologically-informed metric of community responses to climate based on the
82 composition of cool- and warm-adapted species. This metric can be used to assess the rate
83 of change in community composition based on historical species temperature preferences

84 (species temperature index, STI), as well as the spatial velocity of community changes
85 (Devictor et al., 2008, 2012). When examined over time associated with temperature, CTI
86 can help determine whether species are keeping pace with the velocity of temperature
87 trends (i.e., an increase in warm-adapted species and a loss of cool-adapted species in
88 rapidly warming areas; Fourcade et al. 2019), or whether communities are accruing
89 “climate debts”, as rising temperatures outpace species turnover (Devictor et al., 2012).

90 Using 50 years of records from the Bumble bees of North America database (Richardson
91 2023), we test for changes in bumble bee communities using CTI across North America by
92 quantifying the association between changes in CTI with trends in maximum summer
93 temperature. Specifically, we wanted to address the following questions: (1) is there
94 evidence of an increase in bumble bee CTI over time? (2) are changes in CTI associated
95 with increases in summer temperatures? (3) are CTI changes greater in areas particularly
96 vulnerable to a changing climate (e.g., higher latitudes and elevations)? and (4) is a loss of
97 cool-adapted or an increase in warm-adapted species driving the observed changes in CTI?
98 We predicted a steady increase in bumble bee CTI in accordance with documented
99 increases in average maximum summer temperatures over the past century and that
100 changes would be more dramatic at higher latitudes and elevations. We also expected that
101 a host of common, warm-adapted species that have increased in occurrence over the past
102 several decades would be the strongest drivers of change in CTI across the continent.

103 **Methods**

104 **North American bumble bee occurrence and community data**

105 We used occurrence records for 59 species of North American bumble bees from the
106 bumble bees of North America database (BBNA; Richardson 2023). This database
107 composes 781,280 records from 1805-2020 from a variety of sources (e.g., natural history
108 collections, research studies, citizen science programs). To match the temporal range of
109 available climate data, we used bumble bee records collected between 1960 and 2018.
110 Because the database consists of an amalgam of sources, we took several steps to account
111 for known biases (Bartomeus et al., 2019; Gotelli et al., 2021). The species and community
112 temperature indices at large scales of our analysis are robust to imprecision in the
113 underlying distributional data (Devictor et al., 2008); nonetheless we filtered the original
114 dataset to include only complete records (i.e., identified to species, containing complete
115 coordinates) and unique collection events (distinct combinations of species, date,
116 coordinates, and observer; Figure 1A). This step helps to minimize the bias associated with
117 unequal sampling efforts and differential data collection methods across all observers.
118 Moreover, we conducted a range of sensitivity analyses (see below) to determine whether
119 our results were robust given our assumptions and methodological decisions.

120 **Is there evidence of an increase in bumble bee CTI over time?**

121 Calculating the CTI first requires us to determine the species temperature index (STI; the
122 historical average summertime temperature experienced over a species' approximate
123 range; Figure 1B) for all species present within a given community. For this calculation, we
124 used summer maximum monthly temperature as the bulk of bumble bee records are
125 collected during this period corresponding the peak flight for most North American species.
126 To calculate the STI, we used a subset of bee occurrence records from 1960-2000 to extract
127 historical summertime temperatures at these locations from a global climate database. The
128 purpose of extracting these records is to delineate the approximate range of each species.
129 Because the range estimates for North American bumble bees are largely based on records
130 from this dataset (Williams et al. 2014), we are confident that these data capture the range
131 of almost all included species. Next, using the `raster` package (Hijmans, 2023), we
132 calculated the historical average maximum summer temperatures at the specific location
133 (i.e., raster pixel) of each occurrence record for that species from the WorldClim version 2.1
134 historical climate database at 30 arc-second ($\sim 1 \text{ km}^2$) resolution (Fick & Hijmans, 2017) by
135 averaging the maximum monthly temperature for summer months (defined here as June-
136 September) for a historical period of 1970 to 2000. We used this historical dataset as it is
137 the highest resolution historical temperature raster available through WorldClim. We then
138 used this raster to extract mean summer maximum temperature values using our bumble
139 bee occurrence records. For each species, we then calculated the mean of the extracted
140 values to determine the STI estimate.

141 Use of the CTI framework required us to assign bee occurrence records to communities to
142 calculate CTI values for given locations/times (Devictor et al., 2008; Figure 1C). To do this,
143 we created a hexagonal grid across North America at a broad spatial scale (50 km
144 hexagonal grid resolution, center to side: $\sim 6600 \text{ km}^2$) to act as stand-in "community"
145 boundaries. We chose a 50 km resolution to ensure we would capture sufficient records

146 within each grid cell to robustly estimate the broad spatiotemporal trend of CTI (Jackson et
 147 al., 2022). Although these species assemblages are considerably larger than the scale of an
 148 ecological community, the analysis is ultimately agnostic to this point, and it does not affect
 149 our specific questions. We refer to them as communities/CTI to maintain consistency with
 150 the existing literature. Also, because we used occurrence records from a variety of sources
 151 whose spatial locations varied over time, using fixed sampling locations to delineate
 152 communities (e.g., Prince and Zuckenberg 2014) was not possible. To determine if the
 153 resolution of our grid cells impacted our results, we also conducted our analyses using 25
 154 and 100 km center-to-side hexagonal grid cells. Using these grids, we assigned bumble bee
 155 occurrence records to each cell to create quasi-communities, requiring each cell to contain
 156 at least 2 species for a given year to calculate CTI. We used hexagonal grid cells to minimize
 157 possible edge effects and provide a better fit across the curvature of the earth at large
 158 spatial scales (e.g., continental; Birch et al. 2007).

159 Using STI values, we then calculated CTI within each grid cell where at least 2 species
 160 records were present in the grid using the full set of bumble bee occurrence records from
 161 1989-2018 (Figure 1D). We were limited to using only CTI calculations from 1989 onward
 162 as 1989 was the first year for which we could calculate a 30-year moving average summer
 163 temperature anomaly (see below). We calculated CTI using two different methods, first
 164 using occurrence records for species i occurring within a given community (grid cell) j

$$165 \quad \text{Equation 1: Occurrence CTI}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n STI_{i,j}}{n}$$

166 and then using abundance weighted estimates of species within each community:

$$167 \quad \text{Equation 2: Abundance weighted CTI}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{i,j} \times STI_{i,j}}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{i,j}}$$

168 where $a_{i,j}$ is the abundance of species i at site j , and n is the total number of species within
 169 a grid cell (Princé & Zuckenberg, 2015). In our case, the true abundance is not known, but
 170 we use the total number of individuals of species i within the community of bees at site j ,
 171 the grid cell, as a proxy of abundance. These two approaches, though similar, estimate the
 172 two mechanisms of change in CTI. Using occurrence records (Equation 1) allowed us to test
 173 shifts in CTI due to changes in occurrence (i.e., immigration/extirpation), while calculating
 174 CTI using abundance weighting (Equation 2) allowed us to understand shifts in CTI as a
 175 function of changes in local relative abundance (i.e., species becoming more common/rare
 176 within a given community).

177 **Are changes in CTI associated with increases in summer temperatures?**

178 To determine long-term warming trends across North America, we used WorldClim
 179 gridded historical monthly weather data from 1961-2018 for our defined summer months
 180 (Fick & Hijmans, 2017). First, we averaged the maximum monthly temperature for each
 181 year. Second, we extracted the mean maximum temperature within each of the bumble bee
 182 community grid cells (Figure 1E). This procedure created a time series of the average
 183 maximum summer temperature for each year/grid cell from 1961-2018. Third, we
 184 calculated the average maximum summer temperature for a historical period from 1961-
 185 2000 for each grid cell; this is our baseline, and we refer to it as the temperature “normal”.

186 Last, we calculated the summer maximum temperature anomaly (defined here as the
 187 deviation from long-term normal) and averaged these using 3 moving-window scales of 3,
 188 10, and 30 years to capture metrics of relatively short-, medium-, and long-term changes in
 189 maximum summer temperatures, respectively. To illustrate the estimated trends in
 190 maximum summertime temperatures, we calculated the change in our 3 scales of
 191 anomalies by subtracting the 1989 average anomaly (first possible year to calculate 30-
 192 year average) from the 2018 average anomaly for each grid cell. This meant that, when
 193 modeling change in CTI as a function of temperature anomalies, modeled from 1989-2018
 194 (i.e., where all measures had maximum temperature anomaly values for all three scales (3-,
 195 10-, and 30-year).

196 We used generalized additive models (GAM) to quantify trends in CTI over space and time
 197 and determine whether changes in CTI were related to short-, medium-, and long-term
 198 trends in temperature anomalies (Figure 1F). Generalized additive models provide a highly
 199 flexible computational framework to account for variable trends in spatiotemporal
 200 processes (Pedersen et al., 2019) and are especially well-suited for the analysis of
 201 potentially complex time series and can readily identify periods of significant change
 202 (Simpson, 2018).

203 For each measure of CTI (occurrence and abundance-weighted), we fitted a GAM to model
 204 the effects of spatial location (latitude, longitude, and elevation), long-term trend (year),
 205 short-, medium-, and long-term estimates of rising temperatures (3, 10, and 30-year
 206 summertime maximum temperature anomalies). For the remainder of this manuscript, we
 207 refer to this GAM as the global model.

208 *Equation 3: $CTI_j \sim s(lat, long) + s(year) + s(elevation) + ti(lat, long, year, elevation)$*
 209 *$+ s(eco\ region, bs = "re") + s(\bar{T}_{max\ 3}) + s(\bar{T}_{max\ 10}) + s(\bar{T}_{max\ 30})$*

210 We fit the model using the mgcv package in R (Wood, 2011). The goal of each model was to
 211 identify the spatiotemporal trend in CTI along with its statistical association with changes
 212 in summertime maximum temperatures. Because of the differences in geography, land-use,
 213 and climate across North America, we included a 2-dimensional smooth of latitude and
 214 longitude, and we allowed the estimated temporal trend in CTI to vary according to spatial
 215 location by including a tensor product interaction of latitude, longitude, elevation, and year
 216 (Pedersen et al., 2019; Equation 3). We also included a random effect smooth of ecological
 217 region (Omernik, 1987) to further account for variation in the response of CTI associated
 218 with common biophysical characteristics within ecological regions, such as commonalities
 219 in vegetation and other climate variables (e.g., precipitation). We used the Level 1
 220 ecoregions defined and maintained by the US EPA (Omernik and Griffith. 2014). We
 221 included smooths of 3-, 10-, and 30-year summertime maximum temperature anomalies to
 222 determine whether changes in CTI were correlated with trends in warming maximum
 223 summer temperatures. Including three different anomaly scales allowed us to coarsely
 224 estimate the temporal scale of temperature change to which bumble bee communities
 225 respond most strongly to. This model was fit to CTI estimates from 1989-2018 as 1989 was
 226 the first year for which 30-year temperature anomalies could be calculated for each grid
 227 cell. We tested the model for spatial and temporal autocorrelation in the residuals. For
 228 spatial autocorrelation, we tested simulated residuals with a Moran's I test using the
 229 DHARMA package (Hartig, 2022). For temporal autocorrelation, we visually examined the

230 autocorrelation function using scaled, simulated residuals, finding no evidence of
231 problematic residual correlation.

232 To visualize the change in CTI over time, we generated CTI predictions across the spatial
233 and temporal extents of our dataset using the global model for each grid cell. We then
234 determined the change in CTI from 1989-2018 by subtracting the modeled CTI estimate for
235 1989 from that of 2018 for each grid cell. To visualize model uncertainty, we calculated the
236 average standard error of global model predictions for each grid cell from 1989-2018. We
237 visualized the effect of the three moving-average temperature anomalies on CTI by plotting
238 the partial effects (prediction of CTI as a function of temperature holding other variables
239 are at their mean value) of each anomaly from the global model using the gratia (Simpson,
240 2023) package.

241 **Are CTI changes greater in areas particularly vulnerable to a changing climate (e.g.,** 242 **higher latitudes and elevations)?**

243 To determine whether CTI changes were most drastic (i.e., greater slope in fitted GAM) in
244 areas known to be experiencing accelerated climatic changes, we examined the rate of
245 change in the slope (i.e., derivative) of our fitted model smooth (Figure S1). To do this, we
246 first fitted a GAM to CTI predictions with a single smooth of year to create a spatially
247 explicit, estimated trend of CTI for each grid cell. Then, for each grid cell's fitted GAM year
248 smooth, we extracted the first derivative with respect to time (1990-2018) using the
249 derivatives() function from the gratia package (Simpson, 2023). For elevation and latitude,
250 we calculated the mean derivative value for each grid cell (i.e., the average rate of change of
251 the CTI of a grid cell from 1989-2018) and then plotted this against the mean elevation and
252 latitude of the grid cell. We visualized the relationship with a GAM fit using the
253 geom_smooth() function in the ggplot (Wickham et al., 2019) package. To determine
254 whether CTI changes were consistent or have accelerated over time, we calculated the
255 derivative values for the year smooth for each grid cell and plotted these values against the
256 year. Like elevation, this relationship was visualized with a simple GAM fit.

257 **Which species are driving any observed changes in CTI?**

258 Although quantifying the trend in CTI provides evidence for whether communities are
259 being restructured in response to a changing climate, the procedure does not identify the
260 mechanism driving changes. For example, for areas where CTI is observed to increase, is it
261 an increase in warm-adapted or a decrease in cool-adapted driving the change? To address
262 this, we modeled the trend in the relative abundance of cool- and warm-adapted species to
263 generalize the mechanism underlying the observed changes in CTI across North America.
264 First, we assigned species as either cool- or warm-adapted within each grid cell by
265 comparing species STI values against the average of STI values (i.e., the CTI) across all
266 species present within the cell. STI values above the community mean were assigned
267 "warm-adapted" while those below were assigned "cool-adapted". This approach allowed
268 species identified as cool- or -warm adapted to change based on the location and
269 community composition, which we felt was more realistic than assigning cool- or warm-
270 adapted based on a range-wide assessment given that some species have extensive ranges
271 that cover large swaths of North America. Next, we calculated the relative abundance of
272 each species in each grid cell within 3 temporal bins (each with ~ equal numbers of

273 observations). For each species, we then fit a binomial GLMM with a fixed effect of the year
274 bin and a random effect of ecological region to estimate the temporal trend in relative
275 abundance across all grid cells where the species was present. Modeling relative
276 abundance in this way is a useful proxy to determine approximate trends in species
277 occurrence and abundance (Hemberger et al., 2021, Gotelli et al., 2021). Next, we extracted
278 the model coefficient for the year bin term and combined these estimates with species
279 occurrence records that were assigned as either cool- or warm-adapted. We then fit a
280 subsequent GLM that predicted the estimated relative abundance trend as a function of
281 species thermal group (cool- or warm adapted) and its interaction with the latitude of the
282 grid cell of the observation and an error propagation term. Because this model was fit using
283 coefficients from the species-specific relative abundance trend models, we included the
284 error propagation term (coefficient standard error / coefficient estimate) to help account
285 for the uncertainty in the underlying coefficient estimates. This model allowed us to
286 determine whether the rate of change in relative abundance among the two species groups
287 varied from South to North given known trends in increasing temperatures across
288 latitudes.

289 **Model validation**

290 We performed cross validation on our global model using testing data that was filtered out
291 of the full BBNA database. These collection events, while not “unique” (i.e., not necessarily
292 fully independent given our strict definition), were still valid records that could be used to
293 calculate the CTI for any given location. Upon calculating the CTI for grid cells using these
294 records, we compared the values against predictions from the global model by using the
295 coefficient of determination (R^2), root mean square error (RMSE) and mean absolute error
296 (MAE).

297 Despite the vast number of individual occurrence records within our dataset, there were
298 many grid cells that did not contain species occurrence data for fitting the model. Given
299 that we explicitly model CTI over space, we presented our results above using predictions
300 within all grid cells given the strength of our global model fits. However, we also assessed
301 the results when using model predicted values of CTI only for grid cells containing
302 occurrence data. This approach was primarily meant to provide conservative estimates of
303 CTI changes, particularly where in space (i.e., latitude, elevation) and time changes have
304 been the largest.

305 We conducted all data wrangling, GIS operations, modeling, and visualization using R (R
306 Core Team, 2017) using the aforementioned and following packages: tidyverse (Wickham
307 et al., 2019), raster (Hijmans, 2023), sf (Pebesma, 2018), performance (Lüdecke et al.,
308 2021), janitor (Firke, 2021), paletteer (Hvitfeldt, 2021), exactextractr (Daniel Baston,
309 2022), foreach (Microsoft & Weston, 2022), and data.table (Dowle & Srinivasan, 2023)
310 packages.

311 **Results**

312 **Bumble bee community temperature index has increased across a majority of North** 313 **America**

314 From 1989-2018 bumble bee CTI increased substantially across most of North America.
315 Overall, CTI increased on average 0.99 ± 1.98 °C (mean \pm SD). The magnitude of change in
316 CTI was spatially variable, ranging from a decrease of 6.30 °C to an increase of 7.99 °C
317 (Figure 2A). The predictions were most certain across the coterminous United States
318 where there is a high density of bumble bee records and less certain in the most northern
319 grid cells of our study region in the high Tundra and Queen Elizabeth Islands as well as in
320 the tropical wet forests of Mexico (Figure 2B). The spatial trends of the increase in CTI
321 were nearly identical between occurrence and abundance-weighted CTI; however, changes
322 in occurrence CTI were marginally smaller (0.78 ± 1.75 °C). The global model, which
323 quantified the change in CTI as a function of space, time, and changes in short-, medium-,
324 and long-term temperature increases, explained a substantial portion of the deviance in
325 both the abundance-weighted (Table S1; 86.0%, adj-R² = 0.849) and occurrence models
326 (Table S1; 86.3%, adj-R² = 0.851).

327 The results of our analysis were consistent irrespective of the grid scale used in
328 aggregating communities (Figure S2; Table S2). The exception was in areas of British
329 Columbia and Alaska where a highly concentrated spatial pattern of bumble bee records
330 likely led to a predicted decrease in CTI in grid cells when aggregated at the 50 and 25 km
331 grid scale. Aggregating at the largest scale (100 km center-to-side hexagonal grid) revealed
332 the most wide-spread increases in CTI, with nearly all grid cells exhibiting an increase in
333 CTI from 1989 to 2018.

334 Our models performed well when cross-validated using withheld data from the BBNA
335 database (Figure S3). Coefficient of determination (R²) values ranged from 0.79-0.81; root
336 mean squared error (RMSE) ranged from 1.22-1.31; and mean absolute error (MAE)
337 ranged from 0.91-0.96. In addition, our model performance was consistent across the three
338 tested grid scales. Predictions were most accurate for CTI values ranging from 23-28°C
339 which corresponded to the regions where the bulk of the occurrence records were
340 collected. Prediction accuracy was most variable among cool regions in the north and sub-
341 arctic (CTI < 23°C).

342 **Shifts in CTI are strongly related to long-term increases in summer temperature**

343 Summertime maximum temperatures have increased by 1989-2018 (Fig. 2C-E), with
344 increases most apparent at 10- (0.630 ± 0.405 °C) and 30-year average anomalies ($0.969 \pm$
345 0.342 °C; Figure 1D, E; Figure S4). Increases in the 30-year summertime maximum
346 temperature anomaly showed a strong statistical association with increases in bumble bee
347 CTI (Figure 2C; $F = 4.561$, $p = 0.002$). Increases in the 30-year temperature anomaly
348 between 0-0.5°C had no impact on CTI. However, increases of over 0.5°C were associated
349 with a rapid increase of up to 1°C in bumble bee CTI (partial effect due solely to 30-year
350 temperature anomaly). Beyond a 1°C change in the 30-year temperature anomaly the
351 changes in CTI rapidly increase, with gains of 1 to 6.8°C. The relationship of CTI with short
352 term, 3-year moving average shifts in summer temperature anomalies, while statistically
353 supported, was weak and variable over the range of the anomalies (Figure 3A; $F = 2.584$, p

354 = 0.032). There was no statistically supported relationship between the 10-year average
355 anomaly and bumble bee CTI (Figure 3B; $F = 0.064$, $p = 0.802$).

356 **CTI is increasing fastest at low and high elevations, high latitudes, and more recent**
357 **years**

358 We examined patterns in the rate of change in CTI across the continent to determine where
359 and when the most extreme changes in CTI were occurring and whether these areas
360 overlapped with areas known to be heavily impacted by a warming climate (Janousek et al.,
361 2023). The rate of change in CTI was greatest at low (< 800 m) and high elevations (> 2000
362 m; Figure 5A) and increased with increasing latitude (Figure 5B). CTI increases predicted
363 at high elevations also had greater uncertainty than those at low elevations, due in part to a
364 higher concentration of occurrence records at lower elevations. Moreover, the rate of
365 change in CTI has increased from 1989-2018, with CTI increasing most rapidly after 2010
366 (Figure 5C). These results varied slightly when analyzed with predictions from only grid
367 cells containing occurrence records, with changes in CTI being greatest at high elevations
368 (Figure S5A; > 2000 m) and mid-high latitudes (Figure S5B; 35 – 60°). The temporal
369 patterns of the rate of change were largely similar but were positive only from 2003 and
370 beyond (Figure S5C), confirming the accelerating rate of CTI change from 2010 onward
371 that is exhibited when using predictions from all grid cells (Figure 5C).

372 **CTI changes driven by loss of cool-adapted and increase in warm-adapted species**

373 In the model predicting the temporal trend coefficient for species relative abundance, there
374 was a significant interaction between species thermal niche, latitude, and propagated error
375 ($\chi^2 = 14.53$, $p < 0.001$, Table S3). The relative abundance of cool-adapted species has
376 declined across North America, with the rate of decrease (i.e., binomial model coefficient
377 estimates) lowest at high latitudes (Figure 6). In contrast, the relative abundance of warm-
378 adapted species has increased across all areas south of ~50° latitude. Beyond this 50°
379 parallel, warm-adapted species are also decreasing in relative abundance. This general
380 trend, a consistent loss of cold-adapted species and increase in warm-adapted species
381 across most latitudes was broadly consistent across ecological regions (Figure S6).

382 Discussion

383 We documented significant, rapid spatially extensive shifts in the thermal composition of
384 North American bumble bee communities in response to long-term increases in summer
385 temperatures. Over the last 29 years across the continent, bumble bee community
386 assemblages increasingly consist of fewer cool-adapted and more warm-adapted species
387 with resultant increases in the community temperature index, a measure of the balance of
388 warm- and cool-adapted species, most pronounced at mid- to high latitudes, and high
389 elevations in the American Rockies, Intermountain West, and central Mexico. We also
390 document an alarming trend suggesting that above 50°N, both cool- and warm-adapted
391 species are declining in relative abundance, indicating that warming temperatures are
392 outpacing the capacity of bumble bee species to respond or adapt (Kerr et al., 2015). The
393 community temperature index increased according to both occurrence and abundance-
394 weighted indices, suggesting that shifts in both local abundance (i.e., loss of cool-adapted
395 species) and broader changes in species occurrence (i.e., range shifts) underlie the
396 observed changes in community composition. Our model results are consistent with
397 occupancy patterns that reveal both winners and losers among bumble bee species in
398 response to anthropogenic climate change (Jackson et al., 2022). Overall, our work
399 provides strong evidence of the pervasive impacts a warming planet has for insect
400 biodiversity, particularly for historically cool-adapted species, and identifies regions of
401 concern where anthropogenic climate warming is rapidly restructuring the communities of
402 an ecologically important group of insects.

403 An increase in species turnover within biological communities is a logical consequence of a
404 rapidly warming climate (Tingley & Beissinger, 2013). Similar shifts in community
405 composition have been observed in bird communities in response to both warming
406 summer (Devictor et al., 2008, 2012) and winter (Princé & Zuckenberg, 2015)
407 temperatures. Because insects are ectotherms, temperature-induced shifts in range and
408 abundance may be even more pronounced. Indeed, large changes in insect CTI have been
409 observed for both bumble bees (Fourcade et al., 2019) and butterflies (Devictor et al.,
410 2012); however, trends in CTI are often not explicitly tied to spatial and temporal patterns
411 of warming temperatures. Our results explicitly link these two phenomena – revealing a
412 clear statistical relationship between increases in CTI and long-term increases in maximum
413 summer temperatures across North America. Areas experiencing a 30-year temperature
414 anomaly of greater than or equal to 0.5°C strongly associated with a rapid increase in
415 bumble bee CTI (Figure 2; dark orange and red areas). It is worth noting that the historical
416 baseline period we choose for calculating species STI values is due to the availability of
417 interpolated climate data. Choosing an earlier baseline period could reveal different
418 patterns in community change, however this is unlikely given the stability of summer
419 temperatures relative to the dramatic increases observed in recent decades.

420 The frontline of species' responses to climate have tended to be at high latitudes. Northern
421 regions have experienced rapid increases in temperature leading to pronounced
422 phenological shifts across taxa (Parmesan, 2007). Our results support this trend, finding
423 greatest rates of bumble bee CTI change at higher latitudes and high elevation. The bumble
424 bee species in these locations tend to have narrower ranges and be cold-adapted, traits
425 identical to other insect taxa that have exhibited declines due to climate (Engelhardt et al.,

426 2022; Halsch et al., 2021; Neff et al., 2022). Alarming, our results found that even warm-
427 adapted species are struggling to respond to the pace of warming temperatures at higher
428 latitudes (CITE). We found that both cool- and warm-adapted bumble bee species north of
429 50°N have exhibited significant declines in relative abundance. This result supports
430 previous work describing the limited capacity of bumble bees to track their northern range
431 limits in accordance with warming temperatures (Kerr et al., 2015). Though additional
432 confirmation is needed, our results suggest that northern bumble bee communities are in
433 crisis, with significant species turnover and declines in abundance that may threaten the
434 persistence of populations in the coming decades.

435 Rapidly increasing CTI at high elevations suggests that cold-adapted species are being
436 displaced by warm-adapted, low-elevation species. This phenomenon has been observed in
437 the US Rocky Mountains where bumble bee communities are increasingly dominated by
438 low-elevation species using high-elevation habitats as a thermal refugia (Miller-Struttman
439 et al., 2022). An upslope range expansion appears to be a common response of bumble bee
440 communities to warming temperatures rather than expansions of northern ranges (Kerr et
441 al., 2015; Sirois-Delisle & Kerr, 2018). Despite the rapid changes observed at higher
442 latitudes, biological communities in southern latitudes and lower elevations are not
443 protected from a changing climate (Dillon et al., 2010), and we documented some shifts in
444 CTI in central Mexico and at low elevations. That said, if species lost from communities
445 have STI values comparable to those species remaining, shifts in CTI and community
446 composition may be effectively masked, highlighting a limitation of our approach.

447 An increase in CTI could be the result of two mechanisms. First, shifts in the occurrence of
448 bees within a community (i.e., immigration/extirpation of warm-/cool-adapted species via
449 range expansion/contraction) and second, changes in the local abundance of warm-/cool-
450 adapted species. We found evidence supporting both mechanisms by modeling occurrence
451 and abundance-weighted measures of CTI. Shifts in local relative abundance align with
452 existing research (Cameron et al., 2011; J. Hemberger et al., 2021); however, substantial
453 range expansion of warm-adapted bumble bees has not been described (Kerr et al., 2015)
454 and may be unlikely given bumble bee dispersal capacities (Fijen, 2021). That said, select
455 species of bumble bees may be capable of long-distance dispersal (Fijen, 2021), and
456 significant range shifts in other insect taxa have been observed (Warren et al., 2001;
457 Hinckling, 2005). Regardless, our thermal niche analysis revealed there are a host of warm-
458 adapted species whose relative abundance is increasing significantly. This result indicates
459 that certain species are sensitive to and more capable of effectively tracking/adapting to
460 ideal climatic conditions (Maebe et al., 2021). Indeed, several bumble bee species have
461 exhibited both range increases (Looney et al., 2019; e.g., *B. impatiens* Palmier et al., 2019)
462 and increases in local abundance. However, other species (e.g., *B. occidentalis*) are not able
463 to successfully track warming and are likely to suffer substantial reductions in range as a
464 result (Janousek et al., 2023). Moreover, our analysis found that, north of the US/Canadian
465 border, even warm-adapted species are at risk, with negative trends in species' relative
466 abundance. Such contrasts highlight the species-specific nature of bumble bee responses to
467 a rapidly changing climate (Jackson et al., 2022; Whitehorn et al., 2022). Additional
468 research is needed detailing species-specific responses to warming conditions – focusing
469 on identifying the physiological and evolutionary mechanisms that drive species' plasticity
470 to changing environmental conditions.

471 An increase in the occurrence and abundance of warm adapted species does suggest a
472 physiological/climate preference mechanism is at play (i.e., direct effect). Several studies
473 document significant, direct effects of warming on insect pollinators (CaraDonna et al.,
474 2018; Hemberger et al., 2023; Kenna et al., 2021), however indirect effects mediated
475 through biotic interactions may be just as if not more important (Ockendon et al., 2014, but
476 see Iler et al., 2021). In the context of our study, such indirect effects imply that shifts in
477 bumble bee community composition are occurring in part in response to climate-induced
478 changes in the resource landscape (i.e., indirect effects). For example, warming climates
479 can widen the temporal availability of resources due to earlier snowmelts, which in turn
480 lead to an increase in bumble bee abundance (Ogilvie et al., 2017). Warming may also
481 create phenological mismatches that reduce available forage for bees (Pyke et al. 2016, but
482 see Bartomeus et al., 2011). Similarly, an increase in hot, dry summer conditions can
483 significantly reduce floral resources and the bumble bees that depend on them (Iserbyt &
484 Rasmont, 2013), and similar patterns have been observed for butterflies (Crossley et al.,
485 2021). Unfavorable conditions, often a result of extreme weather events such as heat waves
486 and droughts, can create resource bottlenecks that have the potential to lead to population
487 declines and local extirpation (Maron et al., 2015). Heat waves, for example, are expected to
488 increase significantly in the coming century (Lopez et al., 2018; Meehl & Tebaldi, 2004;
489 Thompson et al., 2022). Because our study could not differentiate between direct and
490 indirect pathways, parsing their relative impacts on bumble bees and other taxa is a critical
491 research need. In the meantime, supporting bumble bees in the face of both direct and
492 indirect effects may be accomplished by maintaining climate refugia, such as heterogeneity
493 in vegetation structure, that can provide microclimatic respite from temperature extremes
494 to bees (Pincebourde & Woods, 2020) and other taxa (e.g., birds, Kim et al., 2022) in
495 addition to increasing spatial/temporal resource continuity to minimize negative indirect
496 effects (Maron et al., 2015).

497 Given the spatiotemporal extent of our study, it is likely that warming summer
498 temperatures and the temperature profile of a given bumble bee assemblage may co-vary
499 with other, known factors of bumble bee community composition and occurrence. For
500 example, losses in certain species across their range may be linked to disease (Szabo et al.,
501 2012). Additionally, at large-scales, a loss of suitable habitat via land-use intensification
502 and change is also of concern. However, when examined together with shifts in land-use,
503 climatic variables (and their associated indirect effects) tend to have as much or more
504 power to explain long-term species trends than land-use or resource availability in bumble
505 bees (Kerr et al. 2015) and other wild bee species (Duchenne et al., 2020). Moreover, the
506 areas of greatest increase in CTI are in areas removed from the most significant effects of
507 land-use change (e.g., high latitudes and elevations; Halsch et al., 2021). Regardless,
508 managing habitat offers a critical tool that can be used to mitigate the impacts of a changing
509 climate (Kim et al., 2022; Oliver et al., 2016; Oliver et al., 2015; Outhwaite et al., 2022).

510 **Conclusions**

511 Climate change is poised to have significant, cross-scale impacts on insect behavior,
512 populations, and communities (Halsch et al., 2021; Høye et al., 2021; Lehmann et al., 2020;
513 Raven & Wagner, 2021). In this paper, we document a substantial shift in the functional
514 composition of bumble bee communities with respect to climate that is tied to a long-term

515 increase of summer temperatures in North America. Due to changes in both occurrence and
516 abundance, several species appear to be tracking climate warming, however we found that
517 cold-adapted species appear lack the adaptive capacity to cope with rapidly climbing
518 temperatures and are being lost from bumble bee communities across the continent.
519 Although the exact mechanisms of these community-level shifts remain unknown (i.e.,
520 direct vs. indirect effect of warming), our work adds to a growing body of evidence that
521 suggests climate change is having a significant, negative impact on many species with
522 unknown consequences for ecosystems. It is critical that we focus on designing adaptation
523 measures, such as climate refugia and climate-focused habitat conservation, to help combat
524 the ongoing direct and indirect impacts a rapidly warming planet threatens. However, such
525 efforts will only be successful in conjunction with substantial decreases in emissions
526 (Oliver et al., 2015) – an essential solution to safeguard the planet’s biodiversity for
527 generations to come.

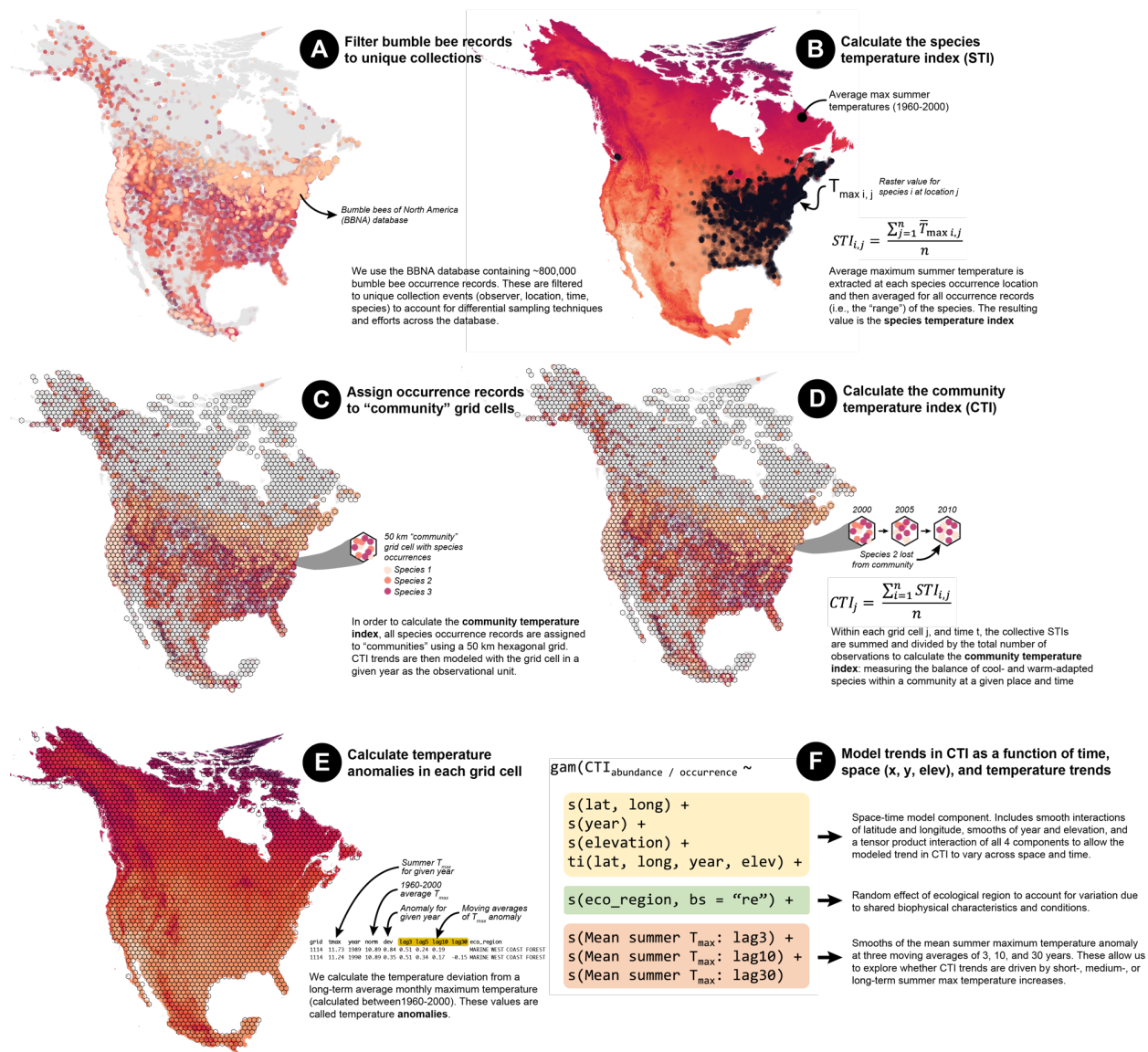
528 **Acknowledgements**

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531 67034-31944)

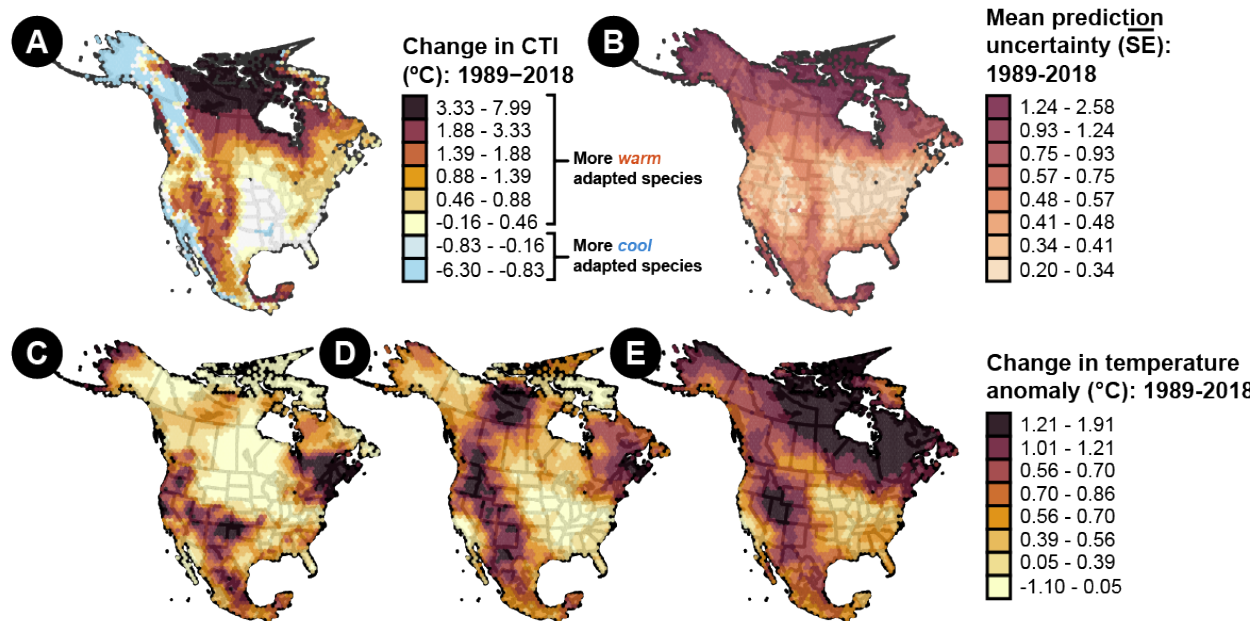
532 **Data access**

533 All data and R code for analyses, figures, and manuscript are available on FigShare
534 (<https://figshare.com/s/59aa9a55ab5bafb65901>) and will be made public upon
535 publication.

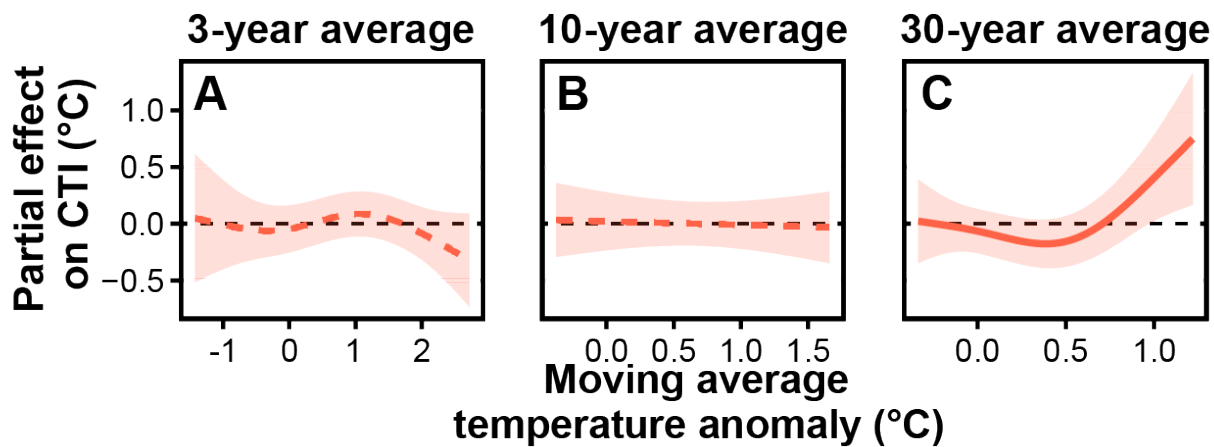
536 **Figures and Tables**



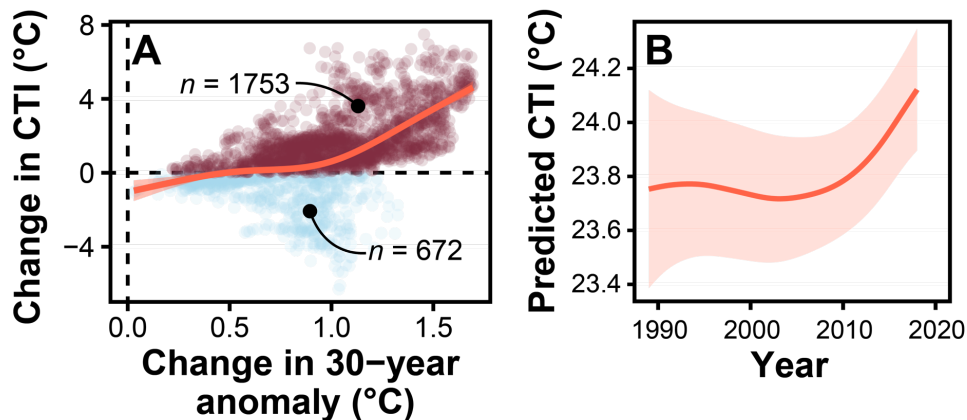
537
 538 **Figure 1:** Conceptual figure of data cleaning (A), STI calculation (B), community
 539 assignment (C), CTI calculation (D), temperature anomaly calculations (E) and modeling
 540 procedures used in our analyses (F).



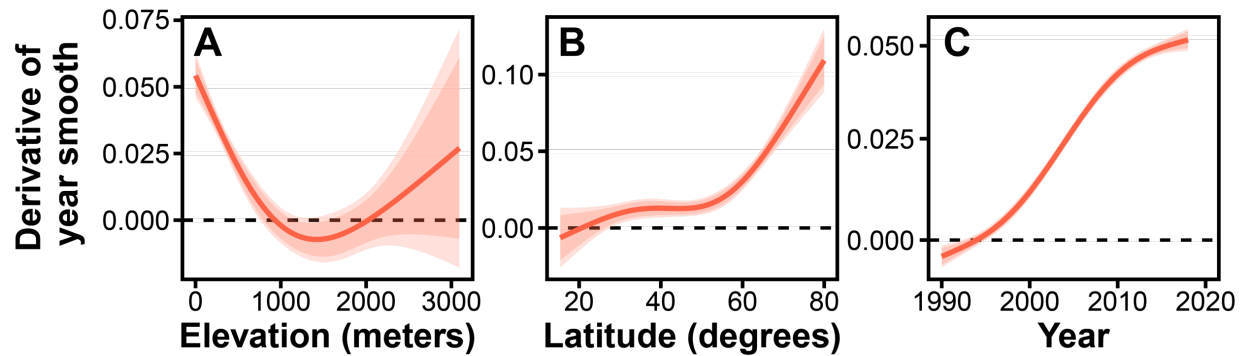
541
 542 **Figure 2:** (A) Extrapolated spatial projection of the estimated change in community
 543 temperature index from 1990-2018 across North America. Differences in CTI were
 544 calculated for each grid cell by subtracting the model predicted CTI_{t = 1989} from predicted
 545 CTI_{t = 2018}. (B) Spatial projection of the mean uncertainty estimates across years from
 546 1989-2018. (C) Spatial projection of the change in the 3-year, 10-year (D) and 30-year (E)
 547 average temperature anomaly. Differences were calculated by subtracting the 1989
 548 anomaly from the 2018 anomaly for each grid cell. Hexagonal grid cells are 100 km from
 549 side to side (~8600 km²).



550
 551 **Figure 3:** Generalized additive model partial plots (i.e., marginal effects) show the model
 552 predicted effect of (A) 3, (B) 10, and (C) 30-year moving average temperature anomalies on
 553 the community temperature index. Positive values on the y-axes indicate an increase in CTI,
 554 while positive values on the x-axes indicate an increase in the average temperature relative
 555 to the long-term average. Solid line indicates strong evidence of a relationship.

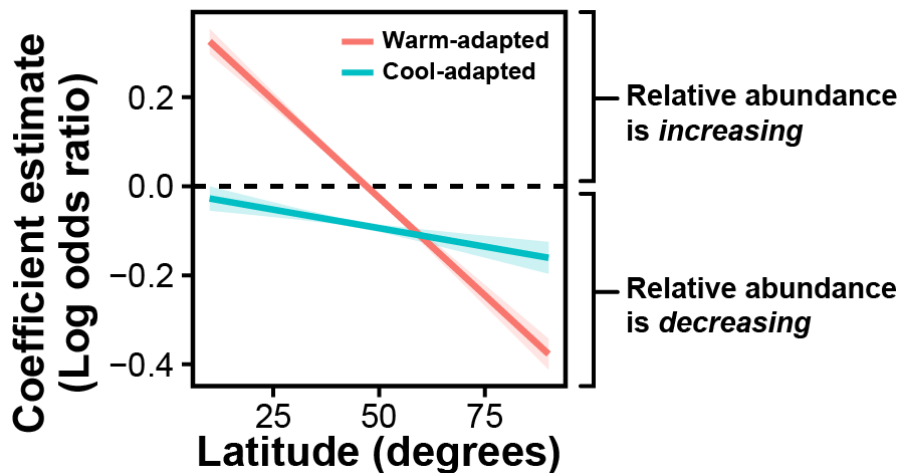


556
 557 **Figure 4:** A significant increase in bumble bee CTI is strongly associated with long-term
 558 warming and has accelerated in the last 15 years. (A) Biplot of change in 30-year
 559 temperature anomaly and change in bumble bee CTI for each grid cell across North
 560 America. Trendline is a GAM fit including the 95% confidence interval. Dashed lines
 561 indicate no change in anomaly or CTI for the X and Y axes, respectively. (B) Model
 562 estimated temporal trend in CTI across North America. Yearly predictions are calculated
 563 from the global model for each grid cell, and the trend within each region is illustrated with
 564 a GAM fit including the 95% confidence interval.



565
 566 **Figure 5:** Estimates of the rate of change in CTI over time across (A) elevation, (B) latitude,
 567 and (C) year. Yearly predictions of CTI are calculated from the global model for each grid
 568 cell using a generalized additive model with a single smooth of year to determine the
 569 temporal trend in CTI within the grid cell. For each fitted smooth (except for the year, C),
 570 we then calculated the mean derivative across its range (1989-2018) for each grid cell. We
 571 then plotted these derivative estimates against elevation and latitude to explore, across the
 572 extent of North America, where the rate CTI change is greatest. We visualized the
 573 relationships (red lines) using a simple GAM. Model fits include the 95% confidence
 574 interval. # References

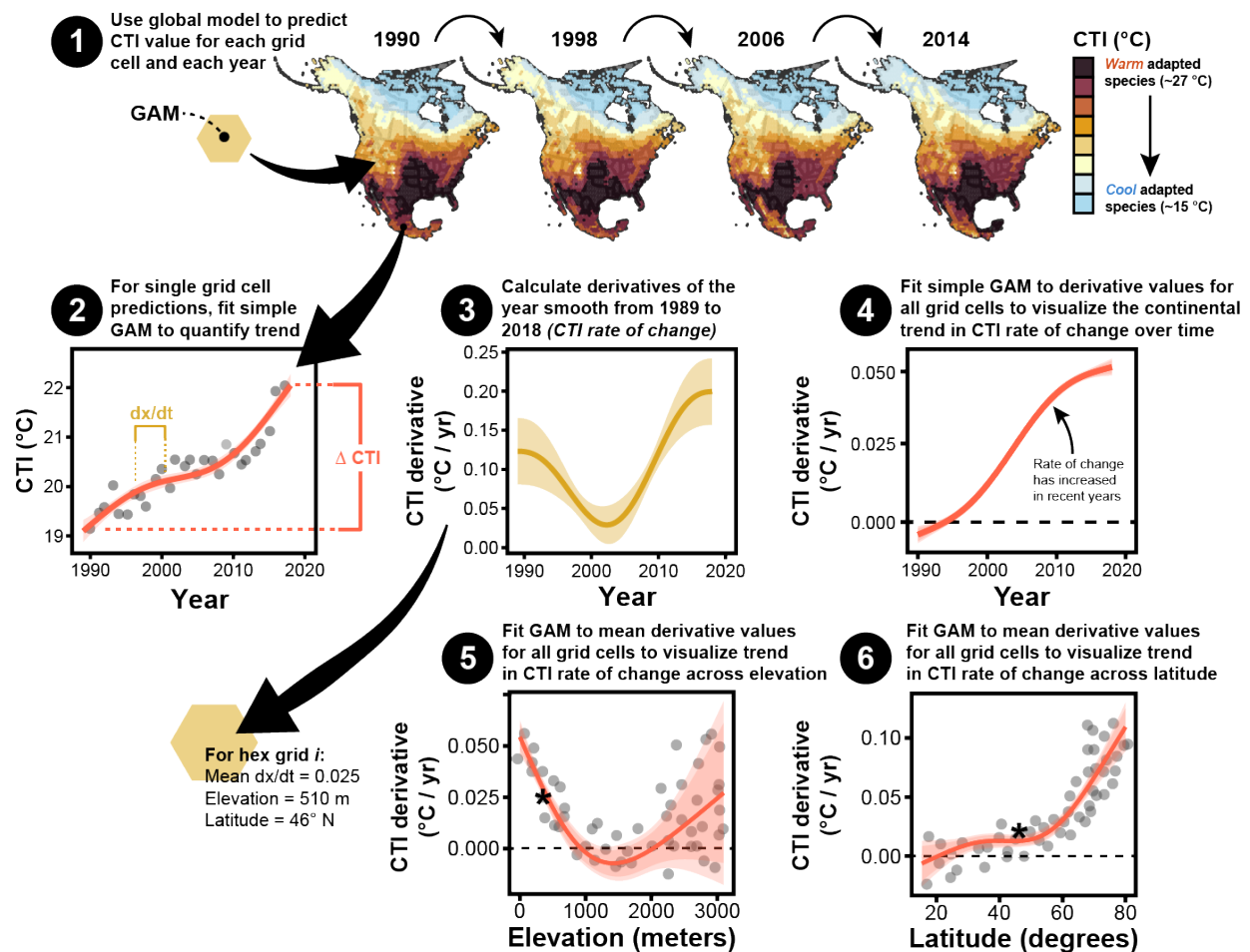
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576
 577 **Figure 6:** Marginal effect plots describing predicted coefficients for the temporal trend in
 578 warm- and cool-adapted species relative abundance across latitude in North America (\pm
 579 95% CI). Values above zero indicate an increase in relative abundance from 1989-2018,
 580 while values below zero indicate a decrease.

581 **Supplementary Materials**

582



583

584

585 **Figure S1:** Conceptual diagram of the derivative calculations conducted to determine

586 whether the rate of increase (i.e., derivative) of bumble bee CTI has remained steady or

587 accelerated over space and time. (1) We use the global model to predict the CTI in each grid

588 cell for each year of the study, from 1989-2018. (2) For each grid cell, we fit a GAM through

589 the predicted points to visualize and quantify the trend in CTI from 1989-2018. From these

590 data, we also calculated the change in CTI from 1989-2018 (change in CTI) which is plotted

591 in Fig. 1A. The overall change, however, tells us nothing of the functional form of the

592 relationship between CTI and time, elevation, etc. To address this, we calculated the first

593 derivative across the fitted smooth to determine how the rate of change in CTI varied

594 across time, elevation, and latitude (Fig. 2). (3) For each grid cell's fitted GAM, we

595 calculated the derivative of the year smooth at a range of values between 1989-2018. In

596 this example, because CTI is increasing throughout the entire study period, the derivative is

597 > 0 at all years. (4) We then took the derivative estimates for all grid cells and fit a GAM to

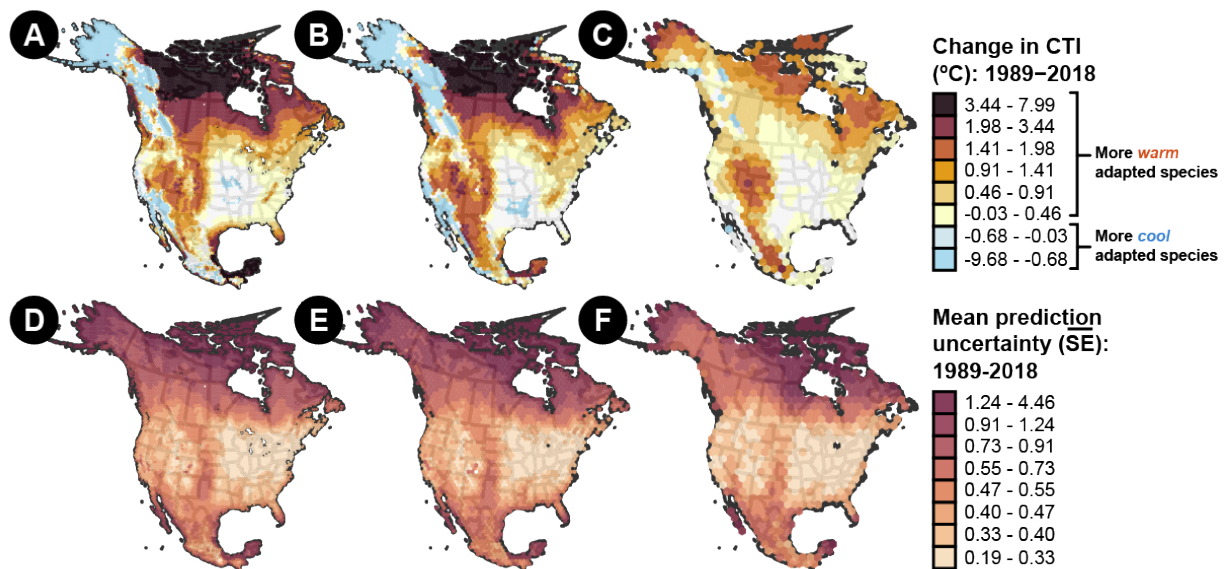
598 visualize the trend between the derivative and time. For elevation (5) and latitude (6), we

599 first averaged the derivative value from 1989-2018 to determine the mean slope for each

600 grid cell before plotting that against the mean elevation and latitude of each grid cell and

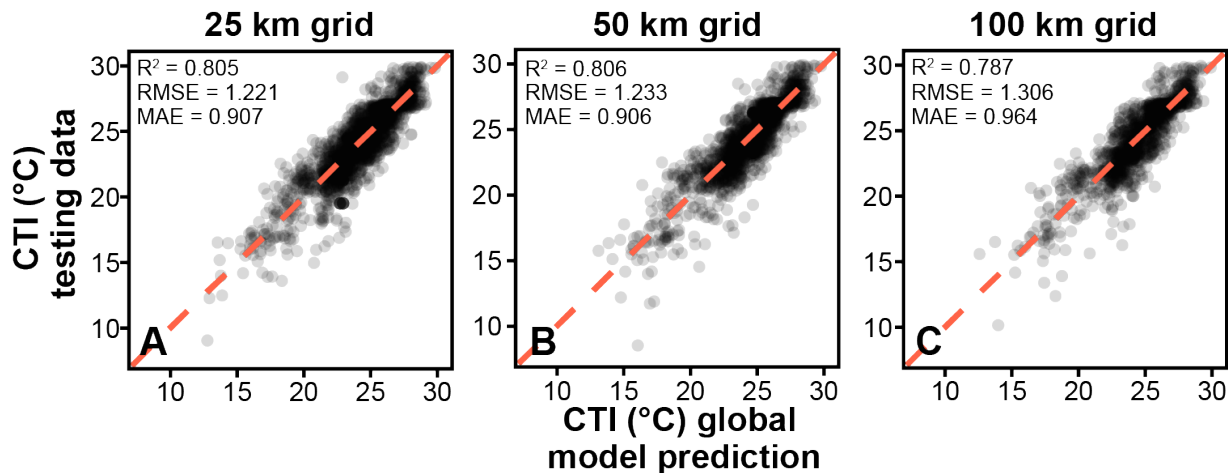
visualizing the relationship with a GAM. Transparent points are illustrative (not actual

601 values) of individual hex grid derivative values across the range of elevation and latitude.
602 The black star represents a hypothetical mean derivative value from the example plot in
603 (3) to illustrate how mean derivative values are used to assess the trend.

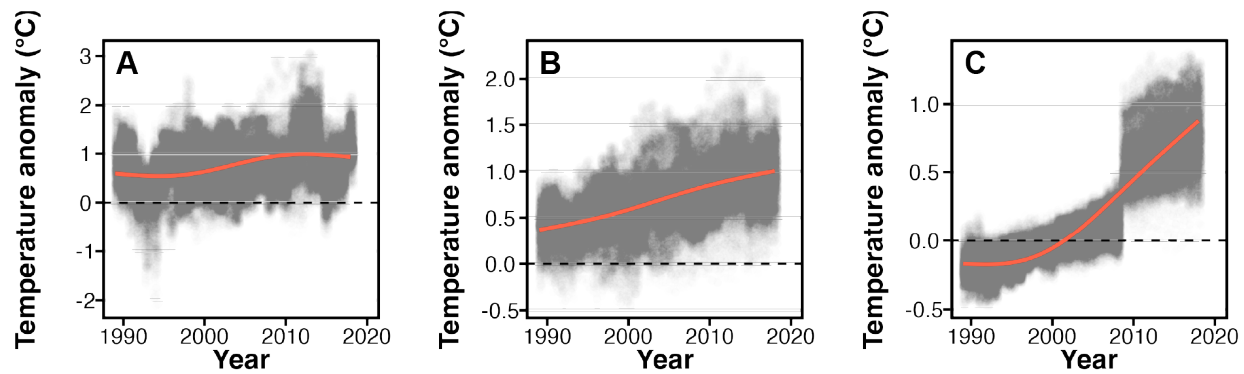


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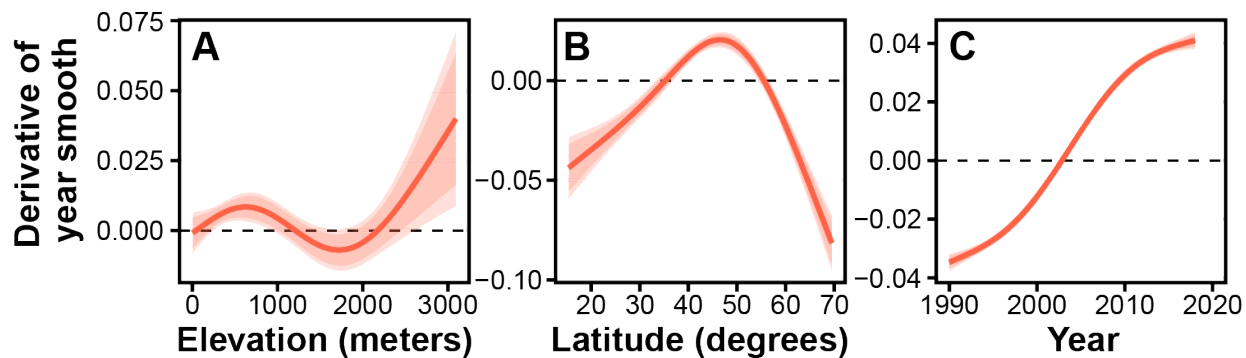
605 **Figure S2:** Predicted change in bumble bee CTI across North America between 1989-2018
 606 at three different spatial resolutions of hexagonal grid (distance indicates side-to-side): (A)
 607 50 km; (B) 100 km; (C) 200 km; along with the mean prediction uncertainty at the same
 608 resolutions.



609
610 **Figure S3:** Abundance-weighted global model cross validation results at three different
611 scales of (A) 25 km, (B) 50 km, and (C) 100 km center-to-edge hexagonal grids. Cross
612 validation metrics are given in the top left of each panel including coefficient of
613 determination (R^2), root mean squared error (RMSE), and mean absolute error (MAE).

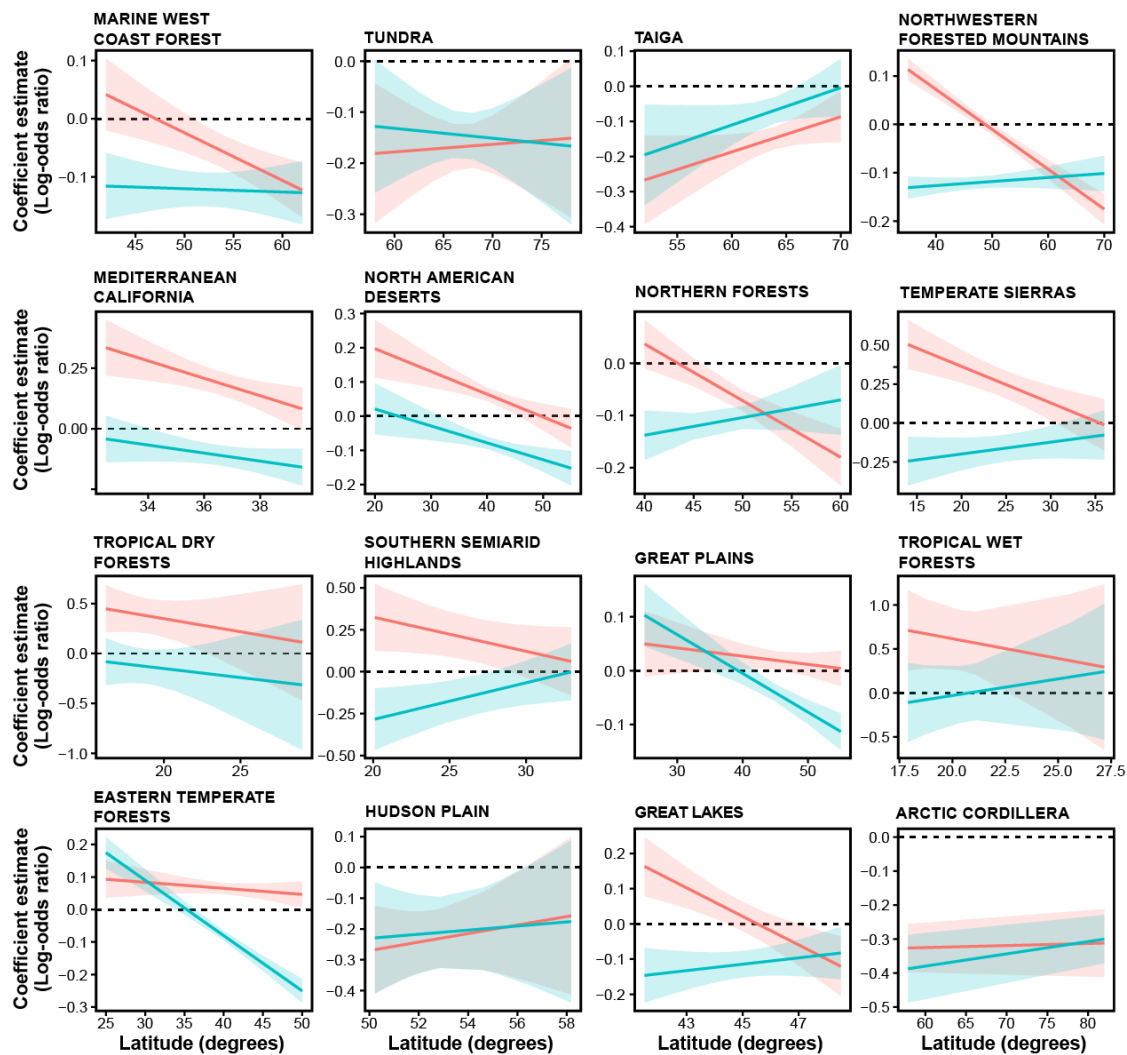


614
615 **Figure S4:** Trend in summer (June – September) maximum temperature anomalies at (A)
616 3-year, (B) 10-year, and (C) 30-year moving averages. Transparent points are raw values
617 and red lines are GAM trendlines.



618

619 **Figure S5:** Estimates of the rate of change in CTI over time across (A) elevation, (B)
 620 latitude, and (C) year using predictions only from grid cells containing occurrence records
 621 (conservative approach). Yearly predictions are calculated from the global model for each
 622 grid cell using simple generalized additive models with a single smooth of year to
 623 determine CTI trend within the grid cell. For each fitted smooth (except for the year, C), we
 624 then calculated the mean derivative across its range (1989-2018) for each grid cell. We
 625 then plotted these derivative estimates to explore, across the extent of North America,
 626 whether increases in CTI were varied with elevation or over time. We calculated
 627 predictions (red lines) from a generalized additive model using a thin-plate basis function
 628 and 3 knots for visual purposes only. Estimates include the 95% confidence interval.



629
 630 **Figure S6:** Marginal effect plots describing predicted coefficients for the temporal trend in
 631 warm- and cool-adapted species relative abundance across latitude in North America (\pm
 632 95% CI) for each ecological region. Values above zero indicate an increase in relative
 633 abundance from 1989-2018, while values below zero indicate a decrease.

634 **Table S1:** Results from a generalized additive model for CTI using occurrence-only and
 635 abundance-weighted records from 1989-2018.

Model smooth	Occurrence model			Abundance model		
	EDF	F	p value	EDF	F	p value
<i>Latitude, longitude</i>	282.065	16.778	< 0.001	270.546	18.099	< 0.001
<i>Year</i>	2.945	4.015	0.004	2.353	3.592	0.022
<i>Elevation</i>	7.995	23.926	< 0.001	7.615	25.782	< 0.001
<i>Latitude, longitude, elevation, year</i>	100.149	3.782	< 0.001	97.853	2.996	< 0.001
<i>Ecological region</i>	10.526	2.388	< 0.001	9.855	1.644	< 0.001
<i>Mean Tmax 3-year MA</i>	2.968	2.584	0.032	2.827	2.500	0.039
<i>Mean Tmax 10-year MA</i>	1.002	0.064	0.803	1.001	0.475	0.491
<i>Mean Tmax 30-year MA</i>	2.967	4.561	0.002	3.377	6.712	< 0.001
Model n	5273			5273		
Deviance explained	0.860			0.863		
R-squared (adjusted)	0.849			0.851		

*EDF :estimated degrees of freedom (i.e., smooth wiggleness)

636

637 **Table S2:** Results from a generalized additive model for CTI using occurrence-only records
 638 at three different spatial resolutions (community grid scale) at 25, 50, and 100 km from
 639 1989-2018.

Model smooth	25 km grid scale			50 km grid scale			100 km grid scale		
	EDF	F	p value	EDF	F	p value	EDF	F	p value
<i>Latitude, longitude</i>	294.224	18.839	< 0.001	270.546	18.099	< 0.001	181.650	17.769	< 0.001
<i>Year</i>	3.653	5.293	< 0.001	2.353	3.592	0.022	2.538	1.609	0.164
<i>Elevation</i>	9.360	34.646	< 0.001	7.615	25.782	< 0.001	1.000	52.860	< 0.001
<i>Latitude, longitude, elevation, year</i>	106.844	4.744	< 0.001	97.853	2.996	< 0.001	51.223	2.558	< 0.001
<i>Ecological region</i>	10.889	4.824	< 0.001	9.855	1.644	< 0.001	11.650	4.843	< 0.001
<i>Mean Tmax 3-year MA</i>	2.881	3.999	0.008	2.827	2.500	0.039	1.000	0.041	0.840
<i>Mean Tmax 10-year MA</i>	1.000	0.061	0.805	1.001	0.475	0.491	3.511	5.344	0.004
<i>Mean Tmax 30-year MA</i>	2.919	5.177	0.001	3.377	6.712	< 0.001	3.029	4.430	0.003
Model n	7582			5273			3078		
Deviance explained	0.840			0.860			0.862		
R-squared (adjusted)	0.831			0.849			0.850		

*EDF: estimated degrees of freedom (i.e., smooth wiggleness)

640

641

642 **Table S3:** Type III Wald Chi-squared effect test results from a generalized linear model for
 643 the temporal trend in species relative abundance for two thermal niche groups: cool- and
 644 warm-adapted.

Model term	Model coefficient	χ^2	Degrees of freedom	<i>p</i>-value
Thermal niche	0.497	506.26	1	< 0.001
Latitude	-0.002	461.18	1	< 0.001
Error propagation	-0.005	20.14	1	< 0.001
Thermal niche * latitude	-0.008	191.57	1	< 0.001
Thermal Niche * error	-0.059	67.62	1	< 0.001
Latitude * error	0.0004	54.51	1	< 0.001
Thermal niche * latitude * error	0.001	14.53	1	< 0.001

645

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